ESSENTIALS OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

21st CENTURY SKILLS AND CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

Editors
Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI
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to the memory of Prof. Dr. Mehmet KÖÇER...

FOREWORD

In Derrida's understanding, the 'whatness' of something can be explained within the frameslessness of the concept of *différance* as opposed to an absolute definition of that thing in solitude. When the question 'What is language?' is posed, with Derrida's concept in mind, this question cannot be answered satisfactorily without taking both structural features of language and its functionality in relation to the speaker, interlocuter, literal and metaphorical referents, and how all of these structures and functions are installed into the brain of a learner along with how it can be installed from the perspective of the installer -teacher, into consideration.

Within the frame constructed with reference to the concept of *différance*, this book has been dedicated to approach language in a web of relations by discussing how meaning is constructed and reformed to be refined through semiotics and thus suggesting that learning and teaching requires a multifaceted means; by including the syntactic analysis of English language and how syntactic knowledge attained by a teacher might play an important role in teaching; by proposing the integration of literature into language teaching environment by demonstrating how literary texts bring a kind of authenticity into language classes.

There is a hierarchy in the designing of language teaching environment. General learning theories are the guiding *ideals* which render methodologies where methodologies govern techniques and techniques dictate the existence of certain activities and finally, the activities realize lesson plans that are ready to be absorbed by learners. This book contributes also to teaching English as a foreign language by discussing how the abovementioned hierarchy is to be applied in the mind of a course-plan-writing teacher in order to ensure that the learning mind is approached appropriately. To discuss the relationship between this hierarchy and the teacher, the book brought teacher competencies into discussion by detailing the competencies themselves, and by presenting the structure and function of some specific programs applied successfully.

Although testing is usually conceived of an after-teaching activity conducted to have an insight into the synchronic nature of the language proficiency in the learner and, partially, how effective the teach and the teacher are, it is not something new to state that testing itself is a part of teaching; even the questions to realize the warm-up stage of a course are part of testing and, naturally, of teaching. Although this issue has not been foregrounded in the totality of the book, a reader who would have a little interest in testing will be able to fill the gaps, as explained by Wertheimer as Gestalt psychology, to attain the covert relation between teaching and testing.

As a compilation of various titles in ELT, this book brings forth the essential issues that play a crucial role in the realization of language teaching and in the internalization of both structural and functional features of language.

Prof. Dr. Mehmet ÖZCAN

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SEMIO-THINK: THEORY OF SEMIOTICS AND SIGNIFYING PRACTICES IN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE CLASSROOMS

Murat KALELİOĞLU

Orhun BÜYÜKKARCI

1. Introduction

Dating back to ancient times (Baer, 1983), semiotics takes its modern foundations from two philosophers, Charles Sander Peirce and Ferdinand de Saussure, expressing ideas on semiotics unawarely of each other in different continents (Yücel, 2015). As Danesi puts (2017), semiotics is a "metalanguage" (p. 61) that is enchantingly possible to be applied to a broad range of subject areas. This characteristic renders semiotics a multi and interdisciplinary branch, ranging from the domains of language and culture to philosophy and science. Whatever the subject area is, the primary tendency of semiotic ramifications like "Peircians", "Lotmanians" and "Greimassians" is to put forward possible theories on "signs", "culture" and "signification" by the evaluation of relations between signs whether verbal or non-verbal (Landowski, 2015, p. 84). Language and literature, both the cultural heritage of a community, are unsurprisingly under the research area of semiotics since they reflect the combination of signs within these cultures. Besides, they are nested entities because the unique material of literature is language. This fundamentally brings the use of literature in language classrooms (Carrio-Pastor, 2019; Hewings et al., 2016; Lazar, 2009), except for the sole systematic settings of literary education curricula (Blocksidge, 2000; Chambers & Gregory, 2006; Widdowson, 2013). Accordingly, it is possible to suggest that the primary purpose of this study is to propose one of the aforesaid semiotic approaches, so-called "Greimassian semiotics" (Yücel, 2001, p. 9), as a method of analysis to language and literature classes. Doing this is believed to provide informational and practical insight to both the teachers and the students, who are already concerned with teaching and learning a language and its literature. The reason for choosing the semiotic approach of Algirdas Julien Greimas, the founder of Paris School of Semiotics, among many others, is that it is one of "the first and most developed semiotic theory" (Yücel, 2012, p. 93), which seeks for signification process in literary-narrative artworks. With its goals, research areas and own analysis method, Greimas semiotics has been called "literary-narrative semiotics" (Yücel, 2012, p. 93) since it flourished. Besides, it is also believed in the study that the presentation of information on the application of this method will help students overcome the challenge of seeing problematic areas in literary works that have an idiosyncratic semantic universe created by the logical systematization of signs. Additionally, the conscious act of unfolding the universe of texts will help practitioners to systematize the reading process to increase critical thinking skills and to make the recondite points more explicit and comprehensible. As a signification theory, Literary semiotics requires apprehension of different semantic structures of the texts to cope with difficulties in explaining the complicated interaction between signs, which facilitates understanding the meaning formation in literary texts. However, it has specific rules, terminology, and analysis instruments that are sometimes hard to conceive. Therefore, in the analysis part of the study, the clarifications on the successive steps and tools of a systematized literary semiotic analysis will be made along with the instructional questions to be followed

by teachers and students. For the semiotic analysis, "The Last Leaf" (1995), which is one of the famous short stories of William Sydney Porter, a well-known American writer with the pseudonym "O. Henry", has been selected. The analysis will be performed under three headings, each indicating a specific meaning layer of text. These are respectively discursive, narrative and deep levels.

2. Sign, System, and Meaning Production Process

Semiotics, in general, seeks answers to questions such as how the meaningful whole is structured in various meaning layers, what the functions of these formative factors in these layers are, and how these factors make up a whole by articulating each other. There are two paths in semiotics as meaning formation process and analysis process. The former one, which is called "generative trajectory" (Greimas & Courtés, 1982, p. 135), contains the processes that Greimas' semiotics design puts forward in terms of the producer of the text (writer). According to this design, the text's formation starts in the deep layer where implicit or ideologic meaning (the actual message intended to be given) exists. It continues with the half-realized structures and ends with the meaning in the surface structure where its referents are located directly in the real world.

> According to Greimas, the formation process of every text that has become a whole takes place with the interaction of three different meaning layers. These layers are descriptive, narrative and thematic planes. For Greimas, the formation of every text and the development of its meaning universe postulate a systematic process starting from the thematic plane developing over the narrative and descriptive planes. The text becomes meaningful with the help of this process which start from abstract concepts and develops on concrete concepts and structures (Kalelioğlu, 2020, p. 77).

For text analysis, in which semiotics is the core, the conductor of the lesson can attempt to analyse the text, starting with the structures that possess abstract meaning. However, this case complicates the process in terms of in-class implementations. One of the most important reasons for this is that the student might not be dominant in terms of the culture, history and daily use of the target language. Another reason is the meanings of the signs formed with the reconciliation in the related language society. In this sense, Roland Barthes assumes two main layers of language in terms of meaning. One of these is the denotation which expresses the dictionary meaning of the words, and the other is the connotation that takes shape in a particular society/culture. Louis Hjelmslev's signification form which is the form of the narrative/essence of the narrative and is based on the notions such as "form of content/substance of content" (1969, pp. 47-60) and signifier/signified by Ferdinand de Saussure is the source of inspiration to the denotation/connotation subject on which Barthes worked.

According to Hjelmslev (1969), while the form of expression equal to Saussure's signifier is the written or audial expression, the substance of expression is a pile of sounds in which language has not gained a structural feature. In this sense, while the form of expression is related to phonology, the substance of expression is related to phonetic knowledge. On the other hand, the form of content, which is the equivalent of Saussure's signified, is the solid form of the substance specified by the society with reconciliation. In other words, it is the embodiment of the form of content. The substance of content can be described as the non-

linguistic realities that have not gained any structural feature. The substance of content represents the set of values that the majority of society has determined. For this reason, the analysis and description of the substance of content concern other science branches such as sociology, philosophy, psychology and poetics.

As for the form of content, it emerges as the embodiment of the substance of content, as literary, scientific, all kinds of expression. Considering the suggestion of Hjemslev in the context of sign/reference, it can be said that the reference of the linguistic sign is the form of the content. However, it can also be stated that the realization of these signs depends largely on the substance of the content. Therefore, the correct realization of a linguistic reference is only possible with the state that both signifier and signified understand the reference concept. In this sense, while the form of the content depends on lexicology and morphology, the essence of the content depends on semantics. The efficiency of a healthy relationship between the signifier and signified is related to the substance of the content.

Based on the substance of content and the form created depending on this substance, the form of content is linked to cultural and encyclopaedical knowledge of the referent which shapes language. At this point, Barthes's referential meaning/connotation comes into prominence. According to Barthes, "every signification system has a narrative and content plane. Signification is in the connection between these two planes. Nevertheless, he asserts that the meaningful system that has been formed with the help of the connection between content and narrative planes forms another system and the first system becomes an element of the secondary system" (1979, p. 87). From this point of view, any semantic deviation does not occur because the meaning acquired from the first system is the referential meaning of the sign; however, it would not be justified to state that the same case is valid for the sign that has connotation/associative meaning. Therefore, the "primary system that contains referential meaning becomes the signifier or narrative plane of the secondary system in which connotation forms" (Barthes, 1979, p. 88). Nonetheless, it is also worth stating that no matter how often connotation systems occur and how much the secondary system contains the primary system, connotation systems cannot eliminate referential meaning systems. The reason behind this case is that if a referential meaning system does not exist, the secondary system, which varies greatly in different individuals, societies and cultures, cannot get a chance to emerge.

> Society constantly develops secondary meaning systems based on the primary systems that human language offers itself. This forming act which develops in an open or closed rationalistic manner is closely related to a real historic anthropology. The connotation which is a system on its own contains signifiers, signified and a formation (signification) which connects these (Barthes, 1970, p. 89)

Based on this data, it can be stated that the difficulty of in-class processes in text analysis is closely associated with the systems in which connotations are created. Because of the reasons stated above, choosing an analysis method from abstract concepts to solid concepts for text analysis processes will leave the conductors and the course students in a difficult position, especially in classes where a foreign language is used.

So, what can be done at this point? Greimas's aforementioned generative process can be reversed. It is important to consider Denis Bertrand's suggestion while doing so. Bertrand

suggests "a structural arrangement opposite Greimas's generative process as the analysis process" (2000, p. 29). This process offers an analysis method as a route map from solid to abstract. As elaborated in the next section, it is possible to correctly analyse the texts regardless of their type with the help of this route map, starting from solid structures whose texts are apparent and which can be seen at first glance and developing with abstract structures.

3. Analysis of O. Henry's "The Last Leaf"

According to Bertrand's analysis model, the discursive, narrative-semiotic and thematic structures of a narrative should be analysed. It is of great importance to specify the forming concepts of a construct based on this theme. Bertrand stresses that thematic isotopy that consist of person, space and time in the discursive structure; narrative system, actantial syntax and modal structures in the narrative-semiotic structure; primary meaning in the thematic structure should be sought. Thus, in an in-class activity to be conducted with the help of semiotics, an analysis strategy will be adopted, which develops from known to unknown, visible to invisible, open (solid) structures to closed (abstract) structures. These questions to be specified will guide both the conductor and the students. In this sense, three different analysis planes, analysis tools, implementation and questions related to this implementation will be handled as descriptive, semiotic-narrative and thematic planes.

3.1. Descriptive level analysis

Firstly, it is necessary to specify the person, space and time that form the fiction of the narrative in the descriptive meaning plane. Some questions can be asked to define forming concepts in the solid plane. The goal of this is to determine the referents of signs that can be seen at first glance and direct students to develop the analysis process from easy to complicated.

As Yücel states:

> Our world is a dynamic horizon as a person who perceives himself exists. […] It can be said that three factors have a function on all kinds of knowledge about the world: the world itself (space), the subject that handles it (person) and a moment where both take place (time). With the alteration of one of these three factors, the world is not the same anymore (Yücel, 1979, p.11).

There are three main forming factors in the descriptive meaning plane. The arrangements and descriptive features of these factors can be exhibited:

1st question: Who are the persons in the narrative, and what are their descriptive features?

2nd question: What is the space in the narrative, and what are the descriptive features it?

3rd question: What is the time in the narrative, and what are the descriptive features?

4th question: Describe the thematic roles of narrative persons.

While the person, space and time (1st, 2nd and 3rd questions) attempt to uncover features that can be inferred in the first read, (4th) question attempts to find out thematic roles imposed on persons. The answers to the (4th) question will give us clues about what kind of a function and duty persons are fictionalized in the narrative. It is possible to form a table that gives answers to these four questions.

Table 1: Discursive level analysis (Adapted from Kalelioğlu, 2020, pp. 92-94)

		Descriptive features	Thematic roles
Person	Joanna (Johnsy)	A mite of a little woman with blood thinned (Henry, 1995, p. 179). Sick and weak (p. 182).	A young painter who falls ill with pneumonia. Sue's roommate. From California (p. 178).
	Sue (Sudie)		An artist who earns a living by drawing illustrations for magazines. Johnsy's roommate. From Maine (p. 178).
	Behrman	Over sixty years old, small and weak, has a long gray beard (p. 181). Weak and ill. Dead (p. 183).	An old painter who lives in the same building with Joanna and Sue (p. 181).
	The Doctor	Busy, has a shaggy, grey eyebrow (p. 179).	Doctor who takes care of Joanna (p. 179).
Space		Old Greenwich Village in New York City, building/s hunting for north windows and eighteenth-century gables and Dutch attics and low rents (pp. 178-180). A studio at the top of a squatty three-story brick (p. 178). A bare, dreary yard, the blank side of the brick house twenty feet away. An old, old ivy vine, gnarled and decayed at the roots, climbed half-way up the brick wall (p. 180). Dimly-lighted den below (p. 181).	
Time	Autumn	November (p. 179). Cold rain was falling, mingled with snow (p. 182).	

Considering Table 1, person, space and time can be defined in general. Joanna, Sue, Mr Behrman and Doctor are seen as the narrative persons, the house Joanna and Sue share, which is located in the district of Greenwich, New York, as the space and fall as the time of the narrative.

As for the thematic roles of the narrative persons;

Joanna is a young painter who lives with Sue and lives by the small-scale painting jobs:

> At the top of a squatty, three-story brick Sue and Johnsy had their studio. 'Johnsy' was familiar for Joanna. One was from Maine, the other from California. They had met at the table d'hôte of an Eighth Street 'Delmonico's,' and found their tastes in art, chicory salad and bishop sleeves so congenial that the joint studio resulted (Henry, 1995, pp. 178-179).

Joanna, who has met Sue before and has almost the same tastes, is a pessimistic character who has almost given up on life and her ideal due to pneumonia. "Mr Pneumonia was not what you would call a chivalric old gentleman. […] Johnsy he smote; and she lay, scarcely moving, on her painted iron bedstead, looking through the small Dutch window-panes at the blank side of the next brick house" (179). Joanna has dreams and passions as an artist. "She-she wanted to paint the Bay of Naples some day" (179). Nonetheless, the situation in which she landed strips her away from her dreams and passions. Joanna considers her life span the same as the life span of a few leaves struggling to survive on the branch of a weak, yellowed ivy she sees

from her room window on a winter day. "Leaves. On the ivy vine. When the last one falls, I must go too. I've known that for three days. Didn't the doctor tell you?" (180).

Another point about Joanna in the descriptive plane is the alteration between the start and end of the narrative. There are different types of situations in narratives. This situation is also valid for the main narrative person Joanna in O. Henry's narrative. "I've been a bad girl, Sudie," said Johnsy. It is a sin to want to die" (183).

Table 2: Situation-transformation-situation for the main narrative person, Joanna

1Situation I	Transformation	Situation II
Pessimism / sickness	→	Optimism / wellness

As it is clear in Table 2, Joanna is as a sick and desperate woman (state I) in the descriptive plane of the narrative. However, she has undergone the situation changes (state II) thanks to the help of the transformations. "Your little lady has made up her mind that she's not going to get well" (179). The most important change in terms of the main narrative person here is that pessimism becomes optimism, and sickness state becomes health or wellness. In terms of semiotics, it is possible to form an opposition and assume these signs given in Table 2 are triggers of one another.

Health   Illness

Optimisim   Pessimisim
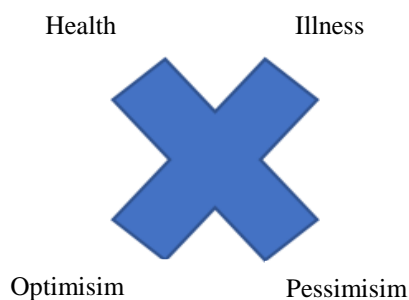
Figure 1: Contrasting circumstances affecting Joanna's life

It is possible to see Joanna's transition from one state to another in the opposing signs encountered in the descriptive plane analysis in Table 2. From this, it is possible to deduce that optimism is necessary for a healthy life. As also stated in the same table, a transformation is in question here. Joanna transforms from a pessimistic character who gave up on life and considered her own life the same as the life of a leaf struggling to survive on the branch of weak, yellowed ivy into an optimistic character. This transformation is an essential factor in her unhealthy state becoming a healthy state. It is possible to see this contradictive circumstance and transformation in Figure 1 as well.

One of the thematic roles of Sue is that she is a painter like Joanna and a helpful person. Sue also makes her living by painting. "Young artists must pave their way to Art by drawing pictures for magazine stories that young authors write to pave their way to Literature" (Henry, 1995, p. 180). Sue appears as a person who gives strength and support to Joanna during her recovery process. "She arranged her board and began a pen-and-ink drawing to illustrate a magazine story. She heard a low sound, several times repeated. She went quickly to the bedside" (pp. 179–180). Sue is curious about Joanna and stands by her no matter how busy

she is. She ignores any bad thoughts she hears from Joanna about death and invites her to be optimistic every time. "Oh, I never heard of such nonsense, complained Sue, with magnificent scorn. […] Try to take some broth now, and let Sudie go back to her drawing, so she can sell the editor man with it, and buy port wine for her sick child, and pork chops for her greedy self" (p. 180). Sue is not only the person who does the same job as Joanna or just shares a house with her but is also an essential narrative person who provides support for her recovery.

It would not be correct to state that Sue has the same transformation process as Joanna (see Table 2) because there is no difference of the states between the start and end of the narrative. Therefore, situational equality is in question in terms of Sue (state I = state II), reflected in Table 2.

Mr Behrman is the other significant person in the narrative. Mr Behrman is also a painter, just like Joanna and Sue and lives in the same building. "Old Behrman was a painter who lived on the ground floor beneath them. He was past sixty and had a Michael Angelo's Moses beard curling down from the head of a satyr along the body of an imp" (p. 181). Mr Behrman appears in the narrative as someone who has devoted almost all of his life to painting but has not achieved any success. "Behrman was a failure in art" (p. 181). Nevertheless, he is a narrative person who always tries to help and protect Joanna and Sue as much as he can. "Try to sleep', said Sue. 'I must call Behrman up to be my model for the old hermit miner" (p. 181). Mr Berhman "regarded himself as especial mastiff-in-waiting to protect the two young artists in the studio above" (p. 181). Like Joanna, Mr Berhman also dreamed of making the work of art that would one day carry him to the top. "He still talked of his coming masterpieces" (p. 181).

State-transformation-state relation of Joanna that appears in Table 2 is also valid for Mr. Behrman.

Table 3: Situation-transformation-situation for the narrative person, Mr. Behrman

Situation I	Transformation	Situation II
The dream of making his masterpiece/ being alive	→	Realizing his dream / not being alive

Appearing in the narrative as a helpful neighbour and a painter who dreams of making his masterpiece one day, Mr Behrman's state changes from the beginning to the end of the narrative. At the beginning of the narrative, he is a benevolent painter. Despite being old and weak, he believes that he will produce unforgettable work one day. "He had always been about to paint a masterpiece but had never yet begun it" (Henry, 1995, p. 181). After a while, this dream of the old painter comes true. "Ah, darling, it's Behrman's masterpieces" (p. 183).

The most important change from the point of narrative person here is that the state of life at the beginning of the narrative transforms into death. Again, there is a contrary situation here in terms of semiotics.
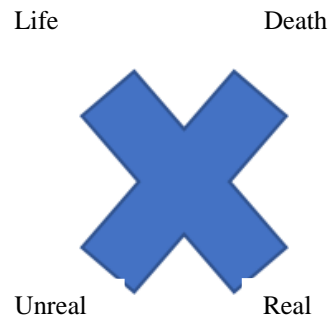
Life   Death

Unreal   Real

Figure 2: Mr. Behrman's situational transformation

Mr Behrman's good deed to Joanna results in him making his masterpiece and make Joanna hold on to life. On the other hand, this deed caused the death of the old painter. Therefore, depending on the thematic roles taking place in the descriptive plane, the narrative person Mr Behrman saved the main narrative person's –Joanna– life in exchange for his own life.

Lastly, a doctor who examines Joanna appears in the descriptive meaning plane. "One morning, the busy doctor invited Sue into the hallway with a shaggy, grey eyebrow" (p. 179). The Doctor appears as a narrative person who gives advice for Joanna to hold on to life after doing what he can and does not undergo any state changes. "I will do all that science, so far as it may filter through my efforts, can accomplish. But whenever my patient begins to count the carriages in her funeral procession, I subtract 50 per cent from the curative power of medicines" (p. 179).

In this section, it has been attempted to analyse the descriptive plane with the help of four questions, and a model has been presented to implementers. Therefore, the factors that form the descriptive meaning plane of O. Henry's "The Last Leaf" have been analysed in terms of person, space, time and the descriptive roles of persons. In the next step, the narrative-semiotic structures, a higher grade that forms the meaning universe of the narrative, will be analysed.

3.2. Semiotic-narrative level analysis

In terms of semiotics, each narrative has a certain system within its own structural arrangement. With the help of this system, the narrative becomes a meaningful whole and creates its meaning universe. Just like in the descriptive plane, there are a few elements that construct the semantic universe in the narrative plane. One of the most important concepts here is that the actant –active subject=subject of doing. This person, who was previously encountered as a person/actor in the descriptive level, is now an actant in the narrative-semiotic plane.

> There are factors, which are different from the linguistic structures, to constitute the narrative structures. One of these factors is the actants who mobilize the narrative by their functions. Each narrative person determined at the narrative level is an actant who has a function in the text (Kalelioğlu, 2018, pp. 135–136).

Narrative persons determined in the descriptive level and have function in the narrative such as Joanna, Sue, Mr. Behrman and the Doctor are also the actants. The actantial states of these persons may change throughout the narrative.

According to Greimas and Courtés, there are six actants acting in the narrative plane. These are "subject/object, sender/receiver, and helper/opponent" (1982, pp. 5-6). A narrative person can undertake several actantial duties at the same time:

> Individual, social and environmental factors and situations determine people's actions in real life. This situation is also the same for the actants in the narrative. In other words, as a result of the interaction of the individual, social, and environmental factors, an actant can turn into another actant in the narrative (Kalelioğlu, 2018, p. 136).

Narrative persons' function and their acts are more important than who they are in the narrative plane. In other words, the actions that guide the narrative are in the foreground.

The actions of the actants and consequences play an important role in the continuity of the narrative because the direction of the narrative depends on these facts. For instance, each action that results in a positive consequence creates another narrative programme (NP). A narrative programme refers to the sequential relationship of events in a narrative that follow each other in a certain order. "A narrative programme expresses the abstract representation of syntactic relations in the narrative and the transformations of the word at the superficial semantic plane (Martin & Ringham, 2000, p. 91). The narrative programme is divided into two as *main* narrative programme and *sub*-narrative programme. Each sub-narrative programme supports the continuation of the main narrative programme. Therefore, the actants and their actions play a critical role in this continuity or discontinuity of the narrative.
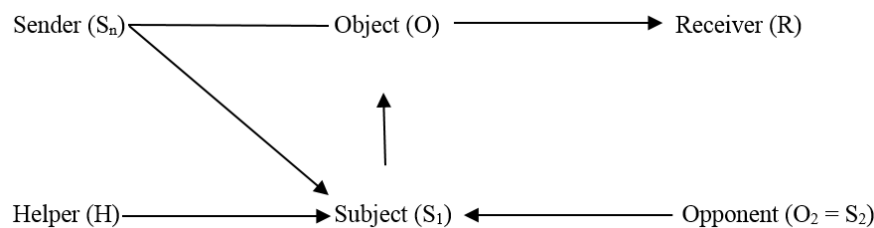
Figure 3: Actantial scheme

It is possible to adapt the actantial schema in Figure 3 into O. Henry's narrative. While doing that, it is also possible to determine different types of sub-programmes. Accordingly, the actantial schema can be reproduced many times regarding the possible circumstances in the narrative. However, in order not to create much confusion and to activate the specific data gathered in the previous semantic layer, our starting point can be the narrative programmes resulting from the states in Figures 2 and 3. Consequently, situational presentation formed in these two figures is related to the two important narrative persons. Joanna and Mr. Behrman play a great role in the transformations that take place in the main narrative theme.

Each narrative usually has three stages as *initial*, *development*, and *final*. Here, it can be asserted that the initial and final stages are shorter than the development stage. The most important reason for this is that these stages include situational information occurring at the beginning and end of the narrative. In other words, it is possible to relate these two phases at the beginning and the end of the narrative with the (state I and state II) (see Tables 2 and 3). It is necessary to underline that everything such as chain of events, actants, actions, encounters, and the like, that led the narrative move from one condition (state I) to another (state II) as a result of the actions of the actants taking place in the development stage. It is also possible to

relate the development stage to the part where the transformations occur. In this sense, the initial and final stages are the shortest stages in terms of the narrative whereas the development stage makes up the longest or densest part.

The narrative can be divided into stages in terms of its initial, development and final status. It is vital to consider the two narrative persons, who direct the narrative with their acts.

1st Question: *Create a table that exhibits the stages of the narrative in the context of main narrative person/s.*

2nd Question: *Determine the changes as state/transformation/new state encountered in the narrative programme.*

Table 4: Narrative stages and situational oppositions in the context of the narrative theme

	Narrative stages → Actants ↓	Initial	Development	Final
Situation/Transformation /New situation →	Joanna	Joanna has fallen ill.	At first, she does not make any effort to recover and waits for the day she will die pessimistically.	But then she puts her pessimism aside and does her best to heal.
		Unhealthy	→	Healthy
Situation/Transformation /New situation →	Mr. Behrman	The old but healthy helpful man, full of desire to one day make his own masterpiece, always helps Joanna and Sue.	The old man learns from Sue that Joanna thinks her own lifespan is the same as a leaf fighting for life on decaying ivy.	The old painter rushes to help Joanna to hold on to life and heal at the cost of his own life.
		Healthy	→	Unhealthy

In Table 4, it is possible to see the answers to both questions asked at the level of narrative structure plane above. For the 1st question, the narrative stages and decisive situations and transformations have been determined according to two important narrative characters – Joanna and Mr. Behrman– encountered in the narrative. To provide an answer for the 2nd question, the opposing state/transformation/new state features of both actors encountered in the narrative programme have been expressed. According to this, the sickness process which is unhealthy for Joanna is healthy for Mr. Behrman / the transformation process which is healthy for Joanna is unhealthy for Mr. Behrman. Therefore, it can be asserted that there is an opposition in the transformation of the subjects. These opposite states will be discussed in this section with the help of an actantial schema.

Based on the Table 4, which shows the basic programme of the narrative, the relationship between two important narrative persons and the situational transformations, the actions of both actants and their relations with other actants can be examined in Greimas's actantial schema.

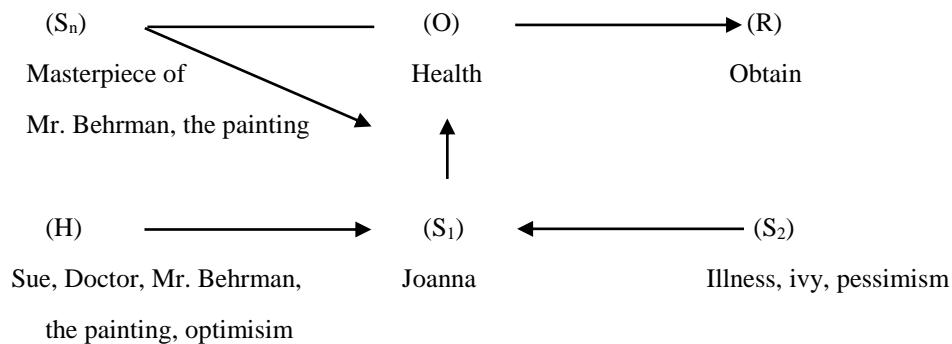3rd Question: *Explain the relationship between the main narrative person Joanna and other actant/s.*

Figure 4: Relational values of the actant Joanna

As an answer for the 3rd question; in Figure 4, the sender (S_n) makes an agreement with the subject (S_1). This agreement is about the value object (O) getting healthier (R). In this case, Joanna either abides by the agreement she makes with the sender, regains her health and be rewarded by the sender or not –getting well or be punished. As can be understood from Figure 4, Joanna (S_1) is not alone, because there are both helpers (H) that enable Joanna to reach her goals and opponents (S_2) that keep Joanna away from her aim.

Examples for opponents (S_2):

"In November a cold, unseen stranger, whom the doctors called **Pneumonia**, stalked about the colony, touching one here and there with **his icy finger**. Over on the East Side this ravager strode boldly, smiting **his victims** by scores. […] Johnsy **he smote**; and she lay, scarcely moving, on her painted iron bedstead" (Henry, 1995, p. 179).

"An old, **old ivy vine**, gnarled and decayed at the roots, climbed half-way up the brick wall. The cold breath of autumn had stricken **its leaves** from the vine until its skeleton branches clung, almost bare, to the crumbling bricks" (p. 180).

Leaves. On the ivy vine. **When the last one falls I must go too**. I've known that for three days. Didn't the doctor tell you?" (p. 180). "There goes another. No, **I** don't want any broth. That leaves just four. I want to see the last one fall before it gets dark. **Then I'll go too**" (p. 180). "It will fall to-day, and I shall die at the same time (p. 182).

As seen in the examples above, the obstacles (S_2) holding Joanna (S_1) to regain (R) her health (O) are respectively pneumonia, ivy with rotten and falling leaves and Joanna's pessimistic opinions about herself. As stated before, it is possible to come across a narrative person as an actant that undertakes various duties. Here, Joanna is seen as a subject (S_1) that attempts to reach the object of value and as an opponent (S_2). Joanna, at first, does not make effort because she considers her fate as the same with the fate of the falling leaves of decaying ivy, until her helpers lay their hands on the situation.

Examples for helpers (H):

Oh, **I never heard of such nonsense**,' complained **Sue**, with magnificent scorn. 'What have old ivy leaves to do with your getting well? And you used to love that vine" (p. 180). "Johnsy, dear,' said **Sue**, bending over her, 'will you promise me to keep your eyes closed, and not look out of the window until I am done working?" (p. 181). **"Sue found Behrman** smelling strongly of juniper berries in his dimly-lighted den below. […] **She told him** of Johnsy's fancy, and how she feared

she would, indeed, light and fragile as a leaf herself, float away when her slight hold upon the world grew weaker" (p. 181). "Dear, dear!' said **Sue**, leaning her worn face down to the pillow; '**think of me, if you won't think of yourself. What would I do**? (Henry, 1995, p. 182).

"Well, it is the weakness, then,' said **the doctor**. 'I will do all that science, so far as it may filter through my efforts, can accomplish" (p. 179).

Old Behrman, with his red eyes plainly streaming, shouted his contempt and derision for such idiotic imaginings. 'Vass!' **he cried**. 'Is dere people in de world mit der foolishness to die because leafs dey drop off from a confounded vine? I haf not heard of such a thing (p. 181).

It is the last one,' said Johnsy. 'I thought **it would surely fall during the night.**" […] **The ivy leaf was still there**. Johnsy lay for a long time looking at it. And then **she called to Sue**. '**I've been a bad girl**, Sudie,' said Johnsy. 'Something has made that last leaf stay there to show me how wicked I was. **It is a sin to want to die** (p. 183).

While it is seen that Sue, Doctor, Mr. Behrman are Joanna's supporters (H) who help her regain her health, which is the value object, her sickness, ivy with the falling leaves and her pessimistic state are the opponents (S_2).

In Figure 4, there is not much the Doctor can do for Joanna, who has already gotten at the beginning of the narrative. Because the Doctor did his best medically and left the rest to Joanna. There are opponents and helpers of the subject trying to realize its action. The action of the subject attempting to have the value object will end up either with success or failure. Accordingly, the subject (S_1) will either abide by the agreement she made with the sender (G_n) and reach the object of value in order to finalize the narrative programme positively ($S_1 \wedge O \vee S_2$)[1], or not reach the object of value and cause the programme to end negatively ($S_1 \vee O \wedge S_2$)[2].

It is a sin to want to die. You may bring me a little broth now, and some milk with a little port in it, and- no; bring me a hand-mirror first; and then pack some pillows about me, and I will sit up and watch you cook (p. 183).

Even chances,' said the doctor, talking Sue's thin, shaking hand in his. 'With good nursing you'll win (p. 183).

The next day the doctor said to Sue: 'She's out of danger. You've won. Nutrition and care now – that's all (p. 183).

Based on Figure 4, it can be seen that Joanna (S_1) reaches the object of value and completed the narrative programme positively ($S_1 \wedge O \vee S_2$).

4th Question: *Create an actantial scheme for Mr. Berhman, an important supporter of the main narrative person, based on the context of the narrative programme in Figure 4 and reveal the relationship of Mr Behrman with other actants.*

---

[1] Subject of state is shown by; S_1 (subject) $\wedge$ (junction) O (object) $\vee$ (disjunction) S_2 (opponent). This formula shows that Joanna attains her aim, and she succeeds the narrative programme positively.

[2] Joanna does not attain her value object.

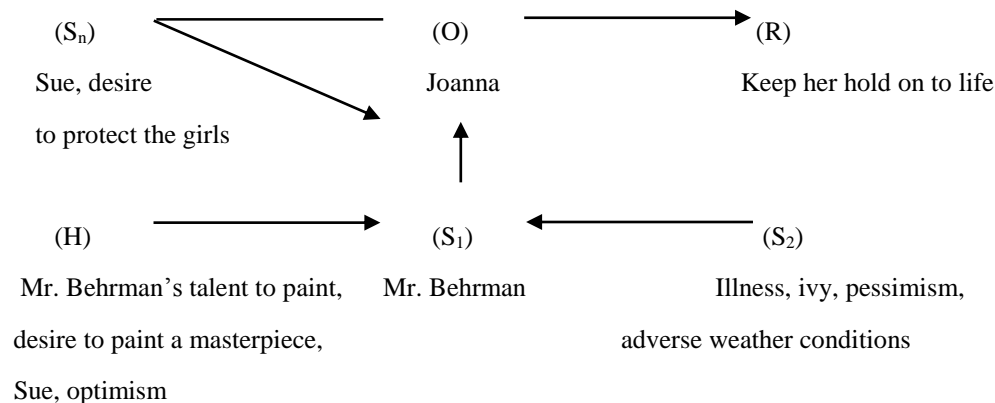| (S_n)		(O)		(R)
Sue, desire to protect the girls	→	Joanna	→	Keep her hold on to life
		↑		
(H)	→	(S_1)	←	(S_2)
Mr. Behrman's talent to paint, desire to paint a masterpiece, Sue, optimism		Mr. Behrman		Illness, ivy, pessimism, adverse weather conditions

Figure 5: Relational values of the acting actant Mr. Berhman

As an answer for the 4th question, the subject of doing or actant of the actantial schema is Mr. Behrman. The first actant that activates the subject of doing is Sue, who is the sender and the helper of this schema. Nonetheless, the action of Sue to activate the subject of doing results from her being as a sender (S_n) not as a helper (H). Therefore, Sue as a sender (S_n), informs Mr. Behrman (S_1) about Joanna's state and expresses her sadness.

> Sue found Behrman smelling strongly of juniper berries in his dimly-lighted den below. […] She told him of Johnsy's fancy, and how she feared she would, indeed, light and fragile as a leaf herself, float away when her slight hold upon the world grew weaker (Henry, 1995, p. 181).

Upon this news, Mr. Behrman (S_1) gets upset and feels the necessity to do something because the old man cares about the object of value Joanna (O) and her sender Sue (S_n) living in the same building. "For the rest he was a fierce little old man, who scoffed terribly at softness in anyone, and who regarded himself as especial mastiff-in-waiting to protect the two young artists in the studio above" (p. 181).

Sue informs Mr. Behrman about Joanna's situation and he takes up protecting the girls as an actant (subject). Mr. Behrman (S_1) wants to save the value object –Joanna (O)– from the desperate state that she is in, and he wants her to hold on to the life again (R). The agreement between the sender and the subject of doing depends entirely upon this.

As soon as Mr. Behrman (S_1) receives the news, he goes to their houses with Sue (H). After this stage, it is possible to consider Sue as Mr Behrman's supporting actant. Mr. Behrman (S_1) models for free in his free time and watches over the girls. "You are just like a woman!' yelled Behrman. 'Who said I vill not bose? Go on. I come mit you. For half an hour I haf peen trying to say dot I am ready to bose" (p. 182).

Mr. Behrman (S_1) is not only a helpful person but also a talented (H) painter, who wants to make his own masterpiece one day. "He had been always about to paint a masterpiece, but had never yet begun it" (p. 181). "Some day I will paint a masterpiece, and we shall all go away" (p. 182).

The subject of doing, in Figure 5, attempts to save the value object (O) from the pessimistic (S_2) state of mind and live her life without them (R) after the agreement he made with the sender as expressed in Table 4. While doing this, he has a helper that supports the subject. These are the subject's ability to paint, his desire to one day make his own masterpiece, Sue

and her optimistic perspective on life (H). On the other hand, there are opponents that do not want the subject to reach the value object. These opponents include the sickness that lays up Joanna and makes her unhappy; Joanna's feeling of despair resulting from this sickness; the ivy triggering this feeling; and bad weather conditions (S_2).

> Johnsy was sleeping when they went upstairs. Sue pulled the shade down to the window-sill and motioned Behrman into the other room. In there they peered out the window fearfully at the ivy vine. Then they looked at each other for a moment without speaking (Henry, 1995, p. 182).

The old painter (S_1) who enters the house with Sue (H) comes up with a brilliant idea. Despite the cold and rainy weather, Mr. Behrman (S_1) puts this idea into practice without awaking Joanna (O). "A persistent, cold rain was falling, mingled with snow. Behrman, in his old blue shirt, took his seat as the hermit-miner on an upturned kettle for a rock" (p. 182).

The subject of doing works his magic under the cold and rainy weather all night and achieves his purpose. Accepting the end of her own life as the end of the life of the last leaf struggling to live on the rotten ivy, and never giving up on this idea, Joanna sees that the leaf clings tenaciously to the ivy against all the odds in the morning of that stormy, cold and rainy night.

> But, lo! after the beating rain and fierce gusts of wind that had endured through the livelong night, there yet stood out against the brick wall one ivy leaf'. […] It was the last on the vine. 'It is the last one,' said Johnsy. 'I thought it would surely fall during the night. I heard the wind. It will fall to-day, and I shall die at the same time (Henry, 1995, p. 182).

Firstly, continuing to be pessimistic, she thinks that the leaf will not be able to withstand the storm and the severity of the rain one day, and she waits curiously for it to fall, just as she waits for her own death.

> When it was light enough Johnsy, the merciless, commanded that the shade be raised. The ivy leaf was still there. Johnsy lay for a long time looking at it. And then she called to Sue, who was stirring her chicken broth over the gas stove. 'I've been a bad girl, Sudie,' said Johnsy. 'Something has made that last leaf stay there to show me how wicked I was. It is a sin to want to die (Henry, 1995, p. 183).

Witnessing a small leaf's struggle for survival in winter, the value object Joanna takes a lesson from this situation. The subject of doing Mr. Behrman (S_1) has achieved to save the object Joanna (O) from despair in spite of the bad weather conditions (S_2) and has made her accept that her fate is not the same with the fate of a leaf on the branch of a rotten ivy.

> An hour later she said – 'Sudie, some day I hope to paint the Bay of Naples.' The doctor came in the afternoon, and Sue had an excuse to go into the hallway as he left. 'Even chances,' said the doctor, talking Sue's thin, shaking hand in his. 'With good nursing you'll win (Henry, 1995, p. 183).

In spite of the opponents such as bad weather conditions, pessimism, sickness and the ivy, Mr. Behrman (S_1) completed the actantial schema in Figure 5 positively and this results in Joanna's favour.

> I have something to tell you, white mouse,' she said. 'Mr. Behrman died of pneumonia today in hospital. He was ill only two days. The janitor found him on the morning of the first day in his room downstairs helpless with pain. His shoes and clothing were wet through and icy cold. They couldn't imagine where he had been on such a dreadful night. And then they found a lantern, still lighted, and a ladder that had been dragged from its place, and some scattered brushes, and a palette with green and yellow colours mixed on it, and - look out the window, dear, at the last ivy

leaf on the wall. Didn't you wonder why it never fluttered or moved when the wind blew? Ah, darling, it's Behrman's masterpiece- he painted it there the night that the last leaf fell (Henry, 1995, p. 183).

As can be understood from the excerpt, the subject, Mr Behrman (S1), teaches a young girl that she can overcome any difficulty she comes across with optimism, faith and struggle and that she should not sink into despair. Succeding in keeping the value object alive by adhering to the agreement he makes with the sender, the subject of doing, Mr Behrman (S1), succeeds in making the masterpiece he always dreamed of at the cost of his own life. In this sense, the subject (S1) achieved the object and caused the narrative to favour the main narrative person $(S1 \wedge O \vee S2)$.

The data obtained here is also the explanation for the opposition states seen in Tables 1 and 2. The answer as to how and why the state-transformation-new state in Tables 2 and 3 occur is in this section, in which actantial schemata formed in Figures 4 and 5 are evaluated.

In this sense, it is possible to deduce:

It is necessary to ascribe meaning for the state-transformation-new state in Table 2. However, the meaning in the descriptive plane cannot go beyond the signifier (word). Therefore, the signification to be conducted in detail depends on the actants examined in the narrative plane, their relationships with each other, actions, and these aspects' cause-effect relationships. Thus, transformation to a new state in Table 2 is possible with the help of Mr Behrman appearing as a sender and helper in Figure 4 and as the subject of doing in Figure 5.

When we consider the state-transformation-new state presentation in Table 3, it can be seen that Mr Behrman is faced with the desire of producing his own masterpiece. This situation takes place as an action in Figure 5. It is possible to see Mr Behrman's transition from one state to another with the cause-effect relationship in the actantial schemata. Accordingly, the facts that result in the aforementioned transformation are Mr Behrman's work as the sender (Sn), Mr Behrman himself, and his positive world-view as the helper (H). Figure 5 also plays a vital role in the transformation of states. According to the figure, the causes that made his state transform into another are his wish to protect the girls who are the senders (Sn), his positive perspective, his ability to paint and his actions as the subject of doing (S1).

Meaning is formed by the articulation of elements in the same system. Every articulation is the result of a transformation. This transformation refers to the transition of any formative element from one state to another, just as in the narrative persons. Regardless of the formative elements (person-space-time), it is essential to know that transformations occur due to the actions of the actants. Facts that bring dynamism to the narrative, such as transformation/change, do not take place by themselves instability. Therefore, it is almost impossible to explain the transformations with their reasons in the descriptive plane because the actions and cause-effect relationships related to these actions do not occur at this plane. For this reason, the semantic plane in which the narrative gains its dynamism and actions of actants cause transformations is the semiotic-narrative plane.

3.3. Thematic level analysis

In this plane, which forms the deep structure of the narrative, the value judgement on which the narrative depends, ideological frame, the moral of the study are analysed in the opposition between abstract and implicit formative structures with reference to the data collected in the descriptive and semiotic-narrative planes. In order to reach consistent and reliable results, the semiotic square is used in such an examination. "By **semiotic square** is meant the visual representation* of the logical articulation of any semantic category" (Greimas & Courtés, 1982, p. 308). Meaning consists of oppositions. Therefore, it is possible to reveal the meaning in the deep structure by creating interrelated, but opposite poles.

> No opposition can emerge or be created by itself. Having absolute grounds for the formation of oppositions is essential in terms of the reliability of the analysis. However, it should also be noted that the detection of the relationship between signs is just as important in such an analysis.

Possible questions for the presentation of O. Henry's "The Last Leaf" narrative on semiotic square:

1st Question: *Specify opposite poles in the semiotic square and explain this by relating to the data obtained from previous meaning planes*.

2nd Question: *What is the implicit/abstract meaning that is formed in the deep structure and contain the hidden/unseen goals of people in the narrative*.

As an answer to the 1st question, it can be said that every semantic plane forms its universe in the narrative by articulating each other. Therefore, it is important to relate to oppositions presented in Figures 1 and 2 in the descriptive plane of the narrative while forming the semiotic square. The health/illness opposition that is presented in Figure 1 is the life/death opposition in Figure 2. The health/illness state of the main narrative person, Joanna, is associated with her personality traits of being pessimistic/optimistic in opposition. In this sense, Joanna either will be optimistic and change her worldview and continue to live, or she will die with her pessimism. That is, she will either exist or not.

This case is also valid for the oppositions generated in Figure 2 regarding Mr Behrman. The biggest dream of the old painter, who has not achieved any success in his life, is to make his own masterpiece one day. This situation left him between life/death opposition with his optimistic, protective and competent artist personality. According to the narrative programme, this state of being caught in the middle is unknown to him and to everybody except the narrator. However, the idea of realizing the ideal of this helpful old artist also shows the relationship between the real/unreal opposition. In this context, due to the role assigned to Mr Behrman, he has to make a choice between life and death without noticing to make his dream come true. This choice will either immortalize him or destroy him forever. So, Mr Behrman will either exist or not.

Consequently, based on the semantic relationships in Figures 1 and 2, it is possible to deal with the two narrative persons of the semiotic square to be formed below, in the opposition of existence/non-existence, which has the ability to represent the situation they are in and the transformations and changes they have undergone. This situation has no material value;

people set goals for the facts they believe in and either reach them and exist or perish. It is possible to conduct the same results from this. Therefore, the subjects go through is a process of existence.
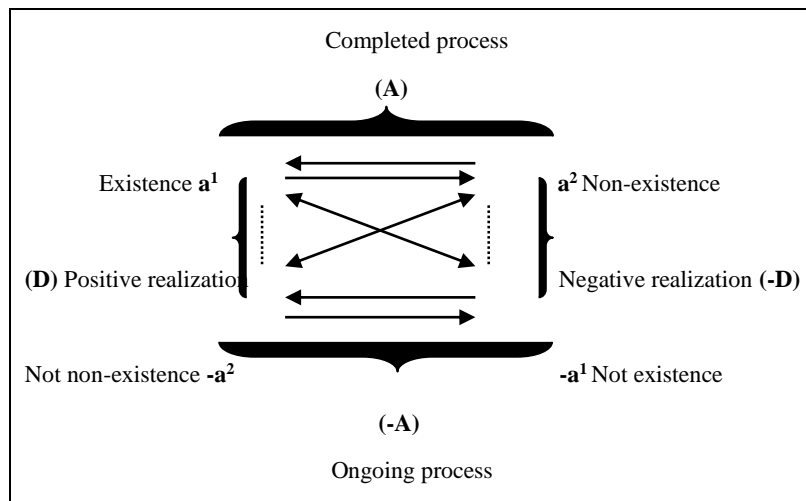

Figure 6: Presentation of the deep structure of the narrative in the context of existence/non-existence

As an answer for the 1st question, based on the presentation in Figure 6, there are more than one meaning that exist in the narrative. First of these is that Joanna takes a lesson from the leaf on an ivy which persistently clings to life in spite of hard and bad conditions.

> But, lo! after the beating rain and fierce gusts of wind that had endured through the livelong night, there yet **stood out against the brick wall one ivy leaf**. It was the last on the vine. […] The day wore away, and even through the twilight they could see **the lone ivy leaf clinging to its stem against the wall**. And then, with the coming of the night the north wind was again loosed, while the rain still beat against the windows and pattered down from the low Dutch eaves. When it was light enough Johnsy, the merciless, commanded that the shade be raised. **The ivy leaf was still there** (Henry, 1995, pp. 182-183).

Regardless of its not being real (Joanna does not know it at that moment), the struggle for existence of the leaf in all conditions created an awareness in her. She left her pessimism aside and started to be optimistic, to strive for recovery, and wished to realize her ideal one day again.

> **Something has made that last leaf stay there to show me how wicked I was'.** […] 'You may **bring me** a little broth now, and some milk with a little port in it.' An hour later she said – **'Sudie, some day I hope to paint the Bay of Naples (Henry, 1995, p. 183).**

Just like Joanna, regardless of their conditions, people should try to look on the bright side of life and should not let the problems deter them from their goals, ideals and dreams.

It is necessary to have a look at the relations between the axes in Figure 6 before dealing with the Joanna's process in the context of the semiotic square.

Table 5: Interaxes relation in the semiotic square (Adapted from Kalelioğlu, 2018, p. 252)

Relational values	Opposite axes	Positive realization / Negative realization	(D) / (-D)
	Opposite axes	Completed process / Ongoing process	(A) / (-A)
	Contrariety relation	Existence / Non-existence	(a^1) / (a^2)
	Sub-contrariety relation	Not non-existence / Not existence	$(-a^2)$ / $(-a^1)$
	Contradictory relation	Existence / Not existence	(a^1) / $(-a^1)$
	Contradictory relation	Non-existence / Not non-existence	(a^2) / $(-a^2)$
	Implicative relation	Existence / Not non-existence	(a^1) / $(-a^2)$
	Suppositional relation	Not non-existence / Existence	$(-a^2)$ / (a^1)
	Implicative relation	Non-existence / Not existence	(a^2) / $(-a^1)$
	Suppositional relation	Not existence / Non-existence	$(-a^1)$ / (a^2)

In Table 5, relational values have been correlated with the data in the semiotic square in Figure 6. Accordingly, Joanna emerges on the non-existence plane (a^2) of the negative realization (-D) part as a person who has given up on her dreams, passions and life. However, this situation transforms with help of the efforts of Joanna, who witnessed the struggle of the only leaf left on the ivy and takes a lesson from it $(a^2 \rightarrow -a^2)$. Gaining the ability to struggle thanks to this first transformation, Joanna (-A) finds herself on the axis (-A) of active struggle and successfully continues the struggle here, causing a new transformation and carrying herself from the not non-existence state $(-a^2)$ to the existence state (a^1). Joanna takes a lesson and transforms her state in the negative realization plane (-D) to positive realization (D), regains the elements that she needs for her existence (a^1) and completes the process positively. In this case, the process that Joanna has successfully undergone in her struggle for existence can be described as $(a^2 \rightarrow -a^2 \rightarrow a^1)$.

Regarding to Mr. Behrman, the old painter appears as a person, who is full of desire to make his own masterpiece one day, has a joy of life and thinks positively. The fact that contrary to the positive features he has as a human being, despite his nearly forty-year artistic life, he has not yet produced a remarkable work causes him to appear in the negative realization (-D) and non-existence plane (a^2).

> Behrman was a failure in art. Forty years he had wielded the brush without getting near enough to touch the hem of his Mistress's robe. […] He had been always about to paint a masterpiece, but had never yet begun it. […] He drank gin to excess, and still talked of his coming masterpiece (Henry, 1995, p. 181).

However, the old painter never gave up on this desire with his world-view and his optimistic, helpful and protective lifestyle. This situation, later, has moved the artist from non-existence plane (a2) to not no-existence plane (-a2) and he continued to struggle for life in (-A) axis, which is the dynamic process, to realize this dream one day. This ambition to struggle has moved Mr. Behrman from negative realization (-D) to positive one (D). When the

transformation in Figure 6 is examined in terms of Mr. Behrman, it can be seen that Joanna and him are the sharers of the same process ($a^2 \rightarrow -a^2 \rightarrow a^1$).

Consequently, Mr. Behrman, unconsciously succeeded in creating the masterpiece he had dreamed of throughout his life while attempting to heal Joanna, who is an artist like himself. This case results in the emergence of interpretations such as there is always hope for people; determination always pays off; doing a favour will end up in good results.

4. Conclusion

Among the aims of this study are respectively to offer the literary semiotic approach to the language learning environment and to present the possible ways to make an implementation of it. As stated earlier, doing this is believed to help students overcome the challenge of seeing problems in plot construction or actorial positions and time-space relations of a literary work. Additionally, the conscious analysis act to unfold the semantic universe of the text under investigation will help practitioners systematize the reading process, increase critical thinking skills and make the recondite points more explicit and comprehensible. Keeping in mind these purposes and their possible benefits, an application of the semiotic approach to a short story of O. Henry has been performed, taking into consideration three semantic layers. These semantic layers are the discursive, narrative and thematic (deep) ones.

With its specific rules, terminology and analysis instruments, a semiotic approach to a text may sometimes be hard to conceive on practitioners' side. Therefore, the clarifications on the successive steps and analysis tools of the systematized literary semiotic analysis have been made by using instructional questions to be followed by teachers and students. The questions posed in each analysis of the semantic layers are believed to have highlighted the significant parameters of the text in question. These parameters revealed with the help of questions have comprised the positions and characteristics of the actors, the use of time and space for discursive level. Subsequently, at the narrative level, they have been in the direction of finding out the essential acts of actors, considering the roles of inanimate or abstract entities in the formation of events that generally subsume actorial transformations. At the thematic level, the main interest has been on revealing the main oppositions that generate semantic relations in a text. Besides, these relations can be utilized to observe main changes from the initiation to the end of the narrative.

Some researchers define the literary semiotic approach as a game (Rifat, 2011) whose winners have performed the closest and most recurrent reading of the text. As far as the huge number of text features is concerned, it can be partially implemented to a text, which makes semiotics flexible. As Martin and Ringham state (2000), for instance, one can only wish to analyze actorial and time relations of discursive level or highlight abstract semantic forms of thematic level. Literary semiotics can be a promising alternative key to textual analysis in language education environments with both its flexibility and deepness.

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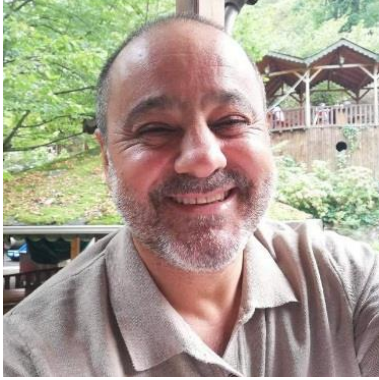
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MULTIMODALITY AND ELT

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1. Introduction

The concept of what it means to be literate has drastically changed over the last few decades. Since literacy is a compilation of societal and communicative practices, it is presumed that literacy will change and be reconceptualized as technology develops and cultures evolve (National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE], 2019). In ELT related practices and beyond, more than ever before, students are encountering daily a wide variety of texts in which images and other design features are central (Jewitt, 2009; Serafini, 2015).

This new concept of literacy provides a working ground in which traditional forms of constructing reality, communicative practices and learning are replaced by multisensory means of achieving the same goals.

In fact, from birth and in different periods of lifetime, the input from which we construct reality is multisensory and a complex array of sights, sounds, smells, tastes, and feelings.

Because language is both something in the world and the primary means of understanding the world, any theory of multimodality might help to explain how languages are acquired by nontraditional means (Dressman & Sadler, 2020).

1.1. Multimodality

The term 'multimodal' is often used as an adjective to describe a particular type of text. In these instances, the term refers to texts that utilise a variety of modes to communicate or represent concepts and information. Therefore, a multimodal text is a complex, multimodal entity that occurs in both print and digital environments, utilising a variety of cultural and semiotic resources to articulate, render, represent, and communicate an array of concepts and information (Serafini, 2014).

Language is widely taken to be the most significant mode of communication especially in contexts of learning and teaching. Multimodality, however, works on the assumption that representation and communication always draw on a multiplicity of modes (pathways to gather information and make meaning), all of which have the potential to contribute to the meaning-making processes. The basic assumption governing multimodality is that meanings are made, distributed, received, interpreted and remade in interpretation through many representational and communicative modes - not just through language - whether as speech or as writing.

The multimodal perspective, in contexts of learning and teaching, provides tools for analysing and describing the full repertoire of meaning-making resources and materials which people, who are involved in education, use to communicate and represent and how these are organized to make meaning (Baykal, 2019).

In their work, Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design (1996), Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen stress that "the visual component of a text is an independently organised

and structured message, connected to the written component, but not necessarily dependent on it" (1996, p. 18).

It is not just the incorporation of visual images into written texts that is the focus of much of today's research into visual literacies. What is of interest is how visual images work alongside written language and design elements, and how readers make sense across the various components and features of these texts. Design elements, visual images, and written language work in diffrent ways to convey meaning and communicate information.

Multimodal research has shown the significance of the role of the image and its relationship with writing for the construction of knowledge in textbooks and other learning resources (Bezemer & Kress, 2008; Moss, 2003). This research has highlighted the implications of multimodal design for how students navigate digital and print materials through the creation of reading pathways that rely on pictures, colour and other graphical elements, and layout (Jewitt, 2011).

What needs to be discussed at this point is how and why multimodality works, or how the combination of multiple modes of communication contributes to learning; for the specific aim of this study, to language-learning outcomes that are more powerful than learning through any single model. A model that would embody all these would focus on describing how different modes and their different sensory inputs, mainly visual and auditory but potentially also tactile, olfactory, gustatory, and kinesthetic, produce meaning, individually and in combination (Dressman & Sadler, 2020).

Because multimodality's dynamics are difficult to explain, perhaps the best approach to studying multimodality from the perspective of its implications for language learning would be to focus on the observable outcomes of multimodal interactions.

From this perspective, some researchers and theorists characterize multimodality as an enabling condition, in which the combination of meaning from two or more modes combines to have a demonstrable learning outcome. For these researchers, multimodality itself is not under investigation as much as certain combinations of modes-print text and audiobooks; videos with subtitles in L1 or L2; video games with written or spoken chat and their learning outcomes in comparison to unimodal or other combinations. Multimodality in these studies is an enabling feature, something that adds motivational and cognitive power to learners' acquisition of a second language (Dressman & Sadler, 2020)

2. Multimodal Pedagogies: From Students' Perspective

'Multimodality' is defined as using different modes, i.e. textual, aural, linguistic, spatial, and visual, for communication and meaning-making (Kress, 2003). Multimodal pedagogy refers to curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment practices which focus on mode as a defining feature of communication in learning environments (Stein & Newfield, 2006). It allows students to represent their learning in multiple modes (Choi & Yi, 2015; Jewitt & Kress, 2003). In L2 contexts, with the development of technological tools students are increasingly producing multimodal texts; combining texts, images, audios, and videos in digital forms, such as blogs, digital stories, and mini-documentaries (Hafner & Miller, 2011; Yi & Angay-Crowder, 2016). This new situation aligns with the reconceptualization of literacy and the new notion of

'multiliteracies' that refers to the ability to succesfully engage with texts integrating different semiotic resources (The New London Group, 1996). Multiliteracy is often seen to be used interchangeably with 'multimodality' (Yi & Angay-Crowder, 2016).

A multimodal literacy pedagogy has shown to incorporate multiple meaning-making modes, apart from traditional unimodal forms of reading and writing (Ajayi, 2008; Hull & Nelson, 2005).

This pedagogical approach has shown to be especially effective for English language learners. Students in today's ELA (English Language Arts) classrooms are exposed to a wide variety of meaning-making modes and combination of these modes (Kalantzis et al., 2016).

For example students constantly see page layouts with written text and images on their devices, often while hearing music and other sound effects. They see billboards with phrases and pictures; they attend shows with music, body language, and images or they participate in interactive conversations using a variety of modes.

Thus, students are allowed multiple points of access to multimodal texts when students become both viewers and readers to the content of these texts. Analyzing and creating multimodal texts also allows ELLs of all levels to express themselves in unique ways by using multiple semiotic resources to create multidimensional meanings (Pacheco & Smith, 2015). Through multimodal projects, students are able to express themselves more than they would be able to with unimodal written texts (Zapata, 2014).

Multimodal literacy practices are also pointed out to improve literacy skills, enhance learning motivation and autonomy (Li, 2020). Students welcome multimodal pedagogy and agree that use of modalites (e.g. videos and audios) facilitates their learning of course content (Li, 2020; Peng, 2019).

Some of the studies to exemplify how multimodality influences literacy development/language education are Kenner (2004), Kress (2003), Kress et.al (2004), Adoniou (2013), Early and Marshall (2008), Potts and Moran (2013), Sofkova Hashemi (2017). These studies have shown that both learners of L1 and L2 are supported in their literacy development by a multimodal framework. Smith (2014)'s review on L2 education and multimodal approach to teaching in L2 was beneficial to student learning in a number of areas, including academic writing. Research on L1 supports the benefits of multimodality for developing writing and reading both in early L1 education (Mackenzie & Veresov, 2013; Sofkova Hashemi, 2017) and throughout the school years (Oldham, 2005; Pantaleo, 2012; Svardemo Aberg & Akerteldt, 2017).

The benefits of multimodal pedagogies in enriching classroom teaching and learning are documented in the following studies. In Asia, Ganapathy and Seetharam(2016) reported that the use of multimodal texts made English language lessons more interesting and enhanced students' level of engagement, understanding, and retention of the knowledge taught. Similarly in Singaporean secondary school, Anderson et al. (2017) argued that engaging in multimodal text composition allowed low-progress students to develop higher-order critical and analytical skills, which the usual classroom literacy practices and activites did not offer. Their findings are consistent with Ajayi's (2008) earlier observations on the benefits of using

multimodal composing activities among high school ESL students who come from socieconomically disadvantaged backgrounds. Jiang and Gao (2020) also observed that the inclusion of multimodal digital composition tasks contributed to the development of digital empathy amongst Chinese EFL learners, and helped to increase their motivation and confidence in expressing themselves in English. Likewise, Chen (2021) reported that the teacher's multimodal pedagogies in designing opportunities for students' multimodal composing were well-received by the students, who appreciated the range of meaning-making options.

Stein (2004) demonstrates how English language learners from certain communities in South Africa value oral, performative, and gestural forms of communication above print-based texts. Stein reports that through writing, verbal modes, role-play, and photography, the students not only use visual representations to provide details that are absent in the written mode but also examine their social realities, convey different social identities and experience their worlds in new ways because of classroom social practices centered on the use of multimodal resources.

3. Multimodal Pedagogies: From Teachers' Perspective

With the influence of multi-semiotic digital input in learners' life (Street, Pahl, & Roswell, 2009), multimodal pedagogy is capturing researchers' and instructors' growing attention. Multimodal pedagogy is informed by the theoretical construct of multimodality (Kress, 2003).

Multiliteracies is often seen to be used interchangeably with "multimodality" (Yi & Angay-Crowder, 2016). The relationship between the two terms was clarified by Rowsell and Walsh (2011): "Multimodality comes first in that it informs how we make meaning, and multiliteracies, as a possible pedagogy, give us tools for doing so" (p. 56). A concept associated with multiliteracies is "multimodal literacy", which is defined as the ability to construct meanings through "reading, viewing, understanding, responding to and producing and interacting with multimedia and digital texts" (Walsh, 2010, p. 213).

The term 'multimodal pedagogies' describes the ways in which the teacher can design learning experiences that facilitate students' development of multimodal literacy in the classroom (Kress & Selander, 2012). Multimodal pedagogies involve teachers making decisions about which modes of representation to use for particular curricular content, and how these are to be arranged and sequenced. It also involves designing opportunities for students to create multimodal compositions.

A multimodal literacy pedagogy gives teachers the resources to recognize the value and capitalize on students' cultural and linguistic resources through instruction that incorporates multiple meaning-making modes, apart from traditional unimodal forms of reading and writing (Ajayi, 2008; Hull & Nelson, 2005). In order to support the development of literate ELLs in today's world, educators must expand the literacy practices that they use in the classroom to include multimodal texts (Serafini, 2015). Teachers must learn how to use and teach students how to use a wide range of modes to articulate, represent, and interpret texts (Serafini, 2014). Because of the importance of utilizing multimodal literacies with ELLs in current educational settings, the focus is on an instructional approach in language teaching classrooms.

As Veliz and Hossein (2020) reminded us, it becomes almost inevitable to integrate digital multimodal tools into language instruction in order to enhance students' language learning experiences. Thus, the need for teacher education programs to prepare pre-service teachers to bridge the gap between the traditional literacy and multiliteracies will be continuously intensified in the years to come (Rowsell et al., 2008).

Although multimodal literacy has been increasingly practiced in language classrooms, research on integrating multimodal practices into the teacher education curriculum is still in its infancy. Miller's study (2007) is one of the earlier works that initially drew our attention to multimodal literacy practice in a teacher education class in the USA through digital video composing tasks.

Additionally, previous studies (e.g., Ajayi, 2010; Coyle et al., 2010; Farias & Veliz, 2019; Yi & Angay-Crowder, 2016) reported that many teachers still feel unprepared for multimodal pedagogy, as they lack relevant skills to deliver multimodal practices in their classes. For instance, in the questionnaire survey with teacher candidates conducted by Ajayi (2010) in the USA, many participants disagreed that they had learned and practiced strategies to teach multiliteracies in their teacher training courses. This perception was echoed by the pre-service teachers in Chile, reported in Farias and Veliz (2019). In Farias and Veliz's (2019) study, participants acknowledged the use of multimodal texts in their teacher training courses, but pointed out the lack of a systematic pedagogical preparation for pre-service teachers to implement multimodal pedagogy later in their teaching practice.

However, Bulut et. al. (2015) developed a 'Multimodal Literacy Scale' to investigate multimodal literacy skills of prospective teachers of English language to find out about the changes in the understanding of literacy skills in this communication and technology age in Turkish context. Ekşi and Yakışık's study (2015) tries to define prospective language teachers' multimodal literacy levels in a state university via the Multimodal Literacy Scale developed by Bulut et al. (2015). The results indicate that pre-service English language teachers have high levels of multimodal literacy skills. The study by Ulu et al. (2017) reveals that there is a positive and mid-level relationship between the multimodal literacy and pre-service teachers' perceptions about their self-efficacy in critical reading. The confronting results might be due to the differences in the formation and design of curriculum objectives of respective countries.

Still, it seems very important to incorporate multimodal pedagogy into TESOL teacher education so as to prepare pre-/in-service teachers for the digital trend in language teaching. Specifically, teacher educators are encouraged to update the TESOL curriculum by including multimodal practices to expose pre-/in-service teachers to emerging knowledge of multimodal literacies. However, the investigation of multimodal pedagogy in TESOL teacher education is rather scarce (Yi & Angay-Crowder, 2016). Yi and Choi (2016) directed teacher educators' attention to the importance of knowing pre-/in-service teachers' views of multimodal practices so as to better integrate multimodal tasks into existing curricula.

McVee et al. (2008) continued to implement multimodal pedagogy in a graduate course of new literacies and technologies in the USA, with the aim to inform teacher educators to train pre-/in-service teachers to integrate technology into their teaching along with the digital trend.

Through completing three digital projects (i.e., poetry interpretation via PowerPoint, inquiry based WebQuest via Dreamweaver, and a digital story via iMovie), students were provided valuable opportunities to create multimodal texts electronically and reflect on the use of digital technologies in literacy instruction. The results showed that the pre-service teachers learned multimodal design of texts and comprehended the transitional stances of literacy/technology integration, namely the dynamic and interwoven relationship between technology and literacy (Bruce, 1997).

Differently, in Hundley and Holbrook's (2013) study, the pre-service teachers preferred print-based literacies, and voiced the challenges as they composed digital multimodal texts in a writing methods course. The perceived challenges included struggling with new composition structures, thinking with image, and using technology. Hundley and Holbrook (2013) called for more opportunities for pre-service teachers to experiment with multimodal literacy in their coursework so that they can be "enthusiastically attuned to a digital era" (p. 508).

Emphasizing the pedagogical perceptions of the issue, Rowsell et al. (2008) reported on a longitudinal study of literacy teacher preparation in Canada via interviews with pre-service teachers and new teachers. Their study revealed perceived benefits of multiliteracies pedagogy, including helping the implementation of constructivist pedagogy, connecting to students' lives, and fostering class community. Participants also reported challenges in implementing multiliteracies pedagogy, such as lack of clarity about the nature and purpose of multiliteracies pedagogy and inadequate range of literacy forms (e.g., less attention to non-fiction literacy and computer literacy). Veliz and Hossein (2020) recently examined Australian English as an Additional Language (ELA) teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of their teacher training programs in preparing them for multimodal pedagogy via semistructured interviews. Teacher participants shared challenges of implementing an integrated approach to teaching meaning-making through multiple semiotic modes. It is pivotal to educate learners with the knowledge and skills of how multimodal texts are constructed and to develop effective pedagogical strategies to integrate multimodal literacy (Ajayi, 2010; Farias & Veliz, 2019).

To investigate how multimodal pedagogies are practised in TESOL classroom contexts, Rance-Roney (2010) explored pre-/in-service teachers' engagements with multimodal literacy projects. The teachers made short videos addressing reading strategies and linguistic/cultural schema to serve as pre-reading activities for their ELLs. The results showed that the teachers, by orchestrating visual, audio, and linguistic modes to produce the videos, gained a deepened understanding of the content of reading materials. More recently, Yi and Angay-Crowder (2016) incorporated multimodal practices into graduate TESOL courses by implementing two multimodal projects in which 1) students represented their knowledge of Second Language Acquisition concepts multimodally and 2) students created multimodal instructional materials to teach ELL academic literacy. This study particularly addressed the challenges of implementing multimodal pedagogy in teacher education. The perceived challenges included epistemological issues regarding legitimate academic literacy, assessment of multimodal projects involving both content knowledge and design, and teachers' resistance to multimodal practices for the lack of technological skills and time constraints.

By incorporating two multimodal projects into the TESOL curriculum/assessment, this study provided opportunities for pre-/in-service teachers to practice and reflect on multimodal practices. The findings of this study echoed affordances of multimodal practices explored in language classrooms (e.g., Miller, 2010; Ryan et al., 2010; Yi & Choi, 2015). Also, the study reinforced the findings of previous studies (e.g., Miller, 2007; Rance-Roney, 2010) conducted with teacher candidates that the multimodal project led to their deepened learning of content knowledge and a collaborative learning community. Li's (2020) study also confirmed that multimodal practices can be productive ways to benefit pre-/in-service teachers enrolled in graduate programs by enabling them to enhance content learning as well as digital learning, which furthermore prepared them for implementing multimodal pedagogy in their classroom contexts.

There are also studies which report on how a multimodal approach is difficult to enact in the classroom due to issues related to school traditions, teachers' competence, the challenges of power relations in the classroom and even the students' resistance (Aagard & Silseth, 2017; Cederlund & Sofkova Hashemi, 2018; Gilje, 2010; Godhe, 2014; Olin-Scheller, 2006).

The implications of multimodal pedagogies on curricular issues are discussed in Elf et al. (2018). They state that whereas multimodality previously was connected mainly to students' receptive skills, there now appears to be a shift towards students' multimodal productions. This shift in focus in curricula, stresses the importance of formulating qualitative aspects of multimodal productions in a school setting in order for teachers to be able to assess them. In a multimodal perspective, assignments can encourage students to use multimodal meaning-making in their design process. The extent to which they do so may depend on how the assignment is expressed and prepared through teaching and how the assessment criteria are formulated and communicated. Therefore, it is important to notice the lack of adjustments concerning multimodality and digitalisation in knowledge requirements and assessment criteria. Studies show that what is recognized as learning in language education is still very much connected to verbal writing, both in teaching and assessment (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003; Oldham, 2005; Tønnessen, 2010). Results from studies by, among others, Aagard and Silseth (2017), Godhe (2014) and Silseth and Gilje (2017), reveal how assessment practises fail to align with teaching. While teaching practices may be multimodal, assessment practices are generally not, and assessment criteria used to evaluate verbal texts, do not adequately address the complexity of multimodal compositions (e.g., Cope et al., 2011; Godhe, 2014; Oldham, 2005)

In L2 contexts, for teachers of ELLs, research has revealed its benefits for learners, such as deepening their engagements with texts, making school learning relevant to their out-of-school interests, and giving voice to marginalized students (Ajayi, 2008; Early & Marshall, 2008; Hull & Nelson, 2005; Jacobs, 2012). However, relatively little research in second language (L2) literacy has explored the use of multimodality in the classroom among ELLs and their teachers (Lotherington & Jenson, 2011). Among a few studies that have looked into integrating multimodal practices into L2 classrooms (e.g., Ajayi, 2011; 2012; Early & Marshall, 2008), the collaborative endeavor by Angay-Crowder et al. (2013) is one of the latest reports on the use of multimodal practice in the second language classroom setting. While implementing a digital storytelling curriculum for multilingual middle school students

in a summer school, the researchers found that multimodal teaching and learning had the potential for "expanding their [multilingual adolescents'] literacy repertoires and means of expression" (p. 43). Of particular importance is that by engaging in print-based and digitally based composition about a topic of interest, these adolescents "capitalized on their home/community-based languages, discourses, and knowledge" (p. 42) and redefined and recreated their realities and identities.

Another important study to note here is Rance-Roney's (2010) research that explored pre-service and in-service teachers' engagements with multimodal literacy projects, named digital jump-start (DJ), in a teacher education program. The teachers in the study made a 3- to 6-minute video that was intended for prereading activities, addressing vocabulary, syntax, reading strategies, and cultural and linguistic schema. They used multimodality as an effective instructional scaffold for enhancing ELLs' academic reading and language acquisition. Both of these studies could be of significant value for classroom teachers who serve a growing population of linguistically and culturally diverse students. They reveal specific ways to employ digital and multimodal practices to support ELLs' identity, language, literacy, and content area learning. Nevertheless, we could benefit from more studies that examine teachers' actual experiences of employing multiple modes to teach ELLs in the classroom context.

In support of the findings of above mentioned studies, in Choi and Yi's study (2015) it was found that the benefits of multimodality for ELLs are also applicable to all the students and they strongly believed that every teacher must employ various modes to ensure academic success of all students. They found that multimodal teaching brings content knowledge to life and makes it more real for learners. They also considered the strengths of multimodality as highlighting more students' otherwise overlooked and underexplored abilities, interests, and personalities, all of which have a significant impact on learning in school. They concluded that multimodal teaching reaches more students due to the broad spectrum of ability levels, talents, and interests.

They also found that allowing ELLs to express visually what they were learning proved to be a powerful teaching practice. They believed that visual representation plays a prominent role in aiding ELLs' understanding of linguistic text. Teacher's use of multimodality in instructing ELLs suggests that multimodality promotes ELLs' cognitive as well as affective engagements with content knowledge. This mode of instruction can ultimately enhance ELLs' sense of accomplishment and self-esteem. The teachers, who took part in this study, viewed multimodal practices and pedagogy as having a lasting impact on their positive academic experience. The teachers also identified various issues around technology and lack of support from administration as challenges for integrating multimodality into the classroom setting.

The value of multimodality for teaching and learning has not been widely accepted by classroom teachers both because of the long-standing view of literacy and language as exclusively linguistically based (Hundley & Holbrook, 2013) and because of an increased emphasis on standardized tests that are administered primarily through print media in U.S. schools despite the Common Core State Standards recognizing the importance of multimodal texts (Jacobs, 2012; Siegel, 2012). For instance, Hagood et al. (2008) found from their

longitudinal study that teachers in two low-performing middle schools, while holding a traditional view of literacy (i.e., print-based reading and writing), often used new literacy strategies (including multimodal activities) in their content area classes, but they were rather limited to being used for activating students' "schema" or "culminating activities for units of study" (p. 37). Furthermore, although some teachers were enthused about integrating multimodality into their practice, they viewed this approach as impractical to prepare students for standardized tests. In another study, Miller (2007) found that many pre-service and in-service English language arts teachers initially saw print-based text as the only legitimate form of school literacy. Yet, when they engaged in composing digital videos, they began to see digital video production as a similar composing activity to writing traditional, print-based text because of the similar literacy process required, and consequently they expanded their notions of school literacy "from only reading and writing print to also composing visual and auditory 'texts'" (p. 70). Here, findings from both Hagood et al.'s (2008) and Miller's (2007) studies provide a significant implication for teacher educators, suggesting that they need to play a key role in helping teachers be prepared to use newer kinds of "embodied multimodal literacy practices and professionalizing tools" (Miller, 2007, p. 78) so as to serve students better.

However, due to the pressure of and customary nature of standardized literacy and assessment practices in education sysytems, there may be hinderances during the implementation of multimodal pedagogies. Heydon (2013) found that standardized literacy assessment practices greatly limited the curriculum time and focus for teachers to engage in multimodal pedagogies in the Canadian province of Ontario. Their instructional practices were often influenced by the pressures to teach the 'must-dos' – narrowly focused on the language skills which were assessed in standardized tests (Heydon, 2013). A similar tension between new multimodal pedagogies and old language-dominant assessment practices has also been reported in Singapore. Tan et al., (2010) documented a case study of how they progressively transformed the pedagogical practices of a Singaporean high school English language teacher, where the 'reading and designing of multimodal texts' became central, and students were introduced to other semiotic modes besides language. Despite this, the teacher conceded that when confronted with the more pressing need of preparing her students for the all-important year-end examinations, multimodal literacy was "good to have' but 'not one of [the] top priorities' in her teaching" (Tan et al., 2010, p. 14).

2.1. Materials Serving Multimodal Pedagogies

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) defined multimodal texts as "any text whose meanings are realized through more than one semiotic code" (p. 183). The shift in the definition of texts implies a need for change in ways English language teachers negotiate textbooks – from reading and writing print-bound materials – to developing skills and knowledge to teach how meanings are designed into textbooks through multimodal resources. In this way, English language teachers can connect textbooks to multiple identities and cultural forms of communication in order to "engage with, and gain access to, student agency, cultural memory, and home and school learning, within local contexts" (Jewitt, 2008b, p. 50).

In response to Gardner's (1991) groundbreaking theory of multiple intelligences, English language teachers have grappled with how to integrate different learning modalities into classrooms, particularly, the visual intelligence, to appeal to students' learning styles. Gardner (1991) argues that "students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways" (p. 11). Also, advancements in multimedia technology have created possibilities for integrating different modes into textbooks. Emphasizing the integration of images, words, colors and audio for communication, Kress (2000b) contended it "is now impossible to make sense of texts, even of their linguistic parts alone, without having a clear idea of what these other features might be contributing to meaning of a text" (p. 337). Concerned with how to support students' learning and make materials appealing, publishers are integrating diverse modes into textbooks. Designs of multiple modes into texts suggest a change in social and pedagogical relations between producers of textbooks and learners. This shift signifies horizontal, more open and more participatory relations in knowledge production among textbook producers, teachers, and students (Bezemer & Kress, 2010). Because of the multimodal nature of English language learning (ELL) textbooks, students enjoy establishing reading paths according to their interests, backgrounds, and needs. Indeed, visual representations have become a pervasive and visible feature of ELL textbooks around the world. In many ELL textbooks, producers integrate language and multimodal resources (e.g., image, color, layout, typography, and font) to communicate messages.

The multimodal resources of ELL textbooks suggest that teachers and students need new kinds of textual understanding: how multimodal resources of text-books are a crucial aspect of knowledge construction in classrooms. Such new understandings can help teachers make connection between their students' social and economic change, the material conditions of learners' lives, ELL textbooks, and pedagogy (Hull & Schultz, 2001). Equally importantly, multimodal textbooks brought by multimedia technologies have given rise to new textual experiences, social practices, and accompany literacies that potentially expand opportunities for ELL (Kern, 2006).

While visual messages are integral to texts, "they are still often ignored or treated superficially in the classroom" (Hobbs & Frost, 2003, p. 330). In many classrooms today, "the visual and multimodal survive at the margins of the curriculum" (Jewitt, 2008b, p. 15). The disconnection between highly visual and multimodal textbooks and teachers' practices is hardly surprising. Multimodal texts afford English learners the opportunity to draw on different modes and gain access to a wider range of semiotic possibilities for meaning making. The multi-layered and multifaceted nature of multimodal textbooks requires learners to engage in multimodal thinking and cognitive flexibility that are crucially important for language learning in multilingual contexts. Walker et al. (2010) argued that multimodal texts facilitate "a different, expanded form of classroom discourse that spans intertextuality and critical connections" (p. ix) that were usually not made available in traditional print-based materials. In addition, images in textbooks offer English language learners the possibility of multidirectional entry points into textual analyses and interpretations. Students can start interpretations of texts from captions, images, colors, layouts, or words. Because multimodality involves understanding how students interpret, understand and produce texts,

the role of teachers is to teach English language learners the "interpretation of the diverse combinatory ways of representing meaning that new technology tools are making possible" (Kern, 2008, p. 7).

Using a multimodal pedagogy, English language teachers have a greater chance of preparing their students to read textbooks from different identities based on ethnicity, race, gender or class, and redesign texts in ways that transform knowledge (Behrman, 2006; Walker & Bean, 2005). There is a need for teachers who understand that multimodal resources are central to ELL textbook design and students' learning in the contemporary times. Such teachers will screen textbooks for cultural representation, relevance and accuracy. More importantly, teachers also have to theorize on how textbook multimodal resources structure knowledge for students' learning in ELL classrooms.

Teachers need to teach students how textbooks' structures and visual resources interact and integrate to convey biases and prejudices and how such features can be interpreted within particular socio-cultural contexts and through specific social practices.

Multimodal representations in textbooks make new demands on teachers in "relations to both how knowledge is represented and communicated and how those representations circulate and mobilized across time and space" (Jewitt, 2008a, p. 256). More importantly, multimodal composition changes the shapes of knowledge in textbooks as diverse modes – images, words, color, captions, font, gaze, closeness, and directionality of gaze – interact and design meaning in textbooks. Besides, there are studies mentioning the positive perceptions of students' for the visuals present in their coursebooks (Şimşek & Dündar, 2016). Hence, helping English language learners understand the combinative potential of multimodal resources and the "relations of meaning that bind semiotic modes together" (Nelson, 2006, p. 57) is crucially important. Teachers can help English language learners understand the complex ways by which meanings are designed into textbooks and how to interpret such materials. The modal diversity in textbooks can serve to "increase the possibility of emergent knowledge, which may in turn positively affect intellectual and affective development" (Nelson, 2006, p. 70) of English language learners.

To teach multimodal textbooks is to "learn how to be critical of its messages, and . . . how to use it critically" (Lemke, 2005, p. 5). Such critical textual analyses of images by teachers are vitally important for preparing students to engage in heteroglossic interpretation that "focuses on how English learners and their communities influence and are influenced by social, political, and cultural discourses and practices in historically specific times and locations" (Gutíerrez, 2008, p. 150).

The teachers could ask: What is the message of the pictures? Do you agree or disagree? Explain your position. Why is the message presented to readers this way? Whose social-political interest is the message designed to serve? Multimodal textbooks have an inherent critical potential to the extent that teachers learn to teach English language learners how to "deconstruct the viewpoint of the text, and the text to subvert the naturalness of the image" (Lemke, 2005, p. 4). Teachers may need to ask crucial questions about ELL instruction: what new multimodal resources are made available in textbooks for meaning? What are the possibilities and constraints of visual and non-linguistic resources of textbooks? How can

teachers exploit the potential of multimodal textbooks for teaching? Furthermore, there may be a need for additional 'training' for some ELL teachers on how to make better use of the affordances of multimodal textbooks. Such training will prepare teachers to teach how multimodal resources inform textbook production and the specific skills, knowledge and dispositions they need to teach students for analysis, interpretation, and critique. Furthermore, school districts need to give teachers a more prominent role in selecting and adopting textbooks for students. To play this role effectively, teachers may need 'training' on how to engage in nuanced interpretations of textbooks. This is because textbooks are a patchwork of ideologies, interests and marketing strategies. ELL teachers may need additional training on how to ask questions such as: which publishing house produces them? What are its views on how best to educate ESL students? How does it intend multimodal textbooks to be used? Such training will help ELL teachers to identify multimodal texts that they consider appropriate for their students, including CD-ROMs or other multimedia technologies. For example, CD-ROMs with images to provide extra-linguistic clues to support the language being taught will potentially facilitate students' learning. Such materials also need to be interactive, e.g., use slower speech, repetition and allow students to ask for clarification. In addition, CD-ROMs should be interesting and relevant to students' lives. Furthermore, CD-ROMs should be recorded in different accents as a way to provide students the most important skill to negotiate the different dialects and accents.

4. An Overall Evaluation of Multimodal Pedagogies and Practices in ELT

Critical theorists posit that SLA theory–practice dynamics should pay close attention to the interconnection and interaction among politics, power, language, and pedagogical practices. In particular, Norton (2000) suggests the need for researchers and teachers to understand the impact of prevailing social structures in contexts of learning English as a second language (ESL). In essence, for critical theorists, some of the fundamental questions become: How do language learners become conscious of themselves and the social possibilities available to them? How do ESL pedagogical practices connect language learning and use to issues of power, equity, and social justice? How can ESL pedagogy be deployed in ways that stimulate students to use their life situations, perspectives, and experiences to construct their own identities/subjectivities? How do the changes in social and material affordances of the 21st century open up possibilities for students to remake texts by asserting their own identities through multimodal engagement? With this construct, ESL pedagogy becomes a site of struggle over what to teach and how to teach. This is why critical theorists are faced with the task of designing pedagogical practices that encourage ESL students to challenge linguistic rules of use that limit learners' possibilities for full and equitable social and cultural participation (Norton, 2000; The New London Group, 1996).

The pioneering research of Knobel and Lankshear (2007), The New London Group (1996), and Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) in "new literacies" strongly suggests that the pedagogy of multiliteracies/multimodality can be used as a tool to facilitate transformative goals in meaning-making classrooms for English language learners.

From the perspective of language learning, meaning making can be defined as a process by which learners gain critical consciousness of the interpretation of events in their lives in

relation to the world around them. In this way, the meaning that individual learners arrive at after reading a story or watching a video is mediated by their social, cultural, and historical experiences. Thus the term meaning has two constitutive elements—reflection and action (Freire, 2000). The learner, after reflection, chooses the meaning that represents his or her perspective out of the possibilities afforded by the society.

Gee (2000; 2001; 2003; 2007) proposes a new view of literacy and language learning as social achievements ingrained in social practices: "Knowing about social practice always involves recognizing various distinctive ways of acting, interacting, valuing, feeling, knowing, and using various objects and technologies that constitute the social practice" (Gee, 2003, p. 15). Gee suggests that literacy practices are essentially social activities conducted during social interactions, and that the social practices around how texts are analyzed, decoded, negotiated, and interpreted by both teachers and students help situate meanings of specific words within individuals' embodied experiences and perspectives. Gee concludes that meaning making involves "learning how to situate (build) meanings" (Gee, 2003, p. 26) in different domains, be they videogames, computers, movies, television, visual images, literature, and so on. This is particularly true in mass media and textbook designs, where meaning making increasingly relies on a variety of multimodal resources in such a way that language interfaces with visual, audio, spatial, performative, and gestural aspects (The New London Group, 1996). The social and material affordances of multimodality, such as sounds, music, images, movement, and light effects, have led to a reconfiguration of different modes and media in ways that certain information becomes more effective and efficient in the visual rather than the verbal mode (Gee, 2003, 2007; Jewitt, 2005; Kress, 2000a).

In view of the multiple, complex, and shifting demands of language learning and meaning-making skills as new media develop and infiltrate public communications, there is a need to challenge English-language pedagogy to explore how "the affordances, the materiality and the provenance of modes and signs" (Kress & Street, 2006, p. viii) relate to everyday social practices of language learners across cultures and contexts. Stein (2004), to cite one sample study, demonstrates how English language learners from certain communities in South Africa value oral, performative, and gestural forms of communication above print-based texts. Stein reports that through writing, verbal modes, role-play, and photography, the students not only use visual representations to provide details that are absent in the written mode but also examine their social realities, convey different social identities and experience their worlds in new ways because of classroom social practices centered on the use of multimodal resources.

Teachers' role in language teaching in this atmosphere of multimodal considerations is summarized in Auerbach (2000). As Auerbach sums it up: "the teacher poses problems and engages students in dialogue and critical reflection" (p. 12) as the students and teacher collaboratively construct knowledge in the classroom. Hence teachers' theory and practice should necessarily provide students with the opportunity for the exploration of their own social and cultural world. Auerbach (2000) identifies specific principles that should guide learning activities, including instructional practices that focus on learners' needs and concerns, the use of themes/activities that validate learners' experiences, the teacher's emphasis on critical understanding and exploration of alternative views, practices that

contextualize acquisition of skills and knowledge, and teaching processes that are dialogical and collaborative.

When teachers engage in critical pedagogies, not only will classroom processes be designed for the future needs of students, but the process will also see individual learners as transformers, creators, and innovators with the capability to shape the cultural, social, and political contexts of their lives. As subjects of constant social, political, cultural, and historical changes, teachers may have to learn to adjust to social changes. Part of the social change of our times involves literacy practice that enables learners to integrate multimodality, in particular visual semiotics, with meaning-making practice in the classroom. Meaning-making activities engage students in creative literacy exploration of multimodal texts such as cartoon strips, comic books, photographs, computer graphics, drawings, and so on.

As for the design of an English curriculum, we should require a paradigm shift. This includes the way pedagogy is conceptualized and designed, the incorporation of technology and possible impact on the teaching and learning. According to Kress (2000a), design should be both a premise and a practice. Here the term, 'design' refers to both a multimodal curriculum and a multimodal text. Also, as described by Walsh (2009), each lesson that is designed should demonstrate "how teachers planned units of work that drew on the potentials of multimodal texts or digital technology in innovative ways" (p.56). Stein (2004) and Zammit and Downes (2002) emphasized that teachers should combine experiential learning with various learning tools, and printed and digital texts to invoke and cradle multiliteracies. In addition, the chosen text is opened to interpretation and susceptible to being reshaped and remade (Anstey & Bull, 2010). Thus, the multimodal curriculum is not subject to predefinition and predication, instead allows for multiple interpretations and discussions. Simultaneously, it engages at a critical level that brings together differing modes (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001; Unsworth, 2010) and enables learners to interpret systems of signs and shared meaning (O'Rourke, 2001; van Leeuwen, 1999).

Finally, it is high time that educators, researchers, and theorists develop English–language learning curricula that recognize the diverse forms, the many sites, and the multiple purposes of meaning making and communication, and present these variables in the social and cultural context of learners' lives, link them to the broader societal needs, and show them as the "effects of the agentive, creative, transformative, designing action of individuals communicating in their social lives" (Kress, 2000a, p. 142). Such theories and classroom practices should therefore seek to develop in teachers and students an analytical "metalanguage—a language for talking about language, images, texts, and meaning-making interactions" (The New London Group, 1996, p. 77). In essence, the development of the 'tool kit' should seek to advance the potential of individual learners to identify and analyze the multimodal properties of different text-types. In addition, they need to learn how to relate the common characteristics and unique features of the different semiotic modes across different textual forms and diverse social and cultural contexts where they seem to function effectively.

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# THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SYNTAX IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Namık ÜLKERSOY

1. Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to emphasize the importance and necessity of syntax in the field of English language teaching, with a focus on the theory of Government and Binding. The rules that constitute the word order of a language play an important role in teaching grammar. A language teacher must have more than sufficient knowledge of how words are put together in order to form complex sentences. We believe that syntactic analysis provides a useful insight for teachers. Earlier syntactic theory (Chomsky, 1957) analyzes sentences in terms of Phrase Structure rules and a set of transformational rules that form any type of sentences. Phrase structures mainly deal with the structuring of the noun phrase (NP), the verb phrase (VP), the prepositional phrase (PP), and the adjective phrase (AP). For instance, a noun phrase such as '*an extremely difficult* task' can be analyzed as NP→ Det Adv Adj N. Phrase Structure formulates the sentence as: S→NP VP.

Chomsky (1957, p.52) also suggests that there may be grounds for viewing Phrase Structure as insufficient: "the strongest possible proof of inadequacy…is to show that it cannot apply to some natural language". However, the application of Phrase Structure theory to English sentences has proven Chomsky's theory to be adequate. Chomsky's (1957) approach proposes a syntactic tree diagram such as the following:
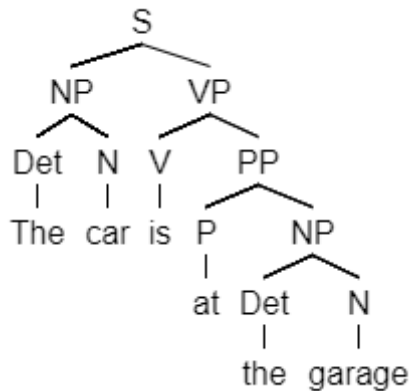
The Government and Binding theory has emerged as an elaborate theory of syntax proposed by Chomsky (1988). This time, the X-bar theory has formed the skeletal structure for syntactic tree diagramming. In a later study, Haegeman (1994) presents the X-bar theory as a replacement for the Phrase Structure rules using the notions of head and complement. Haegeman proposes the following schemata:
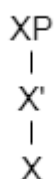
This representation applies to all phrases and therefore one does not need to talk about complex Phrase Structure rules any more. For instance, a verb phrase can be shown as
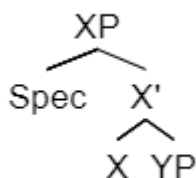
```
VP
 |
V'
 |
 V
```
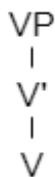
Phrase Structure rules do not need to be accounted for each type of phrase as in earlier syntactic theories. Haegeman (1994, p.104) proposes a general rule for phrase structures:

XP→Spec; X'

X'→X'; YP

In X-bar theory each phrase needs to have a head and a complement. XP is the maximal projection of any phrase. For English, XP will have the following structure:

```
        XP
       /  \
    Spec   X'
          /  \
         X   YP
```

2. Government and Binding Theory

In his discussion of Government and Binding theory (GB), Chomsky (1988, p. 163) defines the rule of government as follows:

α governs β if and only if

- (i) α equals X^0
- (ii) α c-commands β and if γ c-commands β then γ either c-commands α or is c-commanded by β

The concept of government applies in case assignment in that a verb assigns case to its complement under government. B is almost always a noun complement and its case is assigned by the head α.

To understand government better, it is also essential to define what c-command is. Black (1999, p.41) refers to c-command as the notion of 'higher in the tree than' and explains c-command as follows:

α c-commands β if and only if

a. α does not dominate β, and

b. the first branching node that dominates α also dominates β.

The notion of c-command can be explained more easily by means of a syntactic tree diagram.
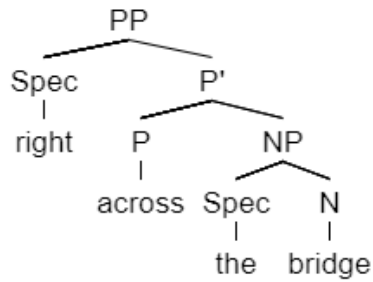
In the tree diagram above, Spec and P' are dominated by PP and they c-command one another. Similarly, P and NP, and Spec and N c-command each other.

3. The Inflectional Phrase (IP)

The sentence (S) node of the syntactic tree in earlier theory (Chomsky, 1957) is replaced by inflectional phrase (IP). Haegeman (1994) proposes that tense is a category dominated by INFL which is the replacement for Auxiliary in the earlier theory. INLF is represented by the I node in the tree diagram as in as the following tree indicates
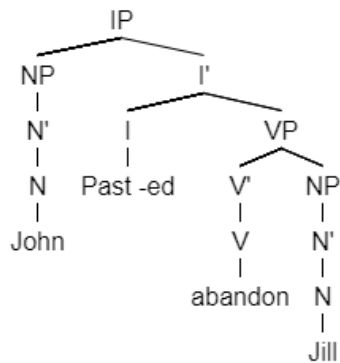
4. Complementizer Phrase (CP)

Sentences that take complement phrases are analyzed under CP as in 'Mitch thinks that John abandoned his wife'. The tree diagram represents the sentence as follows:
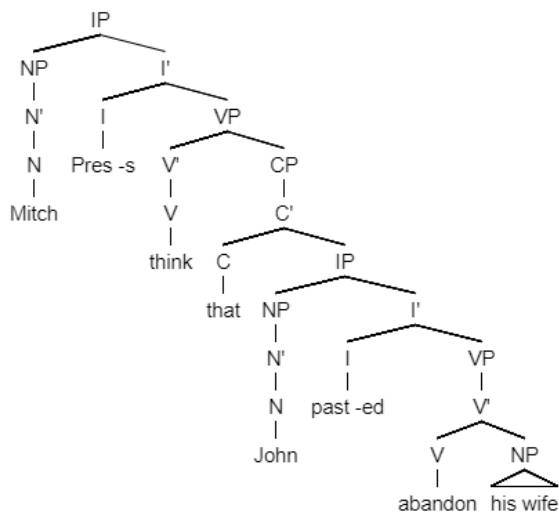
5. Case Theory

The theory of GB examines case assignment in terms of phrase structure. Black (1999) illustrates case assignment as follows:

a. Nominative Case is assigned to the NP specifier of I:
    John and Mary got married.
b. Accusative case is assigned to the NP sister of V or P:
    John attacked *the burglar.*
    For him to quit smoking is hard.
c. Genitive case is assigned to the specifier of N:
    Mary's father is in the hospital.

As far as morphological case marking is concerned, the apparent case marking is only observed in the genitive case in English (Haegeman, 1994). Syntactic approach to case marking provides useful insights for the analysis of certain ungrammatical structures such as the following:

i)   *Him started the quarrel.
ii)   *It is difficult her to forgive me.
iii)   *I would like very much her to leave the party.
iv)   *For she to marry John is impossible.

Phrase structure rules can account for the ungrammaticality of the four sentences above. In (i), a verb cannot assign the accusative case outside its governing area. For both (ii) and (iii), a preposition is required for the assignment of the accusative case. In (iv), the preposition is unable to assign the nominative case outside its governing area because it requires an object pronoun such as *her* for the accusative case assignment.

6. Binding theory

Haegeman (1994) examines binding in terms of two factors, binding and antecedent and the locality constraints. Binding is explained with specific reference to antecedent; that is, a reflexive pronoun must be bound by an antecedent. The co-indexation in the following example lays out the fact that the reflexive pronoun is bound by its antecedent subject NP:

John$_i$ might have hurt himself$_i$.

Binding also accounts for the ungrammaticality of a sentence such as the following:

*Herself cleaned the entire house.

The sentence above is not grammatical since a reflexive pronoun cannot be used freely in an English sentence. It must be bound by an antecedent such as the pronoun *she* or a proper name such as *Mary*.

Locality constraints are also considered important in binding. A reflexive pronoun must be bound inside its local domain. The following example clarifies the notion of local domain:

*[IP John$_i$ believes [CP that Mary hurt himself$_i$]

This sentence is ungrammatical because the reflexive *himself* is outside the local domain (IP) of its antecedent *John*. The NP *Mary* inside the local domain of the reflexive cannot be co-indexed due to the lack of gender agreement. On the other hand, the following example would be grammatical since binding occurs inside the local domain (CP) of the reflexive:

[IP Mary believes [CP that John$_i$ hurt himself$_i$]].

Black (1999, p. 43) cites the formula for binding as follows:

α binds β if and only if

    a.   α c-commands β
    b.   α and β are coindexed

One important fact about binding is that even when the reflexive and its antecedent are in the same local domain, the reflexive cannot precede its antecedent as in the following ungrammatical sentence:

*I hope [CP herself$_i$ to forgive Mary$_i$]

Rules for binding also hold for the reciprocal *each other* (Haegeman, 1994). However, there is one difference, that is, a reciprocal is always plural and thus requires a plural antecedent as in examples a and b:

    a.   John and Mary love each other.
    b.   They hurt each other.

Structures such c and d below are not acceptable since c lacks a plural antecedent and d has no antecedent at all:

    c.   *He stabbed each other.
    d.   * Each other are leaving.

7. Move α

One of the essential components of the GB theory is movement. Sells (1985, p.54) defines movement in terms of the move α rule: "The relation between levels of representation is mediated by the transformational operation, move α (move anything anywhere)". In Haegeman (1994), movement is analyzed in two categories, NP movement and WH-movement.

8. NP movement

GB examines NP movement with reference to passives and raising. The following example borrowed from Haegeman (1994, p. 306) illustrates how NP movement is done in passive structures:

    a.   This story was believed by the villagers.

This sentence has the D structure in b:

    b.   [IP e [r was [VP believed [NP this story] by the villagers]]].
    c.   [IP [NP This story$_i$] [r was [VP believed [e$_i$] by the villagers]]].

In b, the verb *believed* assigns thematic role theme to the NP *this story*. In c, the NP is moved to the empty subject position. The case marking is done by the finite inflection.

9. WH Movement

As far as English language is concerned, the moved WH item is referred to as WH- Phrase or WH-constituent (Haegeman, 1994). The following are some examples in which the WH constituent or the phrase is moved:

 a. Whom will you marry?
 b. How long was the movie?

In those WH questions, the NP that complements the verb *marry* in the deep structure of sentence a is moved to the Spec position in the surface structure. Similarly, the complement NP *which movie* in b is also moved to the Spec position in the surface structure. The Deep structure of sentence a can be observed in the following tree diagram:
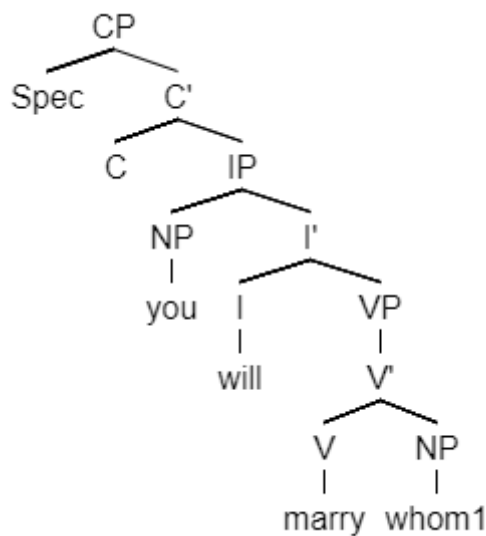
The surface structure tree, on the other hand, illustrates that the trace(t1) is left by the WH phrase:
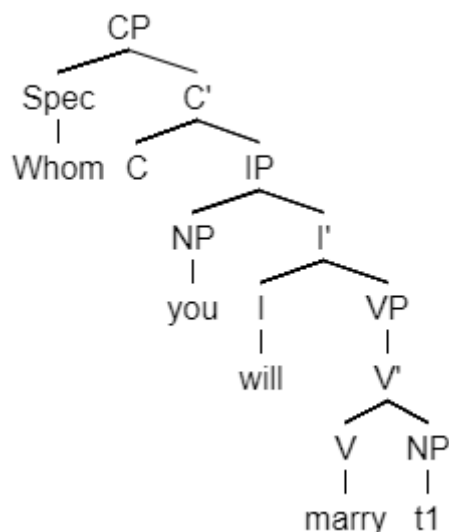
10. Some Constraints on WH Movement:

The GB theory proposes some constraints on movement. One of these constraints is termed *case filter*; that is, "every overt NP must be assigned abstract case" (Haegeman 1994, p.167). Case filter does not allow an NP to occur in a sentence without case assignment. Chomsky (1988, p.326) suggests "the structures in (i) and (ii) are barred by the Case Filter, since the post-verbal NP receives no case":

(i)   * I want [PRO to snow].
(ii)   * [PRO to snow all day] would be a nuisance.

Another constraint relates to the case assignment. Accusative case assignment allows only *whom* to move to the spec position whereas the nominative permits only *who* to move to the same position:

a. $Whom_i$/*Who do you think will John call t_i first?
b. Who_i/*Whom do you think t_i will cut the cake?

11. The That-Trace Filter

Haegeman (1994, p.399) defines the that-trace filter as follows: "the sequence of an overt complementizer followed by a trace is ungrammatical". The that-trace filter restricts the movement of the WH-phrase since the subject from the lower clause can be moved only when there is no overt complementizer. In that case, the movement in the following sentence is ungrammatical:

*Who_i do you think [$_{CP}$ that [$_{IP}$ t_i will confess the crime first]?

As the example shows the subject *who* inside the lower clause is moved to the Spec position, and such movement is banned by the that-trace filter.

12. Subjacency Condition

Subjacency condition holds that "movement cannot cross more than one bounding node, where bounding nodes are IP and NP" (Haegeman 1994, p.402). The following ungrammatical sentence is an example of subjacency condition violation, where the *wh* phrase crosses several bounding nodes in order to move to the spec position of CP1:

*[$_{CP1}$ Who_i did [$_{IP2}$ John make up [$_{NP}$ the lie [$_{CP2}$ that [$_{IP2}$ he met t_i last week]]]]]

13. Implications of Syntax in Language Learning and Teaching a Second or Foreign Language

An important question regarding language learning and teaching is whether teachers should teach syntax exclusively to language learners in the classroom. In a study conducted in the late 20th century, Dulay and Burt (1973) collected samples of spontaneous speech from 145 Spanish speaking children, between the ages five and eight. The children examined were all studying at US schools, California and New York, and learning English as a second language. The data were collected by means of the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay and Hernandez 1973), which consisted of seven colored cartoon pictures and a set of 33 questions in English and 33 in Spanish. The BSM is an instrument utilized to measure the syntactic and grammatical development of the language learners. Dulay and Burt (197, p. 257) conclude:

"Although we believe that an L2 teacher should continue to diagnose children's L2 syntax, our findings suggest that we should leave the learning to the children and redirect our teaching efforts to other aspects of language".

Similarly, Omari (1984, p.391) comes up with the following suggestion in her study of teaching syntax to speakers of non-Arabic:

> It does not work to attempt to consider the learners languages when they speak Arabic because Arabic has its system which is completely different from their language systems. The Arabic language gives more consideration of gender and numbers of the subject which have more effect when you writing a sentence.

Dulay and Burt (1973) and Omari's (1984) conclusions adumbrate that native language syntax does not have a tremendous effect on second language learners' acquisition of the target language syntax.

As far as teaching a second or foreign language is concerned, the prominence of Syntactic theory is undeniable to language teachers, as Dulay and Burt (1973) state, the diagnosis of learners' syntax is imperative. Language teachers need to analyze and treat learners' errors at the phrase structure level, and for such analysis, a more than sufficient knowledge of syntactic theory is required. Syntactic theories such as phrase structure analysis and government and binding provide linguistic insight for teachers. Such insight may enable language teachers to view learners' syntactic errors with an effectively analytic perspective.

Teaching syntax at a certain simplified degree to language learners may also be useful. In a holistic approach, Mardijono (2004) coins the term from syntax to syntaxing. Mardijono (2004, p. 53) suggests that "the teaching of Syntax is not just to help the students learn Syntactic concepts and theories but also to engage them in the further step of applying what they have learned in their practical use". Mardijono further states that the use of syntax helps students develop their own creative writing style.

14. Summary and Conclusions

Phrase structure adequately explains which parts of speech can co-occur in a phrase. By means of phrase structure rules, one has the ability to rule out the elements that cannot occur next to one another as the following ungrammatical phrases implicate:

*a beautifully house (a noun cannot be modified by an adverb)

* shouted angry (a verb cannot take an adjective as complement)

Government and Binding Theory yields useful perspective for English language teachers as well. Firstly, case marking demonstrates the grammatically relevant place of pronoun in a sentence; that is, the nominative case marks the subject position, the accusative case the object position, relatively. Thus, the possibility of the following examples is ruled out:

*Him witnessed the robbery.

* Mark really hates she.

Secondly, binding also accounts for ungrammatical sentences since a reflexive must be bound and has to agree in gender and number. The following sentences are therefore unacceptable in terms of the English grammar:

*Mary hates himself

* Himself does not like to travel alone.

As far as error analysis is concerned, A study by Ulkersoy, Genc and Darmaz (2019) has provided applicable classroom results. In the study, the authors have conducted the study on freshman and sophomore year students' written performances at Malatya Inonu University English Language-Teaching Department in 2017. The results reveal that sentence structure errors, verb-centered errors and word-level choice errors are the most frequently observed error types. The authors suggest that language teachers should specifically treat those three types of errors. The three types of errors found by Ulkersoy, Genc and Darmaz (2019) imply the necessity of a syntactic approach to error analysis.

To conclude, the necessity of syntax is undeniable for language teachers because they must refer to syntactic theories in their recognition and treatment of grammatical errors committed by their learners. However, we do not suggest that language learners must be overwhelmed by theories such as Government and Binding, or syntactic tree diagrams and such. The application of syntactic rules can be achieved by learners via various creative writing tasks such as depicting a picture story. That way learners will rely upon their syntactic knowledge in order to create novel phrases and sentences of their own.

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LITERATURE IN EFL CLASSROOM: AN OVERVIEW OF BENEFITS, APPROACHES AND PRACTICES

"Great literature is simply language charged with meaning to the utmost possible degree." Ezra Pound

Hayriye AVARA

1. Introduction

Literature - as defined by merriam-webster online dictionary – is a collection of "writings in prose or verse- especially, writings having excellence of form or expression and expressing ideas of permanent or universal interest". The 'writings' are defined by various dictionary entries as 'stories, poems, and plays that have value as art'. Similar to the view of Basnet & Mounfold, many scholars would agree on the explanation of literature as having a value of art whose texts mirror various features of society as well as being cultural documents that provide better understanding of a society (in Burhanuddn, 2018). Language - no matter if it is spoken or written - has various discourse types. Language teachers aim to present as many as possible of these discourse types as it is evident that introducing a variety of discourse types creates the possibility of having a multi-dimensional language learning model.

In the light of these, since 1980s, with the promotion of use of authentic materials in language classes, literature has gained a significant role in setting real examples of language use and in developing student's awareness over English language. Thus, there has been a significant interest in the study of literature and culture, underlying the importance of the relationship between literature, language and education.

The significance of incorporating literary text into English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom has been revealed by through numerous studies by various researchers. Most scholars agree on the diverse benefits of implementing literary text in the EFL curricula. To give an example, Sage (1987) focused on the importance of literature in enabling students' engagement in meaningful communication. To Moody (1971), literature can be applied in any language methodology (cited in Khan and Alasmari, 2018). Hall (2001) emphasizes the natural aspect, the normality of the language of literature and that it is the 'normal' language that gains poetic nature through literature. According to Balakian (1977), the language of literature plays as an important role as a bridge between the real world and 'subjective state'. Collie and Slater (1990) highlight the value of literary texts as being fruitful authentic material, enriching language use via significant personal engagement providing cultural enhancement. Literature brings enrichment in the language class, for it connects the learners with the natural language, which is defined as the 'language at its finest' (Khan and Alasmari, 2018). Various studies focus on the numerous benefits of literary texts as an important part of the EFL programs.

In this sense, the study aims to review ideas about the role of literature in the EFL classroom, how literature enriches the overall learning experience, and it also aim to introduce various approaches to integration of literature in the classroom.

2. Historical Background

Literature, as a natural reflection of its artistic value, beholds the best model of language use. The language of literature is authentic, genuine as resemblance of the language to the real

world. It offers all levels of language from the simple conversation to the elevated, sophisticated use of language in context.

With the changes and trends in the field of language teaching and learning in the last century, the role of literature has also witnessed significant changes. As explained by Stern (1985), literary texts have been part of the non-English speaking countries' curriculum for over 100 years. Literature - acting as the main source of the teaching material - was crucial at the beginning of 20th century. As Stern (1985) writes, use of literary texts in language goes back in the history when the Grammar Translation Method practiced the translation of literary texts as fruitful authentic materials. Therefore, in the era of Grammar Translation Method, literature was used mainly as the source of input in language education. According to Duff and Maley (1990), however, literary texts were mainly applied as texts which set good examples of grammar rules. Therefore, the focus of Grammar Translation Method was mainly on mastering grammar structures and vocabulary. The literary, artistic value and the content of the text were disregarded. The period of structuralism and audiolingual method, on the other hand, minimised the use of literature in the language classroom (Collie & Slater, 1987).

The use and the function of literature throughout the century is summarised by Kramsch and Kramsch (2000) as follows: in 1910s it was taken into consideration for aesthetic education of a small number, and in the 1920s for the literacy of a bigger number, 'for moral and vocational uplift' in 1930s–1940s, for theoretical purpose in 1950s, content related to humanism in 1960s–1970s, and as 'authentic' material in the target language in 1980s–1990s. Thus, except for Grammar-Translation Method, literature was left to dust on the shelves for several decades. Short (1996) named the disconnection as 'border dispute over territory', which led, according to Carter and McRae (1996), the disconnection of the teaching of language and literature as two pedagogic practices (cited in Khan and Alasmari, 2018).

It is evident that the value of literary texts in language education was neglected for several decades in the twentieth century. The first half of the 1960s represents a turning point in this sense. The importance of literary texts in language teaching and learning process was highlighted during a conference in Cambridge in 1963. The traditional approach was criticized for its incapacity to develop language skills and communicative abilities. In the mid-1980s, the public concern was that language learners lacked basic content knowledge and skills (Stern, 1985).

Regardless of these attempts, the focus continued to be mainly on teaching language skills until the 1980s and 1990s - when the use of literary texts started to gain importance thanks, especially, to the promotion of the use of authentic materials within the frame of the Communicative Approach to language teaching.

Thus, for the last few decades, literary texts, as genuine and authentic source of information and knowledge, have gained a significant status as real and powerful materials for teaching English in the classrooms with students from different ages and proficiency levels. Recently, various aspects of literature and language education is being researched, focusing on different aspects of literature in language education. Some research topics related to literature and language education can be listed as follows; however, it is not limited to these: the role and significance of culture and literature in language education or use of literature in material

development for language education, or the influence of literature on language learner, and the interaction between the learner and the literary text.

3. Benefits of Using Literature in the Language Classroom

There is a distinction- made by McRae (1994)- between literature with a capital *L* (the classical texts written by Shakespeare, Dickens, Shaw and so on) and literature with a small **l**, which includes popular fiction, fables, song lyrics and similar texts. At present, the kind of the text used is the EFL classrooms is not limited to recognised texts from certain countries, like England or the Unites States of America; instead, texts from various countries introducing a diversity of cultures and examples of different forms of language use. The kinds of the text could be chosen from various genres from short stories, poems, novels, plays to song lyrics. The texts could be studied either in their original forms or a simplified-or abridged- versions.

Literature is a significant source of language, filled with all types of language use, representing various life experiences filled with all kinds of feelings and emotions. Hence, the study of literature is very important to understand the world that we live in with its unlimited characters, their perspectives, and the variety of the language use.

Teaching about the language and helping the learners to be able to use the language in various communicative situations appropriately are two different practices. Thus, a gap between the information about the language and the ability to use it naturally and appropriately for communication is often observed. One effective way to overcome this gap, that is, to help students bridge the information about the language and the ability to use it spontaneously and meaningfully for communication is to include authentic materials, which exemplify language of real life, in social content, in the language teaching/learning process. Literature - as one of the best sources of the social context, with its unlimited examples of language use for communicative purposes - could be utilised to bridge this gap between knowing about the language and the ability to use it spontaneously.

The significance of integration of literary texts in language education has been supported by various scholars and a great deal of positive results of related research has demonstrated that integrating literature in the curriculum offers various benefits. According to Lazar (1993), for instance, literature sharpens linguistic and cognitive skills and enhances students' understanding of the human condition. Related to the factors supporting the integration of literary texts into the language curriculum, Horner (1983) suggested a model based on three fields and these three fields help students' growth as whole persons (Bobkina, 2014). Homer's suggested fields that support personal growth is listed by Bobkina (2014) as follows:

i. *Aesthetic*: It focuses on the reading process and how students are involved in the process aesthetically.

ii. *Psycholinguistic*: It is related to the students' 'identification and internalization of certain behaviour patterns.'

iii. *Socio-moral*: It focuses on the issues related to the theme and content.

Duff and Maley (1990) listed the benefits of the use of literature in the language classroom from a different perspective and their categorization can be listed as follows:

i. Linguistic Value:

The focus is on the importance of literature as a real, authentic material which serves and offers a variety of text types and various uses of language. To Maley (1989) language of literature contains all possible real language register and unlimited subject matters.

ii. Methodological Value:

It is related to different layers of meaning, possible interpretations and opinions triggered by the literary text. This creates a chance for students to interact with each other in a meaningful way as noted by Kern (2000).

iii. Motivational Value:

It refers to the motivating nature of the literary texts with their authentic value, to promote the motivation of students and to explore their feelings within the frame of the meaningful contexts (Ghosn, 2002; Van, 2009).

As Lazar (1993) explains, literary texts help "to stimulate the imagination of students, to develop their critical abilities, and to increase their emotional awareness" (p. 19). Lazar (1993, pp. 14-15) notes various benefits of literature and the reasons why it is significant in language education:

- *It is very motivating.*

- *It is authentic material.*

- *It has general educational value.*

- *It is found in many syllabuses.*

- *It helps students to understand another culture.*

- *It is a stimulus for language acquisition.*

- *It develops students' interpretive abilities.*

- *Students enjoy it and it is fun.*

- *It is highly valued and has a high status.*

- *It expands students' language awareness.*

- *It encourages students to talk about their opinions and feelings.*

The single fact of decoding the meaning of separate lexical units or phrases does not seem to be especially relevant itself. Students usually get engaged in the plot of the story, commonly feeling close to their favourite characters. In addition to the benefits given above, Maley (2001) also lists several other advantages of use of literature in language education as follows:

- *Universality:*

All languages have oral or written literature. They share universal topics such as love, friendship, happiness, sadness, greed, and so on, and these are common to all cultures.

- *Non-triviality*:

Majority of traditional forms of language input include language in unreal, artificial contexts which are not very attractive for students. Yet, literature presents authentic input, rather than trivializing.

• Personal Relevance:

The content of literary texts conveys ideas, feelings and emotions that has a link with readers' experience. This connection with the texts promotes the learning process.

• Variety:

Literary texts offer a huge variety of subject matter and include all the probable varieties of the language use.

• Interest:

Since the topics and themes treated in literary works are part of the global human experience, they are intrinsically interesting for readers.

• Economy and Suggestive Power/Imaginative power:

The imaginative, suggestive power of literature is evident, and it travels far beyond the written text. This powerful feature is a facilitator for motivation in class.

Ambiguity:

The ambiguous nature of literature creates the possibility of mining for meaning and sets the scene for class debates.

The benefits of literature in language education are not limited to above examples. Similar or additional advantages of literature in the language classroom are introduced by various other scholars. For instance, Das (2014) also makes a list of the benefits of literature as follows:

Cultural enrichment: Literature cultivates the cultural knowledge and cultural awareness.

Mental training: One of the best ways to train the mind is through literature.

Memorability: Some literary texts, especially, poetry and songs' lyrics, are easy to memorise, which could act as a 'memorised archive of linguistic usage' (Maley & Moulding, 1985).

Rhythmic resource: Poems are ideal for comprehending the rhythms of a language (Maley & Moulding, 1985).

Open to interpretation: Literature as being open to interpretation promotes 'genuine interaction' between language learners (Duff & Maley, 1990).

Convenience: It is easy to photocopy and use literature as classroom material (Das, 2014).

In addition, Bobkina (2014) lists some other benefits from emotional intelligence to critical thinking; enhancement promoted by the recent developments in the fields of sociolinguistics, pragmatics, semiotics, discourse analysis, and psycholinguistics.

4. Approaches to Using Literature in EFL Classroom

There are different theories on literature teaching; however, which approach or model to be used in the EFL classroom depends on various factors. Depending on the objectives, teachers

choose the best model. While some emphasise on the stylistic features, some others prefer to focus on students' personal feelings and opinion (Bobkina, 2014). Keeping these approaches in mind is important for teachers so as to choose the best way to benefit from literature in their classroom.

4.1. A language-based approach to using literature

Carter and Long (1991) add another perspective to Maley's categorization and introduce three main models for literature teaching to be adapted in the EFL classroom: i) the cultural model, ii) the language model and the iii) personal growth model.

i. The Cultural Model

The focus is on language as a cultural artifact, learners are expected to analyse a literary text from social, political, literary, and historical perspectives. Literary text is taken as a product. That is, it is viewed as a source of information, a window opening to the culture of the target language. This model is commonly used at tertiary level as one of the most traditional models. It reflects all aspects of culture from social, political, to historical content. There is no specific language analysis done on the text.

ii. The Language Model

The Language Model expects the literary text to offer language development and awareness. Within this model, the literary text is considered as a rich linguistic source of language use in context. Linguistic features are systematically practiced through a variety of activities rather than paying attention to reader-text interaction and the literary quality of the text. The language model is more learner centred. Thus, learners are expected to examine the text, by paying attention to how language is used. Stylistic analysis is used for paying more attention on the structure and vocabulary. It requires close study of the linguistic features for meaningful interpretations of the text – its goal is to help learners read and study literature more competently.

iii. The Personal Growth Model

This Model focuses mainly on personal growth in parallel to the language learning and cultural awareness by prioritising the learner's own response to and interaction with the text, placing their feelings, ideas and opinions in the centre. Personal experience as a means to engage students in the reading process is highly valued and has the priority (Carter & Long, 1991). The Personal Growth Model encourages learners to refer to their own experiences, opinion and feelings. It promotes as much interaction as possible between the text and the reader, encouraging the learners to 'make the text their own'. This model underlines the power that literature has to move people and aims to make use of this strength of literature in the English language classroom.

4.2. Stylistic Approach

Stylistics, which shares the characteristics of the Language Model, involves the close study of the literary text. The target is to encourage students to create meaningful interpretations of the text. Another aim of Stylistic Approach is to help students gain more knowledge and awareness of the language in general. Thus, it enables students to have a lot of language

practice. Stylistics provides learners with an illustration of various linguistic forms, and their function to convey specific message. Language learners have the chance to improve and deepen their knowledge of English through close study of the text.

4.3. Literature as Content

Literature carries the content within itself. The same as the Cultural Model, it focuses on the subjects from the social, political, and historical background to a text; literary genres and rhetorical devices, the features of literary movements and so on. Language acquisition is aimed through focusing on content through reading texts and literary criticism relating to them. Texts are selected for their importance as part of a literary canon or tradition. This approach is advantageous as it exposes learners to a wide range of authentic materials and encourages education through understanding of the texts within their literary and historical context.

4.4. The Critical Literary Approach by Maley (1989)

Maley's Critical Literary Approach focuses on the plot, characterization, psychology, background, literary concepts and so on. In order to be able to deal with literature using Maley's critical approach, students' levels need to be at least intermediate. In addition to proficiency level, knowledge of literary terms and conventions need to be mastered by the students.

4.5. Integrative Approach to Literature

There has been more focus on the possible ways to integrate different approaches to enhance the language learning process by adding diverse possibilities with various perspectives through integrating different approaches. In this sense, Dhanapal (2010) suggest a possible way to blend the two approaches to have a 'complete whole'. The Reader Response Approach (which underlines the importance of the role of the reader paving the way to a close interaction between reader and the text) and Stylistic Analysis Approach (which aims to analyse the characteristics of the language of literature to promote students' awareness of literature) can be considered as two models applied to literary analysis that focus on the significance of the participation of the reader. This type of approach that integrates different approaches can be considered as an activity-based approach. Undoubtedly, as a result of active engagement in activities, students tend to become more successful in problem solving and they learn better as they are given more opportunities. Therefore, it is evident that the implementation of integrated approach has a positive impact on language learning progress (Dhanapal, 2010).
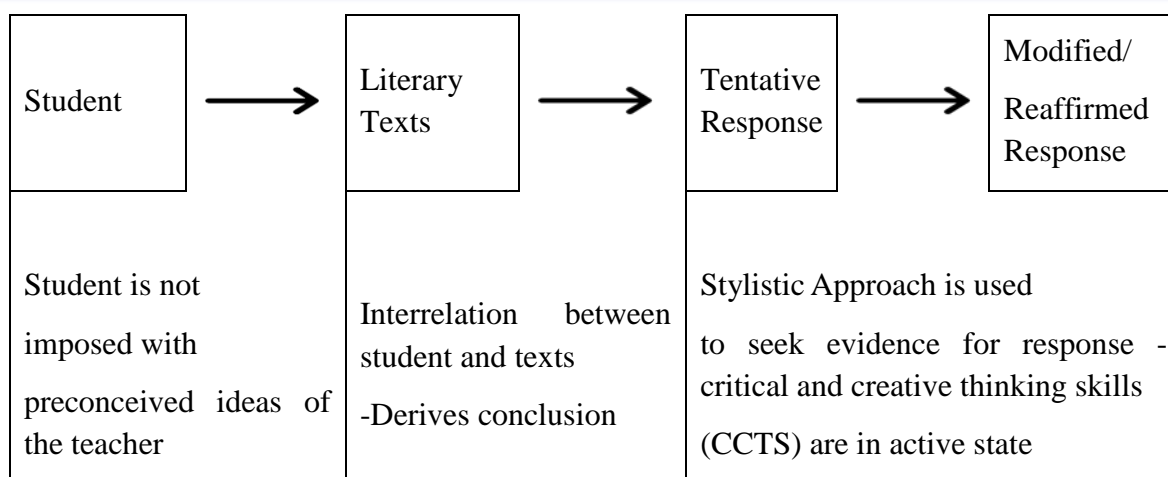
Student	Literary Texts	Tentative Response	Modified/ Reaffirmed Response
Student is not imposed with preconceived ideas of the teacher	Interrelation between student and texts -Derives conclusion	Stylistic Approach is used to seek evidence for response - critical and creative thinking skills (CCTS) are in active state	

Figure 1: Integrated Approach Process (cited in Dhanapal, 2010)

4.5.1. Tasmanian's Integrative Model (2012): Five Perspective Approach

Tasmanian Integrative Model, created by some scholars in Australia, was introduced to be used mainly for L1 classes; however, the model is believed to be a promising one to be applied in FLE classroom, for this model suggests the social, cultural and literary analysis of the text in addition to the linguistic point of view (Bobkina, 2014).

4.6. Lucas Text Type Approach (1990)

Lucas (1990) divided texts into two major types: *artistic* and *functional*. To Lucas, artistic texts include texts that have artistic value and functional texts consist of texts other than the artistic and they comprise six categories as demonstrated in the figure below (Figure 2):

Artistic texts	Functional texts
• novels • short stories • essays • poems • plays	1. Casual texts such as newspapers, magazines, and non-fiction 2. Personal texts, for instance, letters and diaries. 3. Transactional texts: business letters, legal documents and reports. 4. Reference texts, for example, dictionaries, catalogues, directories and inventories. 5. Pedagogical texts include textbooks and encyclopaedias. 6. Academic texts such as research papers, theses, specialist books and journals.

Figure 2: Adapted from Lucas' (1990) Division of Text Types

4.7. Periphrastic Approach

It is related to the studying of the surface meaning of the text. Teachers can use less complicated words and sentence structures compared to the difficult words and structures in the texts. Also, if needed, the teacher can translate the text into their native language. This approach can be appropriate to use with low levels, like beginner groups, for it could be an aid to defining the expectations of the author's piece of work.

5. Criteria for Selecting Literary Texts

Selecting an appropriate literary text for use in the EFL classroom is essential as the text plays the key role as the teaching material. Criteria for selecting a literary text for EFL classroom are based on students' motivation, the length and content of the text, linguistic difficulty, students' cultural background and finally students' interests as well as their language level (Collie & Slater, 1987; Hismanoglu, 2005; Lazar, 1993).

Rief and Heimburg (1996) underline the significance of text selection by writing how important it is to select a text that has a captivating value to attract learners' interest, promote their creativity, encourage critical thinking and to 'make meaningful connection' (cited in Piotrovská, 2009).

Lazar (1993), on the other hand, suggests a scale that could be referred to in order to check the appropriateness of a literary text chosen to be used in the EFL. Lazar's scale includes the following criteria:

Criteria	The reason why it is important
The age of students	Students' age should be taken into consideration: they should not be too old or too young to enjoy the text.
Intellectual maturity of students	Intellectual maturity is also a significant factor that should be considered, for students should not be too immature to understand the text or too mature/developed intellectually to find the text challenging enough.
Emotional understanding of students	Emotional understanding of the students is also significant as they can be either too immature to relate to the text or too developed to find the text engaging.
Linguistic proficiency of students	Their linguistic level affects motivation as their linguistic proficiency could be too advanced to find the text challenging or their level may be too elementary to cope with the text.
Literary background of students	Their previous experience with literature might be too well-developed to find the text challenging or it could be insufficient to find the text engaging.
Students' interests/hobbies	Students' interests and hobbies might be far removed from themes/content of the text to find the text engaging, or vice versa- close enough to be engaged in it.
Students' cultural background	Students' cultural background might be too remote from the text to help comprehension or close enough to the text for easy comprehension.

Figure 3: Text Selection Criteria (Adapted from Lazar (1993, p. 19)

As demonstrated in Figure 3, Lazar suggests some criteria to be followed when selecting a text for a particular group of EFL students. Some of these basic criteria include linguistic difficulty of the text, students' cultural background, the length of the text, availability of the text and connection with syllabus, whose significance is explained further as follows:

5.1. Linguistic difficulty

The selection of the suitable text for the level is vital as students need to be able to cope with it. Duff and Maley (1992) suggest a gradual increase in the level of difficulty of the text.

	Text Level	**Task Level**
Stage 1	simple text	low level task
Stage 2	simple text	more demanding task
Stage 3	difficult text	low level task
Stage 4	difficult task	more demanding task

Figure 4: level of difficulty of the text & task in different stages (adapted from Duff and Maley, 1992)

Duff and Maley (1992) suggest, as it can be observed in the figure above (Figure 4), during the first stage, an easy text can be used with an easy task. In the next level, the text can still be easy, but the task level is elaborated. Level three introduces a difficult text with an easy task. And in the fourth level, a difficult text is used with a more difficult task. In this way, the text and the task become demanding gradually, avoiding discouragement.

5.2. Students' cultural background

Taking the cultural background of students into consideration might not always require choosing a text with familiar culture. Sometimes even a strikingly different, new topic or experience introduced by the text could be very motivating as it creates curiosity and offers new adventures, new ideas and new perspectives. With the appropriate selection of the text, the remotest can be comprehended as the closest, yet the opposite could be the case with the selection of inappropriate text. Thus, the intellectual range of the learners should be taken into consideration.

5.3. The length of the text

Since the length of the text is important when the time and related issues are considered, choosing an appropriate text to be covered in the planned teaching period is important to be able to complete the task. Sometimes good planning and appropriate choices help to overcome with the length of the text. Also, a well-chosen extract from a longer text can be

used as a very resourceful piece of material. Furthermore, a quote from a longer literary work could be used as a practical, convenient literary material. In addition, students can do some of the reading as an extensive reading task that could be supported by in class activities.

5.4. Availability of the text

In terms of availability of a copy, finance and other related factors, students should have an easy access to the text chosen.

5.5. Connection with syllabus

To Lazar (1993), the teacher should consider the ways of linking the literary task to the syllabus to strengthen the content and to create a change to support the texts and task with the rest of the syllabus.

6. Literature and Classroom Application

Integration of literature offers various benefits in language learning process as it has been proved and documented by the research in the field. In the light of the positive impact of use of literature, there have been several practices and suggestions of implementation of literary genres in language classroom in general, and in EFL context. The classroom applications of literature to teach different skills and application of various genres could briefly be explained as follows:

6.1. Using Literature to Teach Language Skills

6.1.1. Literature in Teaching Listening

Providing students with authentic material when practicing listening skill is essential, and as Mckay (2001) explains, literature offers an excellent atmosphere and examples of real language used in every genuine situation as well as introduction of various dialects. Jacobs (1990) suggests the use of literary text during listening practice to promote intellectual and emotional involvement of learners in a higher level (cited in Khan & Alasmari, 2018) Hall and Williams (2000) recommend reading out to learners regularly, claiming that this practice is more influential compared to other activities in EFL class. It is agreed by many scholars that reading children's stories as well as children's books promote learners' ability to create visual image in their minds which help them to remember the story line and characters and related events accurately. Khan and Alasmari (2018) documents various findings that support use of literature to stimulate learners' listening skills. For instance, Hoag (1996) promotes the use of literature to practice listening skills as it creates a chance for students to gain awareness of beauty of the sound and rhythm of music as well as the ability they develop to visualize the characters' mood, atmosphere. Stephens and Brown (2000) write about the benefits of reading aloud and storytelling. Through reading aloud, curiosity and involvement are created (Paley, 1990).

6.1.2. Literature in Teaching Speaking

As in the nature of the speaking, it is a skill that requires active production and oral production (Widdowson, 1994). It is through speaking skills that individuals are able to practice oral communication. According to Khamkhien (2010), speaking skill holds a very important place in language learning. As emphasised by Hismanoglu (2005), activities related

to drama are valuable to practice in EFL and ESL classes. Including as many dramatic activities as possible as part of language teaching is significant to create various situations where students can take parts/roles and use the spoken language actively. There are various possibilities of making use of activities through dramatization, role-playing and improvisation, Students can be asked to write their own plays/scripts in groups and then they can act them out. Besides, there are various activities that promote improvisation allowing students to practice speaking skills in a creative and enjoyable atmosphere. Such activities also give students a chance to combine literature and their creative skills. Additionally, drama activities encourage students to assume real life roles; thus, to use the language in context.

Khan and Alasmari (2018) note that speaking activities like debate and role-play could be applied in EFL classes. Harmer (1984), on the other hand, focuses on the self-esteem gained through speaking activities promoted through the literary text. In addition to above examples of speaking activities, encouraging students to make presentations on their favourite books, or favourite literary characters is, undoubtedly, a very good practice to improve speaking skills through literature.

6.1.3. Literature in Teaching Reading

Numerous studies show how literature promotes reading development and achievement. Literary texts have positive impact on the motivation of learners' attitudes towards reading. As it is noted by Langer (1997), reading literary texts helps students gain ability to question, make interpretation and exploration and connection, as well as gaining new perspectives through the experience of new 'horizons of possibility' (Khan & Alasmari, 2018).

Literary texts are valuable materials to promote students' engagement in the text and to enable them to go beyond the scope of the text by adding meanings to it through adding their own beliefs and experiences. Hismanoglu (2005) notes that literature could be beneficial in promoting the reading skills as the students are absorbed into the text trying to follow the story line, identifying with some characters, becoming part of the text. Ozkan and Tongur (2014) focus on the positive impact reading literary text have on language learners. Brumfit and Carter (1986) explain that either through extensive or intensive reading literary texts, students are exposed to lexical items that are embedded within natural linguistic applications. The experience helps them conceive meaning in a way similar to the experience of the native speakers. Besides, various benefits listed above are promoted through the reading of literary texts. For instance, the experience educates the whole person, helping the students gain interpretive skills and become familiar with the cultural background. In doing so, students expand their horizons as well as practising linguistic knowledge. Similarly, Mckay (1982) also notes the benefits of literature in improving reading skills.

What makes literary texts valuable reading resources is that they provide the students with almost endless possibilities of creating meaning. That is, often literary texts offer multiple layers of meaning to create curiosity and to trigger students' willingness to read more to dig up more. The opportunity of reading between the lines and even beyond the lines promotes the interpretive skills and paves the way to imaginative experiences. Needless to say, the more students read, the deeper they become intellectually, leading to gaining more self-esteem. Like a domino effect, the intellectual growth as a whole person, gained through the

exploration of literary texts, creates the chances of personal growth, as an individual decorated with positive effects gained through the experience of the journey within the literary texts.

6.1.4. Literature in Teaching Writing

Literature offers inspiration to EFL/ESL learners as a valuable material with rich topics and creative and great models. Language learners follow the style and model of the literary text that set good examples for them to imitate. Literary texts also set them good examples of content and style. As noted by Hişmanoğlu (2005), a variety of contents, themes, styles and so on promote students' creative writing skills. Moreover texts set perfect examples of figurative language, idioms, proverbs and rich use of styles and vocabulary.

In addition, literary texts as a rich resource for writing practice can be utilised in practicing writing skill in various tasks. To illustrate, interpretation and criticism of the text can promote writing based on interpretive skills. Additionally, students could be encouraged to write creatively relating to the text. A variety of tasks, such as writing an alternative ending to the story or changing one part of the story, or expressing their feelings and thoughts towards the text, writing a creative piece in a different genre, or writing through the perspective of one of the characters and many others, can be designed to promote creative writing skills.

6.2. Using Different Genres in Language Classroom

As literature has different genres, when dealing with any genre, it is important to perceive what the peculiarities of the specific genre are and how they are studied.

6.2.1. Using Short Stories

Sage (1987) focuses on the attractive quality of the short stories as it successfully reflects real life (cited in Khan & Alasmari, 2018). Short stories are ideal to be covered within the limited classroom time. The appropriate text which is chosen carefully could be an ideal and precious source to promote language learning by applying various approaches used in studying literary text in EFL classroom. Short stories offer rich examples of language use, as well as the motivation offered by literary devices. The chain of the events, the twist of the plot, the suspense, climax, unexpected ending, symbols, themes and many more are excellent to practice the target language in various ways, through different approaches chosen depending on the aims and objectives.

Based on the views of various researchers, Khan and Alasmari (2018) note that short stories are accepted as captivating and ideal source of language model as well as enjoyment. In addition to the positive qualities mentioned above, short stories offer some other advantages as follows:

Short stories:

- *are short in length,*
- *have clarity and simplicity,*
- *cater for different tastes and interests,*
- *offer vast and varied topics*

6.2.2. Using Poetry

According to Maley and Duff (1989), poetry illustrates a wide range of semantic use of language; hence, it offers a rich source in the classroom. Benton et al (1990) note that the main aim of including poetry in language lessons is to help students to use the language actively and creatively. The significant characteristics of poems that cultivate the language practice are listed as follows in Khan and Alasmari (2018): The language of poems bears characteristics like being emotive, emotional, metalingual, or referential. Hence, poetry offers empathy, moves the emotions, the artistic use of language creates motivation to search for the metalingual function of the language, like a word play or linguistic ambiguity created in the text. The benefits of poetry explained by Sage (1987) include: linguistics; educational; cultural; emotional and aesthetic learning.

In addition to beneficial characteristics of using poems in the EFL classroom, Lazar (1993) offers different activities to be applied when dealing with poems. To illustrate, the activity of asking students to brainstorm word associations, analysing the symbolic meaning of a word and dealing with figurative meanings. Khan and Alasmari (2018) introduces some strategies to be followed when studying a poem: such as writing discussion questions related to a poem; selecting a challenging sentence that includes figurative language; exploring the meaning of difficult words; connecting with the poem by a focus on the personal experience, feelings and emotion.

6.2.3. Using Drama

Use of drama in EFL classroom offers several opportunities and benefits to the learners, especially to practice speaking skills. For instance, introducing drama as a literary text gives a chance to students to take part in and to become active participants, which enables them to practice the real-life genuine use in context, recreating real-life conversations. It could be defined as a simulation of life, of the real-life language use.

Creative drama - sometimes referred to as Educational Drama - together with games, offers dynamic activities such as icebreakers, brainteasers, improvisation and role-play (Davies, 1990). As explained by Saricoban (2004), drama promotes the comprehension of the real-world through a 'deeper linguistic world'. Lenore (1993), on the other hand, makes a list of benefits of drama as follows. Drama promotes:

- *creative thinking,*
- *language development,*
- *listening skills,*
- *new outlook for teaching,*
- *brightening the classroom,*
- *recognition of the social problems*

All in all, drama makes it possible to combine theory and practice by making it possible to practice the language in various real-life like, natural situations. Learners become a part of the play, they assume roles, act out, using the appropriate language. Thus, students are prepared

for the real-life like communication through stimulations of situations and practice of the language used in those situations.

6.2.4. Using Novels

Novels offer unlimited and exceptional forms of pedagogic activities. Novels Novels offer intellectual, emotional, linguistic involvement of the students. Novels provide a wide range of activities from extensive reading to close, detailed text analysis (Tsai, 2012). Reading novels offers pleasure and fulfillment to readers. Moreover, novels encourage students to read more, which helps language learners to feel more comfortable with the language. Through reading novels in English, learners improve themselves in various ways, like making predictions, drawing conclusions, decoding the implied meaning, reading between the lines, deciphering different layers of meaning hidden behind and within the words. It helps the learners to become closer the culture of the target language (Lazar, 1990), which leads to their appreciation of other cultures and beliefs and showing respect to the differences. Novels open the doors for the readers to a world where there are experiences, dilemmas, and problems similar to their own, (Hişmanoğlu, 2005) and through the actions, reactions, struggles, and solutions of the characters they can observe how it is possible to overcome such difficulties in life. Additionally, Reading novels gives a chance to the readers to become familiar with the conversational language, which helps them to become more aware of language use (McKay, 1982). Novels take the readers to remote lands, offering them different experiences and introducing them to a wide range of characters throughout the journey, which enriches the minds, hearts and language skills of the language learners.

7. Conclusion

All in all, this study aimed to provide an overview of the role of literature in language classrooms. It has been observed that although literature plays a significant role in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, it was neglected for some decades especially during the mid-twentieth century. Thanks to the recognition of the importance of using authentic material within the frame of Communicative Approach to language teaching, during the last few decades of the last century, literature started to gain its significant status. Since then, there has been well-deserved research related to the role of literature and related topics in teaching English.

The study has introduced views on the role of literature in providing significant benefits in the language classrooms, which can be listed as: the significance of literature in stimulating learners' interests and triggering motivation and engagement with literary texts; cultivating EFL learners' language skills as well as developing their critical thinking skills. In addition, the study has included main approaches to the integration of literature in language classrooms and a brief overview of the criteria of text selection and the use of literature in teaching different language skills have been given.

As a concluding remark, it could be added that future research should cover various methodologies, approaches and innovative designs to analyse the effect of using literature on language development of leaners, which would make a significant contribution to the field of English language education. Besides, introduction of systematic and new ideas related to

classroom applications of literary texts in the EFL context could be a useful guide for teachers with less experience in implementing literature in their language classrooms. In addition, information on the stages of application of the text with students from different age groups and levels will be a useful contribution to the related field.

Briefly to conclude, the implications of the research related to the role of literature in the EFL classroom indicate that it is important for the EFL teachers to integrate as many literary texts as possible into their syllabus so as to encourage the learners to be actively involved in classroom activities and to promote the use of spontaneous use of real-life language. Hence, EFL learners, apart from being exposed to the cultural aspects of literary texts, could benefit from authentic literary materials that are interesting and engaging. Thus, literature, evidently, promotes learners' cultural awareness and tolerance by helping them develop awareness of realities of their society and the world around them. In this way, EFL learners, while practicing the language use in real context, could gain an intellectual perspective, which help them develop as a whole person.

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TEACHING LITERARY GENRES THROUGH WEB 2.0 TOOLS IN ELT CLASSROOMS

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Abstract

The strong and close relationship between language and literature cannot be underestimated. However, there has been a lot of back and forth about the merit of literature in foreign language teaching. In recent years, the importance and use of literature in foreign language teaching environments have been well accepted. However, the search for the better inclusion of literature in these environments is an ongoing process. In this search, the growing availability and affordances of technology, we believe, have opened windows of opportunities to better use literature in foreign language teaching. One of these technologies is Web 2.0 tools. In this chapter, we first attempted to discuss the significance of literature in language teaching and shed light on the value and affordances of Web 2.0 tools. The authors will situate their argument as to why Web 2.0 tools can be resorted as a promising teaching practice when teaching language through literature. Then, sample lessons on two literary genres (novella and poem) that can be delivered by using Web 2.0 tools will be presented. We envisage this chapter will provide new insights into using literature in foreign language teaching programs with the integration of Web 2.0 tools.

Keywords: foreign language teaching, literature, literary genres, Web 2.0 tools

1. Introduction

Language and literature are the flip-side of the same coin. In foreign language teaching environments, adopting a culture-free approach and excluding the literature from the language learning processes may result in communication breakdowns in the target language (Bada, 2000; Holme, 2002; Roberts et al., 2001). For becoming a proficient user of the target language, not only linguistic but also cultural knowledge is necessary (Krasner, 1999; McKay, 2003). Textbooks generally inadequately address this knowledge and lack cultural aspects of the target language whereas literary texts are a good source of reflecting culture and authentic language. In this context, literature representing the culture of the target language should be an integrated part of foreign language teaching environments. For effective inclusion of the literature to these environments, the teachers' planning ability of tasks and scaffolding practices are of great importance (Paran, 2008).

The growing influence of technology in all spheres of life is an undeniable fact leading to the inevitable use of technology in educational contexts at all levels and language education is no exception. It can be claimed that language education follows and adopts technological advances more than any other subject. In line with this, language teachers are required to integrate technology into their classroom practices to better address their students' language learning needs. Prensky (2001) claimed a digital divide between students and their teachers and coined the terms 'digital natives' and 'digital immigrants'. Today's students are indeed

more familiar with technological devices than their teachers. However, we believe that a *huge* digital divide does not exist as Prensky claimed between the students and their teachers when it comes to the educational use of technology since the students mostly use technology and technological devices for entertainment purposes. With this in mind, language teachers should benefit from their students' familiarity with the technology and use it for educational purposes. Furthermore, technology opens new windows of opportunities for language learning and teaching purposes. In doing so, language teachers need to have digital literacy to enrich course content and teaching modality. In other words, language teachers need to develop their technological knowledge and skills to effectively integrate technology into their teaching practices.

Now, the use of technology by the language teachers is not a preference but to a certain extent an obligation (Luke & Britten, 2007). We believe that the successful use of technology in language learning depends heavily on how teachers integrate it into language learning processes. Furthermore, there has been no reliable evidence that without teachers' guidance, technology use produces desired results (ACFTL, 2012, para. 3). Today, there is a wide array of instructional technology available to language learners both in and out of the classroom one of which is Web 2.0 tools, and in the hands of skillful and competent language teachers, these tools can contribute to the effectiveness of instruction. With the widespread availability and affordances of these tools, language teachers can reap the benefits of it while including the literature in their language teaching practices. The chapter begins by discussing the place of literature in language teaching and then continues by detailing the use of Web 2.0 in it. We shall then end the chapter with two sample lessons on two literary genres that showcase the use of Web 2.0 tools.

2. Literature in Language Teaching

Literature reflects the culture of the target language in authentic ways and therefore it is believed that there is a close link between literature and language teaching. To Widdowson (1983), since the dialogues used in the classroom (classroom communication) have no plot and characters they are far from creating conflict or interaction, misunderstanding or mystery and therefore the learners simply utter the sentences in the given context and it is doubtful that this attracts students' interest for real communication. McRae (1991), on the other hand, pointing out the 'fabricated' nature of classroom language, states that it is a kind of give and take information where one cannot find a figurative language or it does not lead to thinking in the target language. Therefore, students need to be exposed to a wide range of materials so that they can have a purpose, genuine interaction, misunderstanding, and corrections which are the natural parts of communication in any given language. Literary texts provide rich sources of authentic language in which interlocutors find critics of ideas, misunderstandings, and various interaction forms and this makes literature unique and valuable in language teaching.

There is an undeniable connection between language and the culture where this language is practiced. Literature, being the epitome of the target culture, stands out as a great resource to resort to in language classrooms (Byram, 1989; Kramsch, 1994). According to Ghosn (2002), literature in language teaching serves four major purposes. Literature provides;

- meaningful and motivating context;

- opportunities for teaching colloquial vocabulary;

- academic literacy and helps students develop higher-order thinking skills;

- models to form humanistic views

Additionally, literature and literary pieces help students understand the target culture in motivating and attention-grabbing contexts, thereby raising awareness toward the similarities and differences between the mother and the target language (Lazar, 1993). Thus, it is a must for language teachers to exploit authentic literary pieces in language classrooms (Collie & Slater, 2011). In addition, it is argued that the literature has an impact on bringing foreign language learners to the competency of native speakers (Obediat, 1997).

As a part of language learning, authenticity attracted language teachers and material developers after the 1970s and since then authentic materials have become sine qua non of language classrooms as they provide more freedom to use and understand the real language; exposure to various contexts in which everyday language is spoken. To Jaccomard and Kuuse (2016) "authenticity improves students' communicative and cultural competence, as well as their intrinsic motivation" (p. 2). Similarly, literature is a good source of authentic materials as literary texts offer genuine language use and provide opportunities to use the language creatively. It is suggested that "the skills obtained while studying literary texts will help learners become better, more aware readers of the world they live in" (McRae, 1991, p. 10 cited in Daskalovsk & Dimova, 2012, p. 1183). Therefore, it can be stated that with the use of literature in language teaching we not only support our students' language learning but also their awareness of the world they live in because literature presents the creative and imaginative use of language.

3. Web 2.0 Tools in Language Teaching

Technology is regarded to function as a catalyst promoting more learner-centered approaches, unlike traditional teacher-fronted classrooms. In technology-enhanced learning contexts, it is argued that students have more opportunities to develop autonomous learning skills (Russell & Sorge, 1999). As obvious it is, technology has safely secured its place in the educational contexts for a long time now and the era we live in is certainly highly wired. In the past though, teachers were traditionally regarded as the sole agents to transmit knowledge whereas in technology-enhanced classes students are expected to equally share the ownership of constructing and sharing knowledge in collaboration with their peers.

Of the instructional technologies, Web 2.0 tools come fore as one of the major applications utilized in language classrooms. Coined up by O'Reilly (2005), the term Web 2.0 encompasses more than a simple acronym. When we are talking about these tools, we mean a wide array of applications that can be executed by a computer with an internet connection. With the introduction of the internet into our lives, we, the users of the technology, can both interact and collaborate with other users around the world. Today, computers with an internet connection do not only provide read-only static information but help us disseminate knowledge, contribute to the existing information and interact with others on online platforms.

Before the emergence of Web 2.0, its predecessor, Web 1.0 provided its users with static information that the users could not interact with, contribute to the existing information but maintain read-only status. This 'one-way communication' modality, as was described by McLeod and Wasinda (2008; cited in Basal, 2016), was far from engaging the users actively with the presented online material. However, with the introduction of Web 2.0, users have had an active role in creating and sharing content. Regarded as the second generation of the World Wide Web, Web 2.0 enables users to create content, share and collaborate with others. From the beginning to the end, users of Web 2.0 tools are actively involved in content creation and sharing with other users. That is, they become the content creators rather than the passive receivers of the content.

With regards to the privileges that Web 2.0 provides with users, Murugesan (as cited in Başal, 2016, p. 156) states; Web 2.0

- *facilitates flexible Web design, creative reuse, and updates;*

- *provides a rich, responsive user interface;*

- *facilitates collaborative content creation and modification;*

- *enables the creation of new applications by reusing and combining different applications on the Web or by combining data and information from different sources;*

- *establishes social networks of people with common interests;*

- *supports collaboration and helps gather collective intelligence*

Considering its development from 'read-only' status to content creating, sharing, and collaborating, Web 2.0 is a promising instructional tool

> *encompassing a variety of different meanings that include an increased emphasis on user generated content, data and content sharing and collaborative effort, together with the use of various kinds of social software, new ways of interacting with web-based applications, and the use of the web as a platform for generating, re-purposing and consuming content* (Franklin & Van Harmelen, 2007, p.4).

Why are Web 2.0 tools considered promising new generation applications? Although they were not created to facilitate and enhance teaching practices at all levels and in all majors, but primarily designed for content creation and communication, Web 2.0 tools have turned to be the most promising applications in the hands of teachers. According to Jimoyiannis et al. (2013), today's Z generation, that is, 'digital natives' are already accustomed to using these tools in their daily lives outside the classroom and thus their familiarity with these tools makes their usage in the classroom more enjoyable and problem-free on the part of the learners (Please see our way of thinking about digital natives in the introduction part). Along with these potential benefits, the researchers cited above also argue that these tools are in alignment with current learning theories thereby offering students a more learner-centered learning milieu (Lee & McLoughlin, 2007). In addition, tools help students establish communication networks by sharing and collaborating with their peers around the world. In a way, tools-enriched instruction takes students out of the classroom and helps them to socialize with their peers in authentic discourse communities. Parallel to their popularity in educational contexts, the number of these tools has proliferated considerably. Preferred in the educational

arena are Web 2.0 tools such as wikis, podcasting, social networking sites (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram), video-sharing (e.g., YouTube), social bookmarking, and content curating (e.g., Blendspace, Livebinders,). In an inventory study conducted by Wang and Vasquez (2012), blogs, wikis, social networking sites, and virtual worlds were found to be the most documented tools in research studies.

In addition to the mentioned benefits, Web 2.0 tools can entertain different learning styles by providing visual, aural, animation-enhanced content simultaneously (Prashing, 2006). This 'all-in one' feature is surely a big asset that these tools possess with regards to traditional coursebook-bound teaching practices in typical classrooms. All in all, it is true to say that, Web 2.0 tools have the potential to provide an effective teaching atmosphere where students are exposed to multi-faceted learning experiences through interaction, engagement, creativity, and collaboration with other users.

Below is a list of rigorously selected tools that are categorized according to primary purposes for use in language classrooms:

1. Corpus Tools: Padlet, Blendspace, Google Docs, Google Slides

2. Brainstorming Tools: Answergarden, Tricider, Google Form

3. Story-construction Tools: Storybird, Storyboardthat, Storyjumper

4. Mindmapping: Mindmeister, Popplet, Bubble.us

5. Word Cloud Tools: Wordart, Wordclouds

6. Video Tools: Voicethread, Ed.Ted (designing video-based courses)

7. Infographic Tools: Easel.ly, Pictochart

8. Sound Tools: Vocaroo, Google Docs (sound-text)

Although technology in a larger sense and Web 2.0 tools, in particular, have a positive impact on overall teaching and learning practices, people who will utilize and exploit these tools are equally important if not more. Regarding technology and these tools as life jackets and placing complete reliance on them unquestionably to remedy all the problems in the classroom would be a great fallacy. These tools will serve their purposes once they are exploited by skillful teachers. Web 2.0 tools can create wonders in the hands of pedagogically well-trained teachers. Concerning the human factor as a user of these tools, Warschauer and Meskill (2000) underline the 'humanware' factor along with hardware and software. He argues that teachers as 'humanware' come before the other wares in terms of planning and designing successful educational practices inside the classroom. That is, no matter how well versed a teacher is in the area of these tools, it is their capacity and knowledge of designing and creating the content, pacing the activities, appropriately integrating the tools in a coherent manner that make the difference.

According to Basal (2015a), pre-service programs producing language teachers lack adequate technology training. Included are the reasons, he argues, curriculum, the teacher educators, and limited credit hours assigned for technology courses. Basal (2015b) asserts that "the knowledge and expertise of a language teacher on integrating technology into the curriculum

will have a direct influence on the realization of a lesson's learning objectives" (p. 487). Today's language teachers are surrounded by a wide array of emerging technologies (Wildner, 2000). Thus, language teachers are expected to integrate these technologies properly into their courses thereby taking up new roles (Luke & Britten, 2007; Otto & Pusack, 1996). However, as mentioned earlier, language teacher preparation programs fail to enable prospective teachers with competencies to use technology effectively (Rilling et al., 2005; Schrum, 1999; Sprague, Kopfman & Dorsey, 1998, as cited in Luke & Britten, 2007). In relation to technology training in pre-service education, Hubbard (2008) claims that there are research studies proving that teachers graduate from formal programs either by knowing little or almost none about technology. The gap between 'digital native' Z generation students (Lee, 2000) and the teachers who graduated from the programs with little or no knowledge at all in adequate technology integration (Kessler, 2006) stands as an acute factor sufficient to negate all the other positive conditions available for language teaching.

Web 2.0 tools can open windows of opportunities for foreign language teaching if they are properly integrated into instruction by the careful planning of the language teachers. Language teachers here should seek the optimum balance between pedagogy and technology not prioritizing one over another because they mutually affect each other in the process. We believe that using Web 2.0 tools may bring interactivity, collaboration, cooperation, and engagement into language lessons. Considering the importance of literature in foreign language teaching, teachers can benefit from these tools to create better learning and teaching atmosphere while including literature in the foreign language teaching environments.

The following are two sample activities that showcase the use of literary texts with selected Web2.0 tools (Vocaroo, Storyboardthat, Padlet, Google Docs, MindMeister, Magnetic poetry, Renderforest, Storyjumper, Bamboozle, Rhymer). We only focused on two genres (novella and poetry) due to the space limitations. In presenting these activities, we sought to create a diverse set of activities aimed at variety as far as possible.

4. Sample Activities

Typically, in literature courses, teachers assign literary texts and analyze them with their students in terms of characters, plot, theme, context, and so on. Studies have proven prevalent discontent in students who receive literary instruction via traditional teaching modalities. The language teachers' responsibility is therefore to create an engaging learning environment. In doing so, Web 2.0 tools have the potential to provide promising outputs when appropriately exploited by teachers. Language teachers can design and develop engaging and motivating lessons with the effective integration of these tools into their teaching practices. The followings are a few Web 2.0-tools enhanced activities that can be utilized in literature classes and the stages to be followed.

Sample Activity 1

Literary work   : The Dead by James Joyce

Genre   : Novella

Aim   : To teach James Joyce's The Dead through Web 2.0 tools

To focus on certain language structures within the literary text

Language skills : listening, reading, writing, and speaking

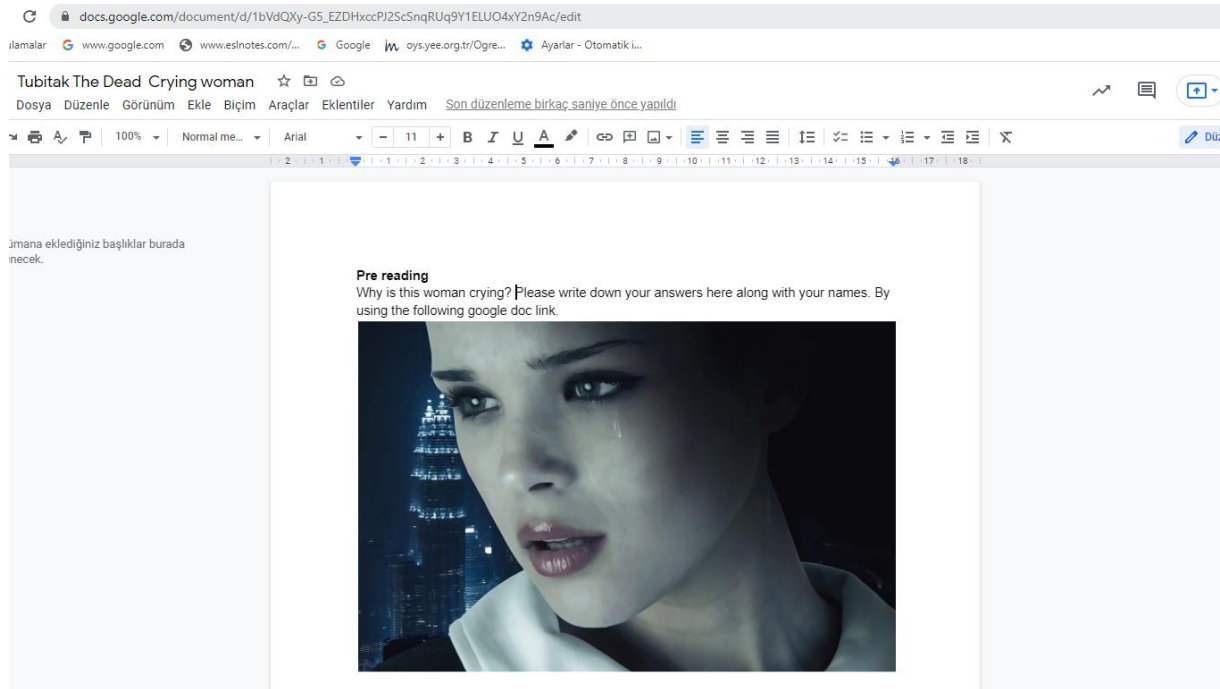**Sub language skills** : grammar, vocabulary, intonation, and spelling

Web 2.0 tools : padlet, google docs, vocaroo

The activity comprises three stages, pre-while, and post.

Pre-activity stage:

1. Students were initially introduced to the required Web 2.0 tools Padlet, Google Docs, Storyboardthat, and Vocaroo. Afterwards, a picture reflecting the content of *The Dead* was shown through Google Docs and then they were asked the following question.
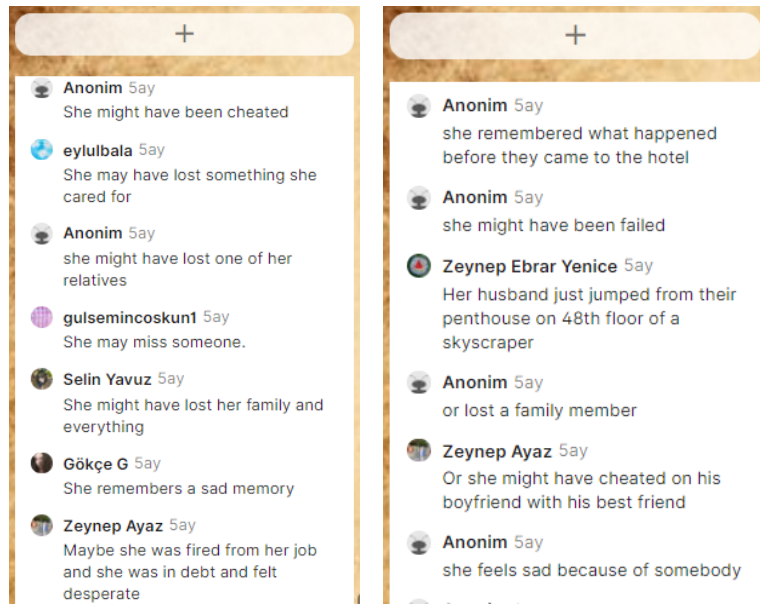
2. Look at the picture and explain the reasons why the woman below is crying; write your answers either via Google Docs or Padlet through the link provided.

Figure 1: A picture reflecting the content of the "*The Dead*"

3. Students discussed/read their answers written on Padlet.

Screenshot 1: Sample of students' answers of why the woman in the image is crying.

4. Then students were addressed the next question which was about an incomplete paragraph.

The paragraph was posted on Padlet; the students were asked to complete the following paragraph and write their answers via Padlet just under the paragraph. The paragraph and students' answers have been presented below.

The incomplete paragraph:

The couple were at the hotel, the man noticed the strange behaviors of the woman. Suddenly, she remembers the story and bursts into tears and then said…
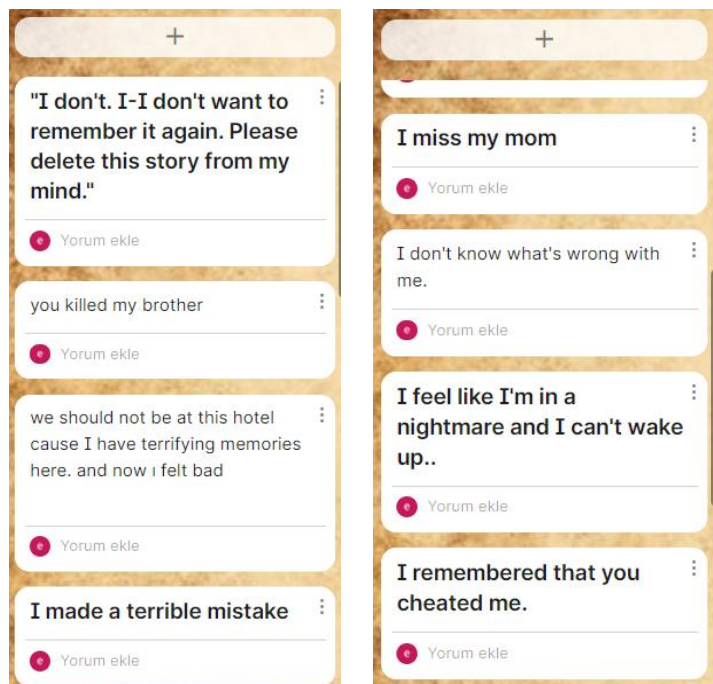
Screenshot 2: Samples of student answers to the paragraph completion.

The teacher reminded students that they would learn the actual missing part of the paragraph at the end of the class. Afterwards they read aloud what they initially wrote.

While stage

Students were addressed various questions during reading. The procedure was as follows:

1. At this stage, students were asked to read aloud a shortened text from *The Dead* provided through google docs, then worked out the meaning of the text and unknown vocabulary.

Summary

*Gabriel Conroy, and his wife, Gretta. When they arrive at the party held by Kate and Julia Morkan. They discuss their decision to stay at a hotel that evening rather than make the long trip home. More guests came later on. The party continues with a piano performance by Mary Jane. More dancing follows, which finds Gabriel paired up with Miss Ivors, a fellow university instructor. A fervent supporter of Irish culture, Miss Ivors embarrasses Gabriel by labeling him a "West Briton" for writing literary reviews for a conservative newspaper. Gabriel dismisses the accusation, but Miss Ivors pushes the point by inviting Gabriel to visit the Aran Isles, where Irish is spoken, during the summer. When Gabriel declines, explaining that he has arranged a cycling trip on the continent, Miss Ivors corners him about his lack of interest in his own country. Gabriel and his wife discussed their staying at the hotel after the party rather than taking such a long way back to home late night. He wanted to chat with Lilly the maid but she rejected. Gabriel exclaims that he is sick of Ireland. After the dance, he flees to a corner and engages in a few more conversations, but he cannot forget the interlude with Miss Ivors. Just before dinner, Julia sings a song for the guests. Miss Ivors makes her exit to the surprise of Mary Jane and Gretta, and to the relief of Gabriel. Finally, dinner is ready, and Gabriel assumes his place at the head of the table to carve the goose. After much fussing, everyone eats, and finally Gabriel delivers his speech, in which he praises Kate, Julia, and Mary Jane for their hospitality. Framing this quality as an Irish strength, Gabriel laments the present age in which such hospitality is undervalued. Nevertheless, he insists, people must not linger on the past and the dead, but live and rejoice in the present with the living. The table breaks into a loud applause for Gabriel's speech, and the entire party toasts their three hostesses. Later, guests begin to leave, and Gabriel recounts a story about his grandfather and his horse, which forever walked in circles even when taken out of the mill where it worked. After finishing the anecdote, Gabriel realizes that Gretta stands transfixed by the song that Mr. Bartell D'Arcy sings in the drawing room. When the music stops and the rest of the party guests assemble before the door to leave, Gretta remains detached and thoughtful. Gabriel is enamored with and preoccupied by his wife's mysterious mood and recalls their courtship as they walk from the house and catch a cab into Dublin. At the hotel, Gabriel grows irritated by Gretta's behavior. She does not seem to share his romantic inclinations, and in fact bursts into tears. Gretta confesses that she has been thinking of the song from the party because a former lover had sung it to her in her youth in Galway. Gretta recounts the sad story of this boy, Michael Furey, who died after waiting outside of her window in the cold. Gretta later falls asleep, but Gabriel remains awake, disturbed by Gretta's new information. He curls up on the bed, contemplating his own mortality. Seeing*

the snow at the window, he envisions it blanketing the graveyard where Michael Furey rests, as well as all of Ireland.

(Source: https://www.sparknotes.com/lit/dubliners/section15/)

After reading aloud;

2. The students were asked to

a. match the words in A and B sections on Padlet wall.

b. divide the reading text into four different themes.
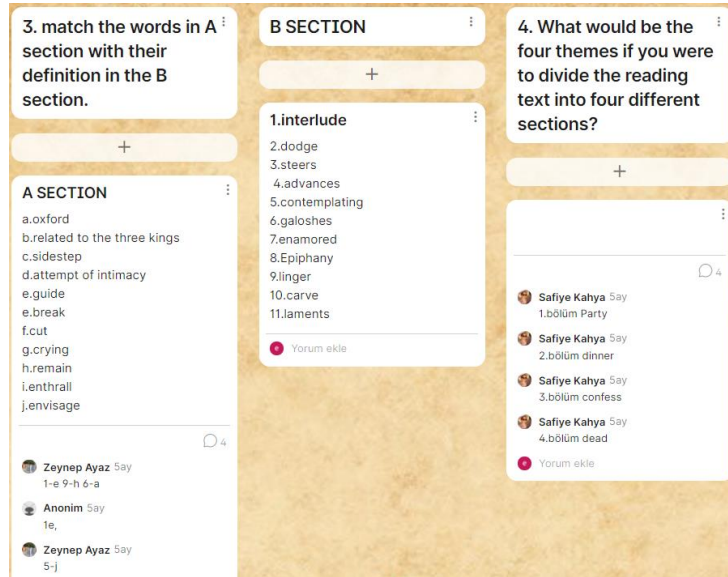
Screenshot 3: While activity: Matching the sections and dividing texts into four t themes

Post-activity

1. At this stage, students were introduced a voice recording Web 2 tool, Vocaroo. They were asked to write a sentence reflecting the mood of Gabriel's wife on Padlet and then vocalize the same sentence to reflect her emotion. The students recorded their voices through Vocaroo and then uploaded them to Padlet wall.

2. Students were also asked to dramatize the conversation between Gabriel and his wife at the hotel by using Vocaroo voice recording.

3. They also chose the characters from the Storyboardthat, created their own story and wrote a short dialogue between Gabriel and his wife (see the image of the students' work below). The stories were uploaded on Padlet.
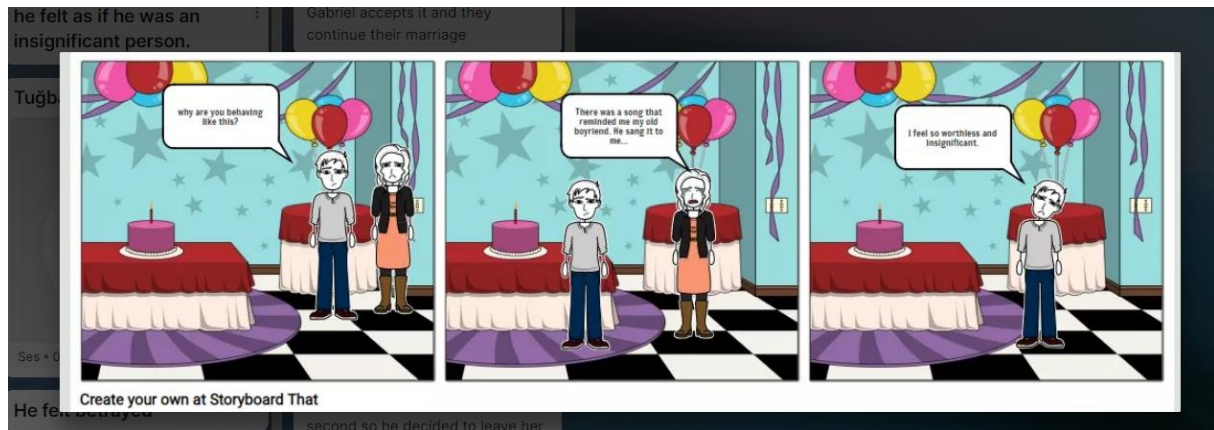
Screenshot 4: A sample of a student's work: A short dialogue between Gabriel and his wife.

4. As a post-activity, the students were also instructed to find a suitable title for the reading text which remained with no title. Finding title activity could also be used at while or pre-stages**.**
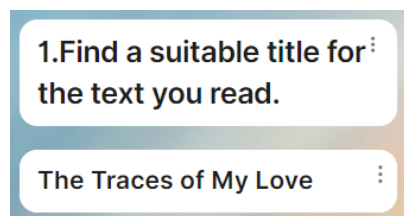
Screenshot 5: A sample title of a student.

<u>Sample activity 2</u>

Literary work	**:** Faith by Robert Kendall
Genre	**:** Digital Poetry
Aim	**:** Teaching of Sonnet through Web 2 tools
	To focus on rhymed couplets
Language skills	**:** listening, reading, writing, and speaking
Sub language skills	**:** grammar, vocabulary, intonation, and spelling
Web 2.0 tools	**:** MindMeister, Magnetic poetry, Renderforest, Storyjumper Bamboozle, Rhymer,

The activity comprises of three stages, pre-while and post.

<u>Pre-activity stage:</u>

1. In this activity students brainstormed on '*faith*' by using *MindMeister*.

Screenshot 6: Brainstorm activity with Mindmeister *(https://www.mindmeister.com/)*

2. Students were initially introduced to magnetic poetry. On this website, there is a word pool for writing poems. The students wrote a rhymed couplet on '*faith*' by using the given words.

Screenshot 7: Writing a rhymed couplet activity

(http://play.magneticpoetry.com/poem/poet/kit/)

3. In this activity, the students were asked to use Renderforest and create animation for their poems.

Screenshot 8: Poem animation activity.

4. The students were instructed to use "I am poem" engine on '*faith*' and write a poem (*https://oakdome.com/k5/lesson-plans/word/i-am-poem.php*). This activity aims to teach students the blank verse.

Screenshot 9: Poem writing activity.

While stage:

1. The students were asked to use the following Web 2 tool and listen to the e-poem on Faith. Then, they write down the words in red and re-read the poem.
(*https://collection.eliterature.org/1/works/kendall__faith.html*)

Screenshot 10: Note-taking activity

2. In this activity, students were asked to re-read the poem and fill in the missing parts with rhyming words.
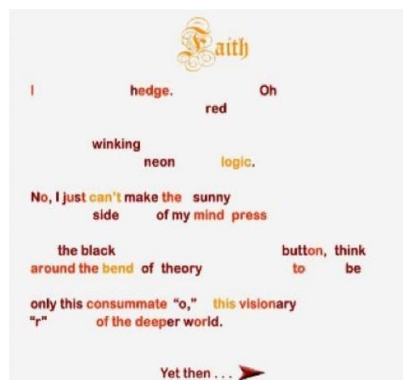
Screenshot 11: Rhyming Practice

3. The students worked out the rhyming scheme of the poem and changed the un-rhymed words into rhymed couplets per instruction.

Screenshot 12: Blank verse Activity

4. Students were reminded that the following activity would be self-evaluation of their performance and then would write two rhymed lines on their performance.

Screenshot 13: Wrap-up Activity

Post-activity stage:

1. In this group activity, two groups of students played a rhyming game by using the following web 2.0 tool. *(https://www.baamboozle.com/)*

Screenshot 14: Playing a rhyming game

2. Students were encouraged to use the story-jumper and write a short story based on their poems. The following Web 2.0 can also be used to create sound effects and design characters. *(https://www.storyjumper.com)*
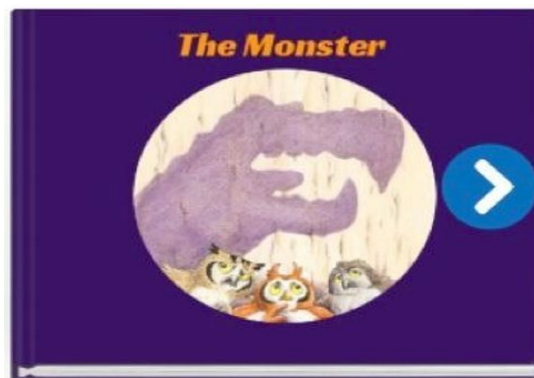
Screenshot 15: Sample from students' poems.

3. Students were asked to read the following poem and underline the rhyming words. Then, students were instructed to use the following web-site and find alternative rhyming words for the poem. *(https://www.rhymer.com/day.html)*

The aim of this activity is to teach students the structure and rhyming pattern of the sonnet.

5. Shall I Compare Thee (Sonnet 18)

by William Shakespeare

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?
Thou art more lovely and more temperate.
Rough winds do shake the darling buds of May,
And summer's lease hath all too short a date.
Sometime too hot the eye of heaven shines,
And often is his gold complexion dimmed;
And every fair from fair sometime declines,
By chance, or nature's changing course, untrimmed;
But thy eternal summer shall not fade,
Nor lose possession of that fair thou ow'st,
Nor shall death brag thou wand'rest in his shade,
When in eternal lines to Time thou grow'st.
   So long as men can breathe, or eyes can see,
   So long lives this, and this gives life to thee.

4. Using Shakespearean rhyme scheme, students were asked to write a 14-line poem on *faith* by using the following web 2.0 tool. This tool enables students to choose common words or defined words. Besides, they may choose word types to practice grammar.

(https://muse.dillfrog.com/rhyme/search?word=day)

Title _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____

6. Conclusion

Collected scholarly knowledge suggests that language and literature cannot be separated. Being a showcase of a particular culture, literature offers authentic and language-rich samples from every part of life. In language classrooms, students are exposed to the target language provided in coursebooks. The teaching materials utilized in the language teaching present the target language with limited content in fabricated contexts. However, literary pieces have considerable potential to offer authentic language elements. That being said, literature is an indispensable component of the language teaching curriculum. Despite its pivotal role, studies show that students also do not give due credit to literature-based courses.

Research studies conducted on students' receiving literature instruction in mainstream classrooms revealed that students have a negative tendency toward literature in general as it has difficult content (Choy, 2002; Ghazali., 2008; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Sidhu 2003). In a study conducted by Erdem (2013), half of the participating students were found to have a negative attitude toward literature courses. In the study, the participating students (how many?) voiced their concerns about the selection of the literary pieces, that the pieces are far from entertaining their interest and the delivery style of the course is dull. Choy (2002) recommends better teaching strategies to be adopted to eliminate the negative attitude toward the course; otherwise, as stated by Parkinson and Thomas (2000), this negativity can turn to be a fact that is difficult to change.

Sidhu's (2003) research on students' attitude toward literature course reveal findings that are compatible with the other studies. The participating students stated that they find the content of the lesson dull. In the study, 85 % of the students recommend teaching the course via audio-visual aids. According to Sidhu (2003), a typical literature course unfolds the teacher's reading the text aloud or the students. Following the reading aloud stage, the teacher explains and sometimes translates the text word by word. Subramaniam (2003), concerning the negative attitude toward literature lessons, points out limited pedagogical competency of the teachers that in-service preparation of teachers is equally important. In a recent study

conducted by Işıklı and Tarakçıoğlu (2017), the participating students were found to be demotivated toward literature courses. This perceived discontent can be eliminated by integrating technology into the courses. With their features, language teachers can design and develop engaging language learning activities while benefitting from the literature in the process.

As mentioned earlier, technology enriches and enhances educational practices in a way that cannot be realized by course-book-based traditional teaching practices. Of the instructional technologies, Web 2.0 tools are promising in many aspects. Named as 'second generation' technology that stands out from the 'read-only' capability of its predecessor, these tools foster learner-centered teaching approaches. Students can create content, communicate, collaborate, contribute to the presented information, and interact with others in an online platform by utilizing Web 2.0 tools. Along with these affordances, Web 2.0 tools can be stimulating as they have the potential to whet the 'digital appetite' of today's digital native students.

Although Web 2.0 tools are highly effective in educational contexts, one big pitfall is the pedagogical readiness of teachers who are supposed to utilize these tools in the classroom. Regarding technology as a panacea and disregarding the practitioner's (human factor) role, that is the teacher's, will not be rational. Relatively an under-researched area, various studies prove that technology instruction is either limited or non-existent at all in the language teacher preparation programs. Given the unavoidable presence of technology in the educational arena at all levels, teachers are expected to have literacy in technology. For the teacher preparation programs to produce teachers who know how to design, deliver, pace, and evaluate technology-enhanced classes, the curriculum needs to be revised. The integration of Web 2.0 tools into the design of activities and tasks in the language classroom when literature is used as a device-bridge for language teaching can create a more enjoyable and desirable learning atmosphere with their participatory and collaborative nature.

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AVOWED OBJECTIVES IN ELT CURRICULUM VERSUS GROUND REALITIES IN CLASSROOMS: HOW CONVERGENT ARE THEY?

Ali KARAKAŞ

1. Introduction

Due to the rising importance of English around the world and its widening impacts on different sectors, educational reforms in English language teaching have been on the political agendas of the countries. Turkey, as a fast-developing and western-oriented country, is no exception in the trend towards introducing educational policies to better the level of English proficiency of its citizens. From a historical perspective on education reforms in Turkey, it becomes evident that each education reform has placed paramount importance on foreign language education policies, especially those of English. Take, for example, the introduction of English classes in the fourth grade with three hours per week in the 1997 education reform, the increase of the course hours to 10 at high schools with the transition to the compulsory four-year high school education in the 2005 education reform (Gürsoy, Korkmaz & Damar, 2013; Kırkgöz, 2007). Additionally, with the latest educational reform in 2012, the compulsory education extended to 12 years within the scope of the education model, known as 4+4+4, consisting of primary (4 years), secondary (4 years) and high school levels (4 years) (Gürsoy et al., 2013).

Alongside these changes in the English language teaching policies, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has started various initiatives to raise the quality of foreign language education in the country. One of such initiatives was the introduction of the DynED (Dynamic Education) project in 2007, courseware that supports computer-based language teaching, for students at all levels of education. The DynED-embedded classes were found to contribute to the success of learners in the act of learning English with greater levels of motivation towards English (Baş & Kuzucu, 2009; Baş, 2010) and to have caused language teachers to hold favourable views about its use in language classes (Yiğit, 2013). Similarly, another project that drew on the use of technology intending to enhance opportunities in education was put into effect in 2010, which came to be known as FATIH (Turkish: Fırsatları Artırma ve Teknolojiyi İyileştirme Hareketi) project, i.e. *Movement to Increase Opportunities and Technology*, within the scope of which, classrooms were supplied with interactive boards and both students and teachers were distributed tablets to align their practices with technological advances; however, as reported in some studies, FATIH project appeared to cause a dilemma among teachers due to its perceived advantages (e.g. easy access to knowledge, enriched materials) and disadvantages (e.g. technical problems, lack of required computer skills) (Akıncı, 2017; Çiftçi, Taşkaya & Alemdar, 2013; Güven & Akar Vural, 2017).

The MoNE has also worked on numerous programs for improving students' overall language proficiency, especially oral skills. However, many initiatives of the MoNE have not been able to be put into effect due largely to financial issues. One of these programs was on the employment of 40.000 foreign teachers, "imported teachers", (Saraç, 2011, p. 263) at Turkish schools in 2011 who were schemed to accompany language teachers as language assistants and offer courses at English cafes and take part in extracurricular activities in order to make

students speak better English (Barrack, 2016). The project merely remained on paper and was not implemented most likely owing to its considerable costs and severe criticisms of the educational bodies and pre- and in-service language teachers against the project and its wider impacts for unassigned and pre-service teachers, as was verified in empirical studies (e.g. Coşkun, 2013).

Both the general educational reforms and projects on the teaching of English at schools have had a direct influence on the curricula for English language teaching at primary, secondary and high schools levels. This influence is considerably evident in the MoNE's attempts to regularly update the content and principles of such curricula in accordance with the changing linguistic needs of the students, the requirements of the technological advances and more importantly, the factors related to politics, contexts and pedagogy (Kırkgöz, Çelik & Arıkan, 2016). Albeit the renewal of such policy documents at regular intervals by the relevant authorities, the extent to which these policy-related curricular reforms have been translated into actual classroom practices so far and how successful they have been in terms of improving learners' English skills are still an understudied subject in Turkey. The investigation of the current curricula for English from a policy (official statements) and practice (ground realities) perspective is crucial to identify how convergent and divergent policy statements and classroom practices are. Besides, through this investigation, it may be understood whether the potential convergence and divergence between desired goals and classroom realities is a factor that plays a role in the reported low quality of foreign language education and Turkish people's overall low level of English proficiency (Çakır, 2017; Işık, 2008; Özen et al., 2013).

2. Theoretical Foundations

As this research is concerned with foreign language education policy, its theoretical foundations are informed by the relevant notions of language policy framework, especially that of Spolsky (2004) and that of Shohamy (2006). From a broader perspective, language policies can be taken as "an officially mandated set of rules for language use and form within a nation-state" (Spolsky, 2012, p. 3). If this broad definition is narrowed down for educational domains, it might mean officially determined rules to regulate language teaching within a specific context, in our case the Turkish one, with all of its constituents within the scope of language education policies in a nation-state (Language Education Policy, 2020). The materialization of language education policies with respect to foreign language education occurs at two levels: macro-level policies and micro-level policies (Wang, 2006). The design of the policies at the macro level is made by (supra)national organizations, such as the MoNE and its affiliated boards (i.e. The Board of Education and Discipline) in Turkey whereas the micro-level issues are concerned with the implementation of the macro-level decisions, such as designing language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, decisions on textbooks, supplementary books, class hour schedules and so forth. The following figure illustrates the foreign language education policymaking process and the interconnection between macro and micro-level policymaking.
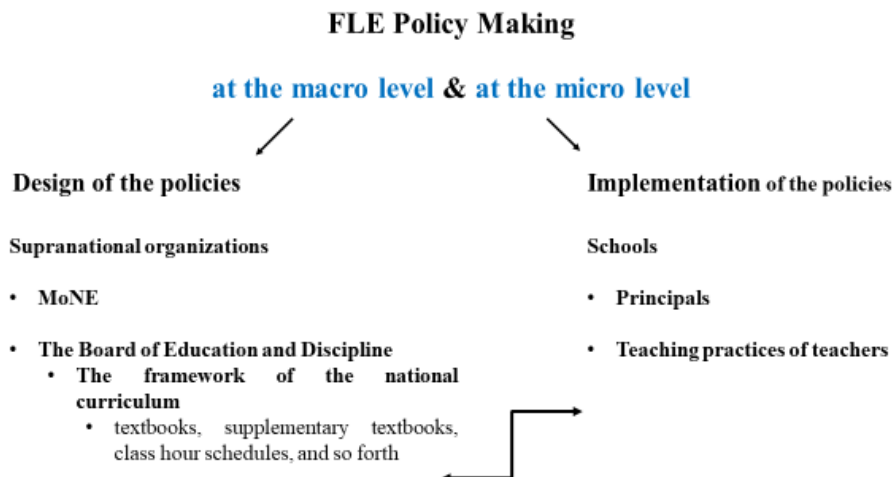
FLE Policy Making

at the macro level & at the micro level

Design of the policies

Supranational organizations

- **MoNE**

- **The Board of Education and Discipline**
  - **The framework of the national curriculum**
    - textbooks, supplementary textbooks, class hour schedules, and so forth

Implementation of the policies

Schools

- **Principals**

- **Teaching practices of teachers**

Figure 1: Foreign language education policy at two levels

Language policy researchers often resort to Spolsky's (2004) three-componential model of language policy while exploring language-policy related issues. His model consists of three interrelated components: language beliefs (ideology), language practices and language management. These terms are named differently by other scholars. Ball (2006), for instance, prefers to call language beliefs 'policy as discourse' and language management 'policy as text' and Bonacina-Pugh (2012) calls language practices 'policy as practice'. Language beliefs refer to the cognitive assumptions about how language should be taught and used; language practices are about what people (in our case teachers and students) are prepared to do in terms of language teaching, learning and use while language management is concerned with "decisions made about languages and their uses in the society" as well as in classrooms (Shohamy, 2006, p. 45). The following figure shows Spolsky's (2004) language policy framework:

Spolsky's (2004) Language policy framework

what individuals actually do while using the language (e.g. their pattern of linguistic choices, formality, following the agreed rules or not and etc.).

Policy as practice Bonacino-Pugh (2012)

Policy as discourse (Ball, 2006)

Policy as text (Ball, 2006)

Language practices

Language beliefs or ideology

Language management

Language policy

- a set of beliefs as regards language and language use

"the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy… about language use" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 14).
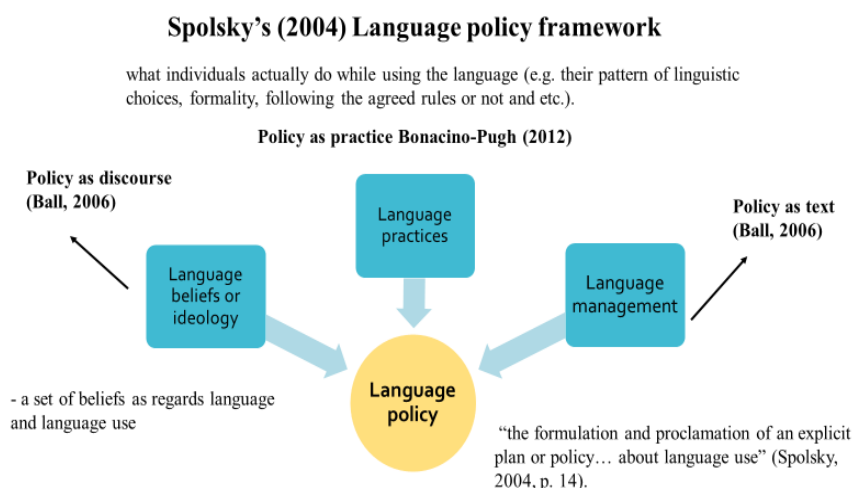
Figure 2: Spolsky's language policy framework

Since this study's focal attention is on curricular documents, i.e. high school English language teaching curriculum, "the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved" (Richards, 2013, p. 6), it is also vital to attend to language policy mechanisms which might affect the de facto or real (intended) language policies. As noted by Shohamy (2006), the study of language policy documents "should not be limited to the examination of declared and official statements. Rather, the real policy is executed through a variety of mechanisms that determine the de facto practices. There is a need, therefore, to examine the use of mechanisms and study their consequences and effects on de facto LP, as it is through these mechanisms that the de facto language policy is created and manifested" (Shohamy, 2006, p. 54). With respect to curricular decisions, such mechanisms might encompass the materials selected, approaches and methods used by practitioners, and tests administered to assess learners' progress. Thus, particular emphasis will be placed on such mechanisms in the investigation of the curricular documents in the study reported here.

3. Research on Curricular Documents in Turkey

A vast array of research has been carried out on curricular documents, especially on Turkey's national English language curriculum for primary, secondary and high schools. The existing studies address several issues around English as a foreign language (EFL) curriculum, including the comparison of Turkish EFL curriculum with those of other countries (e.g. Indonesia) (Sari & Wardani, 2018), scholarly attempts to design a present-day curriculum for primary schools based on new theoretical grounds and practices (Kırkgöz, 2008; Kırkgöz, Çelik & Arıkan, 2016), weaknesses and strengths of the primary school EFL curriculum (Erarslan, 2018), evaluations of the second grade EFL syllabus (Erarslan, 2016) and the fifth grade ELF syllabus from the perspectives of EFL teachers, students as well as administrators (Yolcu & Dimici, 2021), the elements that influence the implementation of the primary EFL curriculum (Erarslan, 2019) and teacher and student attitudes towards the high school EFL curriculum (Ayaz, Özkardaş & Özturan, 2019). The overall results pointed to participants' reservations about the effectiveness of the curricula due to regional differences, shortage of teachers and the added class hours of other subjects (Yolcu & Dimici, 2021), the inefficiency of the primary EFL curriculum for equipping students with communicative skills (Erarslan, 2018), lack of satisfaction with the coursebooks, crowded classes, limited class hours and unenthusiastic students (Ayaz et al., 2019) and the role of previous teacher training, inadequate instructional support and shortage of resources as barriers to curriculum innovation and the probable source of the gap between curricular objectives and novel implementations of these objectives (Kırkgöz, 2008).

Additionally, recent research has also investigated the extent to which the EFL curriculum can help students reach curricular objectives. Take, for example, the study of Elgün and Yağcı (2021) who explored how operational the second grade EFL syllabus was in terms of realizing speaking objectives stated in the policy document, with results pointing to low levels of success among students. Behind the failure of reaching the curricular objectives, regardless of their being of relevance to primary, secondary or high school levels, as put forward in several studies, lie several reasons, for instance, the problems that stem from instruction, socio-economy and institutions, e.g. poorly planned curricula (Kızıldağ, 2009), unsustainable

coursebook development and curriculum implementations (Çetintaş, 2010) and the failure to integrate technology into EFL classes (Aydın, 2013). It is evident from these results that even though "lots of decisions have been made, new methods and approaches have been implemented, many course books and curriculum revised through trial and error in teaching and learning English language in Turkey", as put by Solak and Bayar (2015), "it has not been possible to reach the desired objectives in the field" (pp. 106-107). For this particular reason, this study aims to answer the following research question: To what extent can practitioners (teachers) translate curricular objectives into practices, in other words, how convergent and divergent are the stated objectives and classroom realities across Turkish schools?. Since much of the previous research reported findings obtained through perceptual or opinion-based interviews and questionnaires, they have remained rather context-dependent and could not offer unique and wider explanations. In this study, a broader and a narrower picture of language teaching practices across Turkey and in a particular city will be painted against the curricular objectives stated in the high school ELF curriculum with the use of small scale primary and large scale secondary data as shall be explained in the following section.

4. Exploring Curricular Objectives and Classroom Practices

The research design of this study is grounded in the qualitative case study approach in which the major purpose is to explore the high school EFL curriculum statements with first-hand data against a larger data set of secondary research into the present status of English language teaching at the state sector with the observations of 80 classes at secondary and high schools levels at 48 schools across 12 cities (Özen et al., 2013). The primary research rests on the observations of 20 EFL teachers at all levels of education in a small province in southwestern Turkey. The observational data on teachers' practices are matched with the curricular objectives in the high school EFL curriculum (MoNE, 2018).
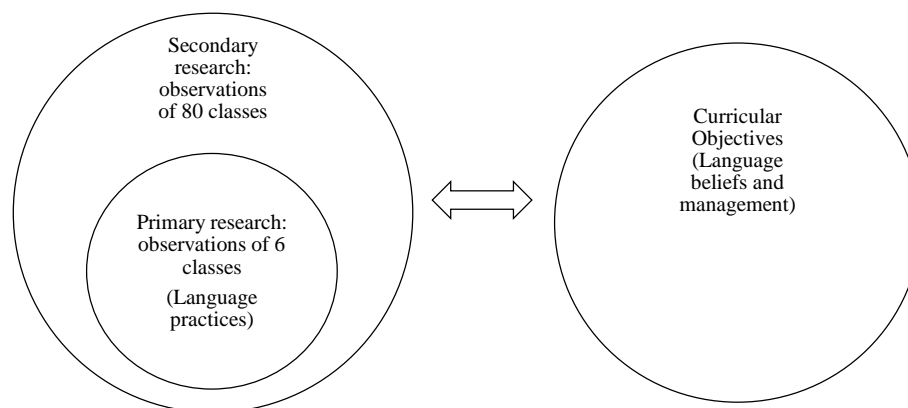

Figure 3: Spolsky's language policy framework mapped on data sources

The mixture of secondary and primary research methods was a practical decision to gain deeper insights into the research interest, i.e. the local and nationwide implementations of the curricular objectives in Turkey. To analyse the documentary and observational data, qualitative content analysis (Schreier, 2012) and negative analysis (Pauwels, 2012) were utilized in combination so that both the covert and overt statements can be disclosed and compared against the curricular objectives. The data analysis procedures underwent four stages: "finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesising data contained in

documents" (Bowen, 2009, p. 28). The primary and secondary research data were carefully read and categorized into themes in line with the multiple readings of the high school EFL curriculum.

5. Convergences and Divergences between Curricular Objectives and Practices

In the presentation of the findings, a thematic approach is adopted according to the categories that emerged from the analysis of the secondary and primary data and documentary analysis. The following areas regarding curricular objectives and practices were determined at the end of the coding process: Approaches to language teaching, teaching language skills, error correction, classroom interaction, suggested materials and assessment and examinations.

5.1. Approaches to Language Teaching

To unearth what approaches and methods are mentioned among the curricular objectives in the high school EFL curriculum, a keyword search technique was utilised throughout the curriculum and it was found that as noted below, the curriculum (MoNE, 2018) appears to support a communicative approach to teaching English in classes.

> The new 9 -12 Grades English Curriculum was designed to take all aspects of communicative competence into consideration in English classes by addressing functions and four skills of language in an integrated way and focusing on "How" and "Why?" in language rather than merely on "What?" (p.5)

To further strengthen their stance on the implementation of the communicative approach, it is stated in the curriculum that activities that might foster students' communicative competence, interactional skills and learning autonomy should be part of teaching practices.

> … students are encouraged to be involved in task-based, collaborative, and project-based language activities that would empower learners by increasing their self-esteem, autonomy, and language skills (p. 6)

However, a closer inspection of the primary data and secondary data demonstrates that teaching practices are largely guided by the conventional approaches and methods which fail to address the communicative dimension of the language teaching process. The following extracts from the secondary data (British Council and TEPAV report by Özen et al., 2013) evidence these inferences about overall teacher practices at state schools in Turkey.

> In all classes observed, students fail to learn how to communicate and function independently in English (p.16)

> Almost all classrooms observed had a furnishing/layout where students sit together, in pairs on bench seats. However, teachers fail to use this seating arrangement to organise students into pairs and groups for independent, communicative language practice in everyday classroom contexts. This was identified as the third factor regarding the failure of Turkish students to speak/understand English. (pp. 16-17).

The first-hand classroom observations also support these generic practices at the micro-level in the observed classes in which teachers did not allocate enough talk time to their students by adopting a fairly teacher-fronted teaching and deductive approach with particular emphasis on the acquisition of vocabulary and grammatical items. The following observation report summarises the normative practices of such a teacher.
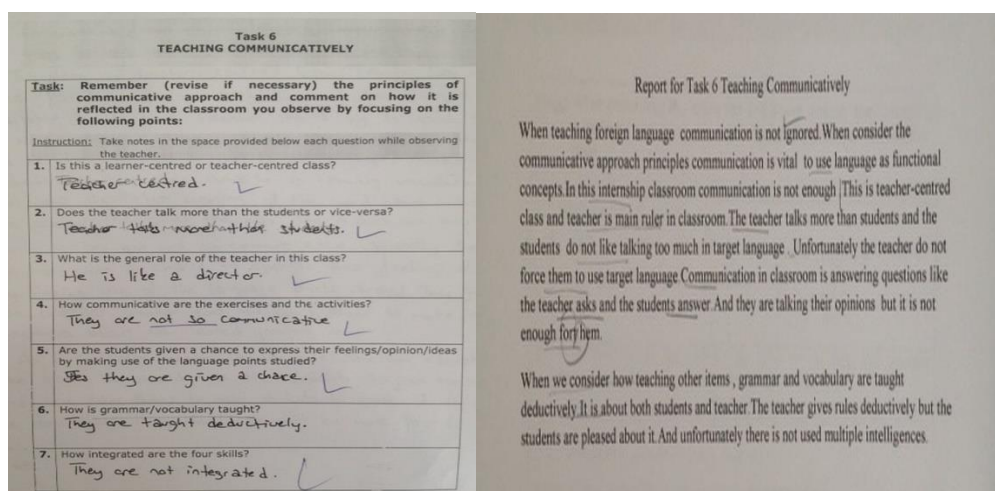
Figure 4: Observation notes on teaching communicatively

5.2. Teaching Language Skills

In connection with the teaching approaches, another theme that appeared frequently in the EFL curriculum was about statements on how to teach certain language skills at different levels. Supporting the previous objectives related to communitive language teaching, the integration of skill-based teaching, primarily speaking and listening, is prioritised for communicative purposes over teaching linguistic structures of English. It also seems that vocabulary teaching is desired to have a communication focus rather than traditional conventions of teaching a list of words in isolation. Some of these curricular objectives stand in the curriculum as follows (MoNE, 2018):

> In the integration of the four skills, an emphasis is given to speaking and listening skills to enable learners to practice communication and real-life use of language (p. 13)
>
> …limited focus on language structures as well as some focus on explicit pronunciation are included in each unit (p. 13)
>
> Special focus on sample vocabulary items are not given in the 9th-12th grades English curriculum to avoid the use of long word lists isolated from real-life use contexts… (p. 13)

However, the findings from the secondary and primary research point to the divide between the policy statements and classroom practices as most teachers were reported to heavily rely on teaching grammatical points at the expense of functional and useful speaking or listening skills. Similarly, in contrast to curricular objectives, while teaching vocabulary, almost all teachers were observed to make use of

> the de-contextualised lists of vocabulary and grammar structures in students' notebook – the bare walls of almost every classroom, reflect the fact that the learning of English as a (personal) tool of communication is not taking place across Turkey in Government Schools" (Özen et al., p. 74).

Similar observations were recorded in relation to the heavy emphasis on teaching grammar in the observational data.

> … they [students] are repeatedly learning about the same selection of grammar points each year without making progress in functional/useful speaking or listening skills (Özen et al., 2013, p. 57)
>
> …all teachers observed teach about English (and most were observed talking for more than 90% of class time), there were few identifiable useful 'outcomes' in terms of students speaking/listening in

any of the lessons observed … instead of 'using' English, students are completing de-personalised exercises 'about English' in a textbook or on the board (Özen et al., 2013, p. 73)

5.3. Error Correction

The curriculum provides almost no curricular objectives and information concerning error correction practices. However, a few suggestions are offered to teachers as to how they should act against student mistakes and what techniques to apply in order to channelize students' attention to correct language use. One of the recommendations for teachers about error correction in the curriculum (MoNE, 2018) suggests that teachers

overlook students' mistakes or slips of the tongue during speaking activities and model the correct use of language instead or take notes to work on the mistakes later on as a whole class without referring to students' identities (p. 10).

It becomes evident from the above explanation that there is no explicit and immediate error correction on form, especially when students are engaged in speaking tasks. However, the form-focused error correction seems to be also favoured as teachers are advised to jot down the errors to be later corrected by themselves through modelling. It can be concluded based on these policy statements that both form-oriented and meaning-oriented error correction techniques are deemed appropriate for classroom practices. These curricular objectives on error correction seem to be actualized by most teachers in classroom practices. The following observations on teachers' error correction indicate the match between curricular objectives and classroom practices (Özen et al., 2013).

Errors are 'marked down' or formally corrected (p. 72).

Teacher allows 'errors', only correcting them as a whole class activity at end of the exercise (p. 76).

However, the observational data from the primary research show that teachers tend to give much weight to form-oriented error correction although enough wait time is given to students. One of the observation forms demonstrates a teacher's error correction practices as follows:

Figure 5: Observation notes on error correction practices

It is also reported that there was no consistency among teachers in terms of their error correction techniques. Unlike the observation reported above, some teachers were reported to ignore the errors with a 'let it go' principle, especially in speaking exercises, without taking any measures to correct the errors committed, as shown in the following extract.
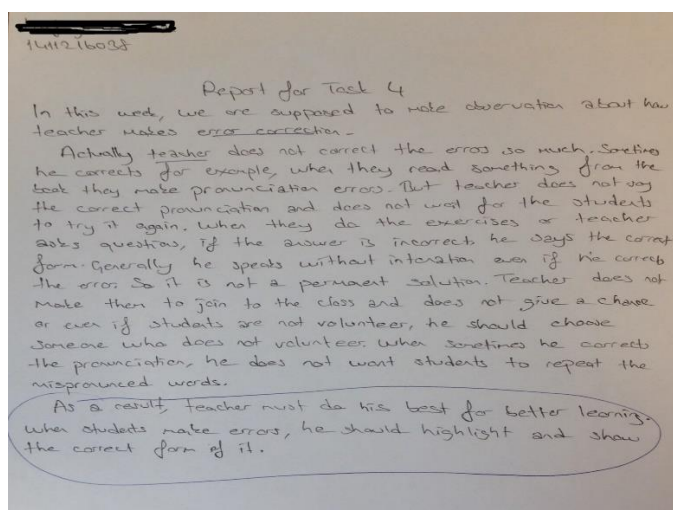
Figure 6: Field notes on error correction practices

5.4. Classroom Interaction

In accordance with the curricular objectives towards teaching English for communicative purposes with functional language use, teachers are recommended to make use of activities and tasks that foster interactive language use among students. For students, the expectation is set to make them use English as much as possible in classes so that they can get maximum exposure to the language. The expectations on teachers' and students' classroom interaction stand as follows in the curriculum (MoNE, 2018):

> **Teachers…**
>
> use a variety of interaction types (individual work, pair work, group work, whole class) during the lessons.
>
> **Students…**
>
> communicate in English in the classroom at all times.
>
> are active participants who also provide input to each other during communicative activities (p. 10)

Nevertheless, the report on teacher observations across 80 schools displays a different case where most teachers were reported not to benefit from the seating arrangements in a communicative manner in their classes. This reality is considered to be among the main failures of the teachers to foster students' speaking competence. The extracts highlighting these issues are given below:

> Almost all classrooms observed had a furnishing/layout where students sit together, in pairs on bench seats. However, teachers fail to use this seating arrangement to organise students into pairs and groups for independent, communicative language practice in everyday classroom contexts. ..This was identified as the third factor regarding the failure of Turkish students to speak/understand English (Özen et al., 2013, p. 53)

The primary research findings backed the findings of the larger scale of observations on teacher practices in that many teachers adopted teacher-fronted teaching and students were not satisfactorily active and responsible for their learning. The following observation report summarizes the typical classroom interaction patterns in the classes observed in the small province.
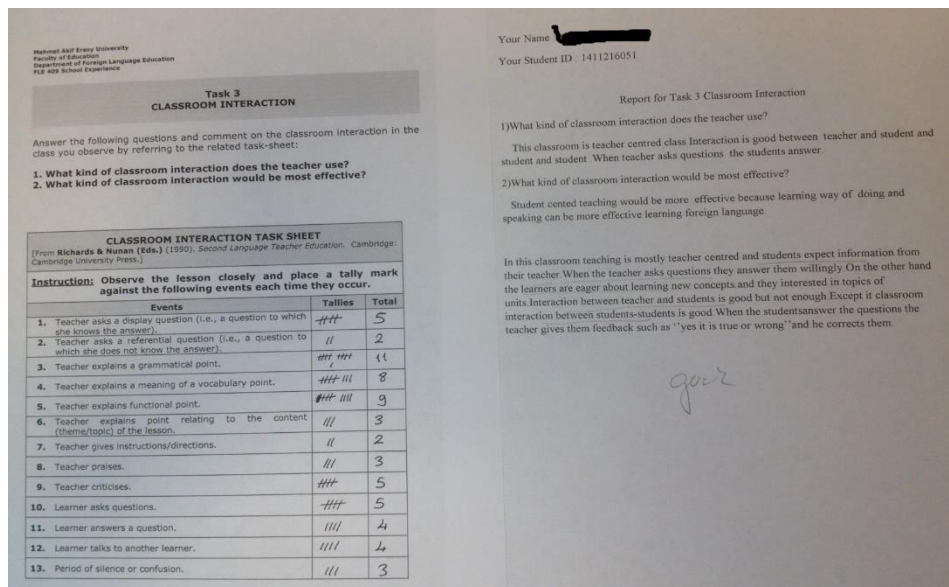
Figure 7: Field notes on classroom interaction practices

In terms of the interactional events in classes, teachers were inclined towards explaining the form and function-related issues as well as vocabulary items with a high number of different types of questions. However, there is no mention of whether the interaction occurred in English at all times or in the form of switches between English and Turkish.

5.5. Suggested Materials

As noted earlier with reference to the approach to language teaching with an emphasis on taking language as a means of communication rather than a mere school subject, the curriculum suggests the use of realia, i.e. real-life objects which have not been created for language teaching purposes in the first place, the presentation of materials via online and offline tools with the combination of diverse content forms, such as audio, images, texts, animations and video. In this regard, the following statement takes place in the curriculum (MoNE, 2018).

> Use of authentic materials is strongly recommended in all grades. In addition, most materials given can be presented both online or offline. Some materials can also be both presented with multimedia and in print (p. 23)

Unlike what is considered ideal for classroom practices, the observational data on teachers' practices as to the use of materials draw a fairly different picture as most teachers did not benefit from multimedia tools to a satisfactory level with the use of course books as the main teaching resource followed by smartboards. Nevertheless, the use of smartboards was not in line with the curricular objectives since these tools often reflect the overall content of the coursebooks in a digital format through transferring content into PowerPoint slides. The

following figure from the British Council and TEPAV report display the amount of time spent on the use of various resources during a typical class week (Özen et al., 2013).
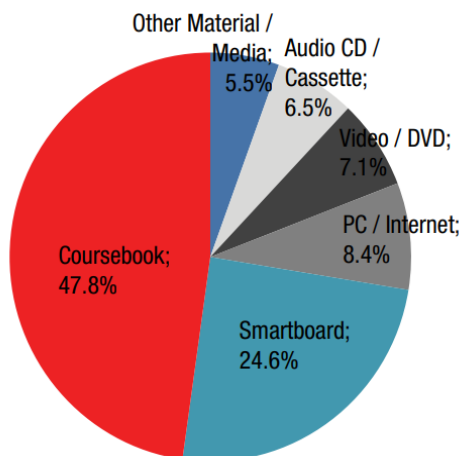
Figure 8: Field notes on the materials used by teachers

From the task analysis observation notes, it also became evident that as was the case with most teachers across Turkey, the teachers in the local context were reported to largely draw on textbooks as the major teaching aid and did not benefit from authentic or teacher-made materials.
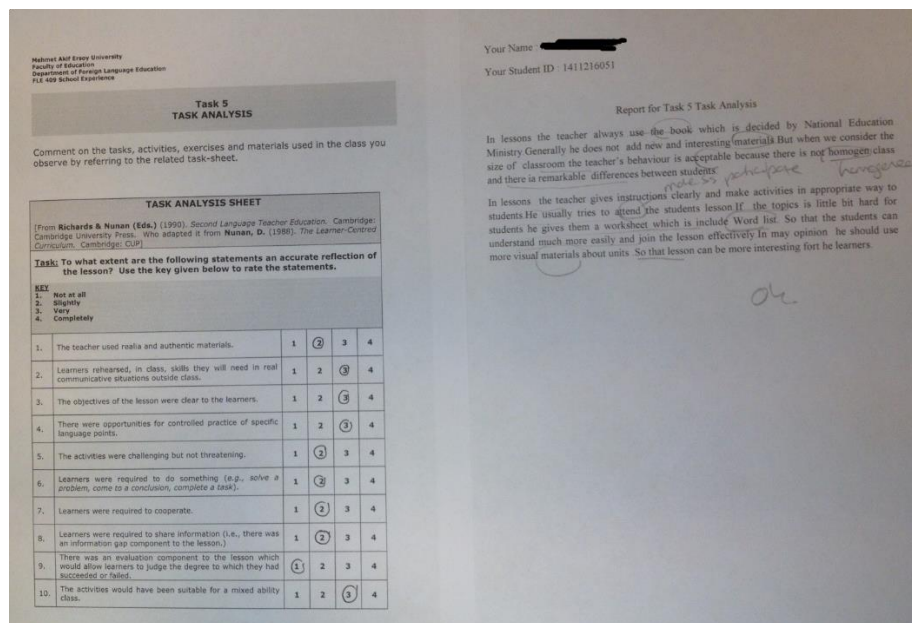
Figure 9: Field notes on the tasks conducted in classes

From the field notes, one can notice the teachers' failure to use challenging but non-threatening activities, performance-oriented and cooperative tasks as well as real-life objects that are in the immediate world of the students. Further to these observations, it became apparent that there was no component in teachers' practices for improving students' self-assessment skills

5.6. Assessment and Examinations

The examination of the content of curricular objectives relating to assessment and examinations points out that teachers are anticipated to utilize diverse assessment tools, ranging from traditional techniques to electronic ones. Again, in keeping with the communicative approach adopted in the curriculum, the curriculum wants teachers to shape their assessment practices communicatively so that the focus of assessment could be student performance in different skills. The curricular statements (MoNE, 2018) regarding assessment and examinations are given below:

> The assessment in the 9th - 12th Grade English Curriculum is also a mixture of alternative, traditional, and electronic assessment types.

> …is strongly recommended that the emphasis is given to designing communicative assessment tasks and assessing the production of language in the implementation of the curriculum. Since the 9th-12th English program is mainly function and skills-based, it is important to assess learner performances via assessment tasks geared towards evaluating integrated skills (p. 11)

As opposed to the employment of communicative assessment practices in class, as observed in teacher practices, modern assessment tools, such as portfolios and peer assessment, were not preferred much by teachers while assessing students. The examinations appeared fairly form-focused rather than being communication-oriented. One observation in this regard shows that

> there was no evidence of continuous assessment, portfolios, self/peer assessment in any school visited. Instead, formal grammar-based exams drive the teaching and learning process from primary age range onwards' (p. 57)

To double-check this reality, some of the previous examination documents were requested from the teachers. The tests teachers prepared to measure students' English skills were observed to heavily rest upon measuring students' grammatical knowledge and vocabulary knowledge at the expense of assessing their language progress in a communicative fashion. Below are a couple of tests used by teachers at secondary and high schools.
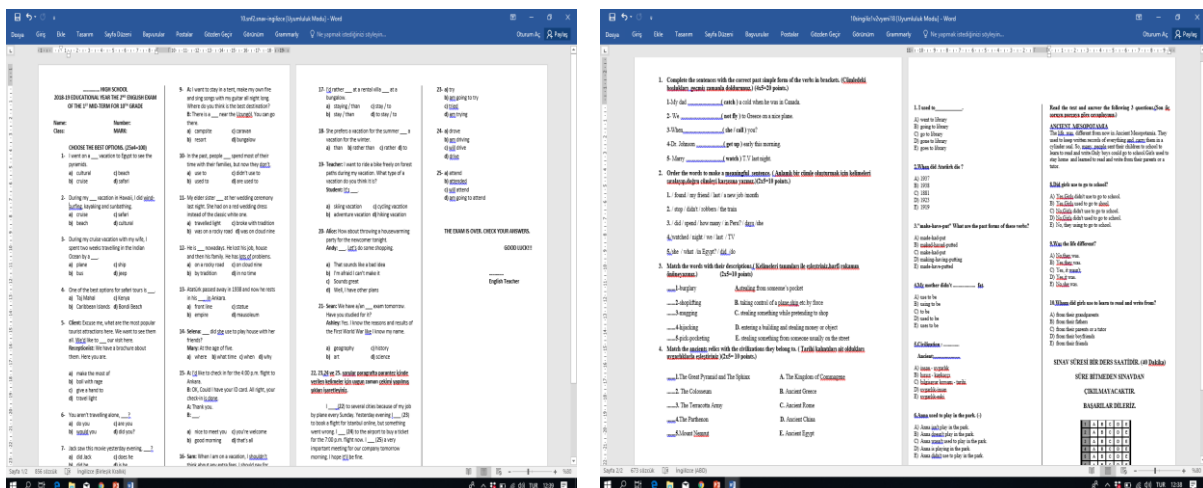
Figure 10: Sample tests administered to assess students

As is seen above, the tests are of multiple choice type, thereby limiting students' contribution to the assessment tools as the thing they are supposed to do is to mark the correct option.

AVOWED OBJECTIVES IN ELT CURRICULUM VERSUS GROUND REALITIES IN CLASSROOMS:
HOW CONVERGENT ARE THEY?

However, such types of assessments do not enable students to exhibit their writing competence and reading comprehension, let alone using language for communicative purposes. It may be said that the curricular objectives for teaching English to students through a communicative approach and its principles cannot be achieved through such grammar-based tests that do not let students display their true linguistic performance.

6. Conclusion

This chapter attempted to exhibit the extent to which curricular objectives in English language teaching are transferred to actual practices in classrooms. Confirming Shahomy's (2006) argument that real policies cannot be derived from the explicit policy statements on the white papers and the divide between designated objectives in the documents and how they are actualized in practice is very probable, the findings of this qualitative research pointed to the wide gap between Turkish high school EFL teachers' teaching practices and the curricular objectives. Thus, it can be safely noted that current EFL practices in Turkey are far cry from meeting the objectives of English language teaching as stated in the curriculum. There may be several reasons lying behind the failure of achieving curricular objectives, such as problems originating from teachers' teacher training, inadequate institutional resources and support, shortage of qualified language teachers, as discussed in the literature (e.g. Çetintaş, 2010; Elgün & Yağcı, 2021; Erarslan, 2018, 2019; Kırkgöz, 2008; Kızıldağ, 2009; Yolcu & Dimici, 2021).

Another reason that has not been cited much in previous studies is the teachers' lack of knowledge about the curricular expectations related to their practices. Therefore, teachers must gain awareness about the EFL curriculum they abound to implement in the teacher education programs. In this regard, a step in the right direction seems to be taken by the Council of Higher Education's 2018 English language teacher education program (ELTEP), which has a field-specific course whose objectives are set as follows in the course description.

İngilizce Öğretim Programları

Öğretim programlarıyla ilgili temel kavramlar; İngilizce dersi öğretim programlarının geçmişten günümüze gelişimi; güncel İngilizce dersi öğretim programının yaklaşımı, içeriği, geliştirmeyi amaçladığı beceriler; öğrenme ve alt öğrenme alanları; kazanımların sınıflara göre dağılımı ve sınırları, diğer derslerle ilişkisi; kademler arasındaki İngilizce dersi öğretim programlarının ilişkisi; kullanılan yöntem, teknik, araç-gereç ve materyaller; ölçme değerlendirme yaklaşımı; öğretmen yeterlilikleri.

Figure 11: Language teacher education course on ELT curricula

This course aims to familiarize student teachers with the relevant notions of curriculum and curriculum planning, the historical trajectory of curriculum development, the content, approach, objectives, philosophies of the current EFL curricular in practice at schools. Additionally, student teachers can gain insights into the differences as to learning gains across different levels of education as well as assessment tools, teaching resources and teacher competencies.

It is likely that teachers are externally bounded by certain factors that are beyond their capacity while endeavouring to implement curricular objectives, especially in terms of

running communication-oriented classes as expected in the curriculum. Research has shown that some of the challenges teachers have faced in their attempts to implement the principles of communicative approach generally stem from overcrowded classes, poorly trained teachers, shortage of communication-oriented teaching resources (Jarvis & Atsilarat, 2004), unmotivated students and teachers to switch from traditional approaches to communicative ones as well as administrative and contextual factors (Sarıçoban & Tılfarlıoğlu, 1999). Not surprisingly, other external barriers to accomplish curricular objectives on teaching English for communicative and functional purposes include grammar-based in-class and national examinations, students' low level of English proficiency and limited class hours (Anderson, 1993; Karakaş, 2013).

Above all, Turkish EFL teachers are under strong pressure to 'finish the textbook' on time often with an approach to teaching English as a subject rather than as a vehicle of communication (Yan, 2012). Such perceived pressure on the shoulders of Turkish EFL teachers somehow drives teachers to take the easy way out by running grammar-focused classes, which are relatively easier and quicker in terms of assessment compared to assessment of communicative competence via alternative and contemporary assessment tools (Özen et al., 2013). However, certain measures can be taken at the micro and macro levels to overcome these challenges by teachers in their classes. From a macro level initiative, a change from top-down policymaking to bottom-up policymaking might help policymakers set realistic and achievable objectives. For this to happen, it is essential to include practitioners, i.e. EFL teachers, in the decision-making process as they experience first-hand what works and does not work in classes better than anyone else.

Similarly crucial is the need to reform the current teacher education program in accordance with the curricular objectives with a more emphasis on the practical side of teacher education. In this respect, it is apt that the 2018 ELTEP has an elective course, i.e. *Microteaching*, where the aim is to perk up student teachers' practical skills and transfer their theoretical knowledge into practices with the help of an experienced guide, e.g. often a teacher educator or/and an experienced teacher of English. Added to this, the MoNE should organise in-service teacher training programs to facilitate teachers' implementation of communicative approach in classes with little reliance on textbooks and improve their assessment and materials design skills. Part of these training programs might also strive for increasing teacher autonomy so that teachers become less textbook-dependent and grammar-oriented in their approaches to teaching English. It appears highly probable that the gap between curricular objectives in the policy papers and classroom realities can be narrowed through such measures even if it may not seem feasible in the very short future.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COMPETENCIES

Mehmet BARDAKÇI
İhsan ÜNALDI

1. Introduction

Teachers are unequivocally the most important influencers of society since they shape the lives of children, and thus our future. In addition to this, teacher training is also the most important part of any education system. Teachers should be equipped with the knowledge and skills to embrace new systems and methods according to the changing circumstances and needs of society. In our era, with the advances of technology, everything changes rapidly, and new methods or tools for education are invented. Furthermore, every educational context is unique in its own way, and accordingly, educational contexts need to be analyzed and evaluated in their own dynamics. In this chapter, we dwell on some common issues about teacher competencies in general while trying not to ignore the Turkish language teacher education context in specific.

In the Turkish higher education context, the content and training programs that should be implemented in teacher training institutions are among ongoing discussions. The necessary qualifications were put into a framework called 'General Teacher Competencies' by the Ministry of National Education in 2017. In this framework, for some fields, including English language teaching, field-specific teacher competencies were also specified.

In 2021, the Council of Higher Education, with an aim to partially transfer its authority, decided that faculties training teachers would locally determine their own programs; following this, the discussions on teacher competencies came to the fore again. It seems inevitable for the curriculum developed any year to be criticized in the following years, just as the curricula of the past are criticized today. It is obviously unacceptable for institutions directing education to get into such deadlocks and waste of time. It seems reasonable that instead of a fixed curriculum to be changed again and again in the future, a curriculum that is flexible and adaptable to new situations and based on principles rather than fixed competencies should be designed.

2. Teacher competencies

Giving a comprehensible definition of a good teacher is almost impossible; however, we will try to present it by basing on the relevant literature and discussions.

Globally speaking, we have been experiencing unnecessarily rapid changes in every aspect of our lives. These changes are sometimes implemented instantly and can be observed in the immediate material world; our cell phones, cars, televisions, and houses are updated and change before our eyes. The first industrial revolution was possible because of machines; the second revolution was led by electricity; the third one was digitally oriented because of the widespread use of the Internet; and Industry 4.0, as the name suggests, is a software-driven paradigm (Lasi et al., 2014). However, when it comes to matters that are directly related to individuals and society, it takes a while to realize these changes. Naturally, education, which is one of these topics, cannot be isolated from the changes in the immediate material world.

As Hussin (2018, p. 92) suggests, "The IR 4.0 affects not only the business, governance and the people, it also affects education as well; thus the name Education 4.0 came to existence".

Education 4.0 is obviously an analogy and a response to Industry 4.0, where an alignment between humans and technology is sought to enable new possibilities (Hussin, 2018). As the analogy goes, classrooms full of students with teachers as the authoritative figures can be called the first version of education. In these traditional teacher-centered settings, interactions were generally one-way, and individual existence was somehow ignored. Generations were educated this way, and it was the norm until modern technology showed up. The basic use of technology in educational settings can be regarded as the second version of education. Photocopy machines, televisions, and videotapes can be regarded in this version of education. When the Internet appeared in the 1980s, the world started to become a smaller place with people communicating with each other 24/7. An information-technology-driven approach to education emerged, and all around the world, people found personalized ways to socialize and learn; the educational setting that appeared during this period can be regarded as the third version of education. These days, a newer version, Education 4.0, is a topic of discussion. This version of education is deeply interrelated with artificial intelligence and related technologies, and as Peters (2017) suggests, to adjust to the Industrial Revolution 4.0, education must become an open ecosystem by utilizing new technology.

Although some people naively believe that technology will replace teachers soon, a more realistic vision tells us that teachers who use technology will replace teachers who cannot (Clifford, 1987). At this point, it is quite obvious that the biggest load of Education 4.0 will be on teachers' shoulders. Teachers' roles and their professional identity are very likely to go through deep changes, and teacher education programs must be the first place to start adopting these possible changes. Teacher education programs train teachers based on target teacher competencies, and it would be safe to assume that teacher competencies are an important part of all types of planning and adapting that are related to education. However, as Kress (2000) suggests, "the previous era had required an education for stability, the coming era requires an education for instability" (p. 133).

The term 'teacher competencies' seems to be easy to explain and understand, but actually, it is quite a challenging task to talk about it. First of all, teaching competence and teacher competencies should be regarded as two related but different concepts. Teaching competence can be regarded as the general skill that that one individual possesses, and competencies are sub-skills that one needs to teach effectively. These competencies can be taught, and teacher candidates can be trained to practice them.

Teacher competencies as a term originated from behavioral psychology and started to be regarded as a set of theory-free, practical teaching skills after the late 1960s (Pantić & Wubbels, 2010). From this perspective, teacher trainees were supposed to watch the 'master' teacher and, in time, they would become masters themselves. Of course, this type of teacher training is open to criticism, and its validity to form a basis for higher education curriculum has been debated (Barnett, 1994; Korthagen, 2004). Barnett (1994) suggested that higher education should not be regarded as a matter of developing competencies for a specific occupation, and to him, competencies are predictable behaviors that require predictable

situations. However, teaching in this age cannot be reduced to applying certain teaching techniques in certain situations. Although "there are elements of teacher knowledge that are shared by all teachers or large groups of teachers" (Verloop et al., 2001, p. 441), teaching is highly context-bound, and it requires an understanding of the dynamics of the specific educational context. For quite a long time, a mechanistic view of teaching was the dominant paradigm, and its complexity was ignored (Doyle, 1990; Shulman, 1987). However, after criticisms coming from various circles, including teachers themselves, researchers shifted their attention from observable teacher behaviors to the cognition and beliefs of the teachers (Verloop et al., 2001). On the other hand, it is almost common sense to believe that theoretical principles and teacher expertise should play equally important roles in teacher education (see the first discussions in Shulman, 1987; Stones, 1994).

In discussions about teacher competencies, the distinctions between content and pedagogical content knowledge frequently appear. Content knowledge is basically teachers' knowledge of the subject matter that they are teaching. Obviously, content knowledge plays an important role in effective teaching. For example, a language teacher's content knowledge will help them understand learners' problems about the target language better, and in turn, leading to better decisions about constructing learning activities. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), on the other hand, is based on the idea that teaching is much more than just delivering the contents of the subject matter, and learning is much more than just absorbing information coming from the teacher. As Loughran et al. (2012) suggest, "PCK is the knowledge that teachers develop over time, and through experience, about how to teach particular content in particular ways in order to lead to enhanced student understanding" (p. 7). In other words, content knowledge is mostly related to the 'whats' of teaching, and pedagogical knowledge is related to the 'hows' of teaching. However, these two categories are only two of the teacher knowledge, and as the related literature suggests, there are other types of knowledge that teachers are supposed to possess. In his seminal work, Shulman (1987, p. 8) summarized the categories of the knowledge base for teachers as follows:

- Content knowledge
- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as 'tools of the trade' for teachers;
- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding;
- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics;
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures;
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

As was mentioned previously, the integration of new technologies into the domain of education affects teachers first and mostly; therefore, gaining new knowledge and skills that are highly related to technology seems to be inevitable for teachers. Mishra and Koehler (2006) stated that "thoughtful pedagogical uses of technology require the development of a complex, situated form of knowledge" (p. 1017) and called this type of knowledge as Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK or TPACK).

In the Turkish educational context, professional requirements for teachers are outlined and specified by the Ministry of National Education (MEB). The first project in Turkey to clearly define and officialize teacher competencies was launched by the partnership of MEB, the Council of Higher Education (YÖK), and the World Bank in 1998 (MEB, 2017). The study yielded four types of teacher competencies as (1) content-specific competencies, (2) competencies related to teaching and learning, (3) competencies related to testing and assessment, and (4) complementary professional competencies. It is obvious that MEB has been trying to standardize teacher competencies to be used in determining teacher training policies, in-service training of teachers, assessment of teacher performances, and continuing professional development for teachers (MEB, 2006).

In addition to this, the Turkish Education Association (2009) came up with the following skills and competencies that teachers should have:

- Knowledge of the curriculum and subject area

- Planning and implementation of learning activities

- Testing and assessment

- Managing the teaching process and student behavior

- Adapting teaching according to students' needs

- Using information technologies effectively

- Enabling effective communication in the teaching-learning environment

- Planning and realization of individual and professional development

- Collaboratively work with other teachers, parents, and school staff

- Within the framework of ethics, responsible and critical

It goes without saying that teaching is a profession that needs expertise, and this kind of expertise is only possible through formal training. As the related literature suggests, both theoretical background and master-apprentice relationship are necessary for effective teacher training. Another important point is that every teaching subject has its own characteristics and dynamics; therefore, it makes sense to analyze and discuss teacher training in every subject individually.

3. Distinctive characteristics of Foreign Language Teachers

Studies on language teachers' cognition (e.g., Borg, 1999, 2006b; Borg & Sanchez, 2020; Çimen & Daloğlu, 2019; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Woods, 1996); language teacher identity (Arpacı & Bardakçı, 2016; Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; Friesen & Besley, 2013; Tütüniş,

2012); perceptions about good/effective language teachers (Brown, 1978; Chang, 2016; Dinçer et al., 2013; Kılıç, 2020; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Mohammaditabar et al., 2019; Önal & Alagözlü, 2018; Shulman, 1987; Stones, 1994; Tajeddin & Griffiths, 2020) in different contexts have yielded that teaching a foreign language is different from teaching any other subject in terms of content, methodology, and interaction between students and teachers.

Borg (2006a), referring to the related literature, lists five proposed aspects that distinguish language teachers from the teachers of other subjects as (1) the nature of the subject matter itself, (2) the interaction patterns necessary to provide instruction, (3) the challenge for teachers of increasing their knowledge of the subject, (4) isolation, (5) the need for outside support for learning the subject. However, he claims that there has not been any empirical support for those features. Borg (2006a) carried out a qualitative, in-depth study with language teachers, conference delegates, Hungarian pre-service teachers, Slovene undergraduates in English, and subject specialists such as chemistry, mathematics, science, and history. He purposefully included subject specialists to get different perspectives, and he summarized the distinctive characteristics of language teachers as in the following table:

Table 1: Distinctive Characteristics of Language Teachers (Borg, 2006a, p. 24)

Theme	Distinctiveness
The nature of the subject	Language is more dynamic than other subjects and has more practical relevance to real life. Unique in scope and complexity.
The content of teaching	Teaching a language extends beyond teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills and includes a wide range of other issues such as culture, communication skills and learning skills.
Methodology	The methodology of language teaching is more diverse and aimed at creating contexts for communication and maximizing student involvement.
Teacher–learner relationships	In language teaching there is more communication between teacher and learners and more scope for learners to work on themes which are of personal relevance.
Non-native issues	In language teaching, teachers and learners operate through a language other than their mother tongue. Teachers are also compared to native speakers of the language.
Teachers' characteristics	For language teachers, characteristics such as creativity, flexibility and enthusiasm are essential.
Training	A wide diversity of recognized language teaching qualifications exist, some as short as four weeks in duration.
Status	Language and language teachers are often awarded lower status than subjects and teachers of other languages.
Errors	Incorrect output by language learners is more acceptable than in other subjects.
Student Body	Many more adults study languages than other subjects.
Commercialization	Language teaching is driven by commercial forces more than other subjects.

As can be seen from the summary, quite a few aspects, such as the nature, content, methodology interactions, and so forth, have already been mentioned in the related literature.

4. Foreign Language Teachers' Competencies

When it comes to specific competencies that a language teacher should possess, we can say that content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge would not be enough. Jack Richards, who is an outstanding figure in the field of foreign language teaching, published an article titled 'Competence and Performance in Language Teaching' in 2010. In this article, he first examines foreign language teacher competencies under ten main categories and then analyzes them one by one. Richards (2010), considering the relevant studies, specifies main foreign language teachers' competencies as:

1) The language proficiency factor
2) The role of content knowledge
3) Teaching skills
4) Contextual knowledge
5) The language teacher's identity
6) Learner-focused teaching
7) Pedagogical reasoning skills
8) Theorizing from practice
9) Membership of a community of practice
10) Professionalism

The language proficiency factor: Quoting Canagarajah (1999), Richards (2010) states that most of the language teachers all around the world, especially teachers of English, are not native speakers. Talking about his own observations, he mentions that he has seen non-native teachers doing wonders in the classroom and native speakers sometimes causing disasters in their language classrooms. According to him, this means that in order to teach English well, teachers do not need to have a native-like command of English. Richards (2010, p. 103) lists the language-specific competencies that a teacher should have as follows:

a) To understand the texts written in the target language.
b) To be a good model.
c) To be able to use the target language throughout the lesson.
d) To be able to use the target language fluently.
e) To be able to give instructions and explanations in the target language.
f) To be able to exemplify new vocabulary and grammar points and provide accurate explanations.
g) To be able to use appropriate classroom language.
h) To be able to select appropriate resources and materials for language classrooms (for instance, newspapers, magazines, websites).
i) To be able to monitor their accurate use of language.
j) To be able to give feedback at the right time according to the activity at hand.
k) To be able to provide input at students' level.
l) To be able to give students opportunities to experience and enrich their language.

The role of content knowledge: This aspect includes discussions about what and how much language teachers should know about the target language. Pedagogical content knowledge emerges from the study of language teaching and learning, and it includes teaching language

skills, planning, evaluation, material design, teaching different groups (children, teenagers, or adults), and classroom management. This knowledge also includes language learning theories, language analyses, and language teaching methodologies. Richards (2010, pp. 105-106) points out that pedagogical content knowledge should prepare teachers to be able to:

a) Understand the need of students.
b) Detect students' problems in learning.
c) Plan appropriate goals and objectives for language lessons.
d) Select and design appropriate learning activities/tasks.
e) Evaluate learning process.
f) Design and adapt tests.
g) Evaluate and select materials.
h) Adapt already published materials.
i) Use authentic materials.
j) Use technology to improve learning.
k) Evaluate and reflect on their own practices.

Teaching skills: This dimension of teacher competencies is generally related to teaching competencies and performance. It includes general teaching techniques and routines. Foreign language teacher training involves uncovering a collection of teaching skills acquired through practical teaching in a controlled environment and often using activities such as microteaching or peer teaching or by observing experienced teachers' practices. In this dimension of foreign language teacher training, the following skills should be considered:

a) Opening the lesson.
b) Introducing and explaining the tasks and activities.
c) Organizing learning.
d) Comprehension check.
e) Guiding students.
f) Checking students' language.
g) Transition between tasks.
h) Ending the lesson.

A foreign language teacher acquires a repertoire of basic teaching skills by experiencing different types of learners in different situations and by teaching different content. It could be argued that over time, experience leads to the development of routines that enable such skills to be performed fluently, automatically, and with less conscious thought and attention, and to focus the teacher's attention on other aspects of the lesson (Borg, 2006b; Tsui, 2009). Thus, learning to teach can be thought of as mastering certain teaching competencies; they also reflect complex levels of thinking and decision making, and these are cognitive processes that should be the focus of teacher education.

When considered as a cognitive process of a teacher, teaching is not just the application of knowledge and learned skills. The cognitive process of a teacher is a much more complex process that is influenced by classroom context, teacher's general and specific teaching goals, teacher's beliefs and values, students' motivations and reactions to the lesson, and teacher's management of critical situations during the lesson (Richards, 2010).

Contextual knowledge: This dimension is related to the cultural awareness of both the target language and the local context since foreign language teachers might teach in various contexts such as teaching in a different country, teaching at public or private school, and so on. All these contexts have their own cultures. This aspect of teaching is directly linked to the view that sees the language as a social device, which is the sociocultural perspective. Therefore, foreign language teachers, according to their teaching context, should consider the age, socioeconomic status, cultural aspects, and beliefs of students.

The language teacher's identity: Another important competency that a foreign language teacher needs to acquire is language teacher identity, and this includes the roles that the teacher plays during language teaching-learning processes. These roles are not static but dynamic ones that shape teacher's identity during the process. In a foreign language teacher education program, teacher-learner identity is reshaped by having teacher candidates acquire new discourse styles and roles. For this reason, a foreign language teacher education program should not only include language teaching skills and knowledge about teaching but also what it means to be a foreign language teacher.

Learner-focused teaching: Teaching can be seen as a kind of teacher performance only; however, the real objective and duty of a teacher is not to teach or spoon-feed the learner but to make learning easier. Richards (2010) claims that by observing the following parts of a lesson, we can understand whether that lesson is teacher-focused or learner-focused:

- Teacher talking time.
- How much the learners' inputs affect and direct the lesson.
- Whether the teacher is dealing primarily with classroom management, control or order.
- Whether the teacher can apply the lesson plan well.

Pedagogical reasoning skills: For the last decades, studies on teacher education focus on teacher cognition because teachers need to make decisions during the lesson. Thus, Peterson and Treagust (1995) claim that in teacher education programs, pre-service teachers should be given opportunities to develop their pedagogical reasoning skills in order to teach in schools with sound reasoning. These pedagogical reasoning skills include teachers' minds, how they are formed, what they are consisted of, teachers' beliefs, thoughts, and thinking processes, and how all these affect their classroom practices (Richards, 2010). Wilson et al. (1987, as cited in Peterson & Treagust, 1995, p. 292) proposed a six-stage model of pedagogical reasoning:

1. *Comprehension:* Teacher understanding of the ideas to be taught and the educational purposes of the topic/subject.
2. *Transformation:* Comprehended ideas are transformed by the teacher for use in a particular classroom setting. This includes critical interpretation of text materials, identifying ways of representing ideas, selecting appropriate teaching methods, adapting and tailoring ideas to the particular class group.
3. *Instruction:* The act of teaching. This includes organising and managing the class and students, presenting clear explanations, interacting with students, questioning and evaluating.

4. *Evaluation:* This includes both the evaluation of student learning and the teacher's own teaching performance, materials employed, etc.
5. *Reflection:* The review of the events and accomplishments that occurred during the lesson.
6. *New Comprehension:* New understanding of subjects, learners, purposes and pedagogy through the process of teaching.

According to Borg (2006b), the main factor that increases the research on teacher cognition is that teachers play a crucial role in shaping classroom activities by being active decision-makers. When combined with the thoughts in the field of psychology, which have shown that knowledge and beliefs have a strong effect on teachers' practices, we can conclude that understanding teachers' cognition is at the center of understanding teaching processes.

Theorizing from practice: Richards (2010, p. 115) defines theorizing from practice as "the development of a personal system of knowledge, beliefs, and understandings drawn from our practical experience of teaching". To better understand the concept, he makes a distinction between two types of thinking: *application of theory* and *theorizing of practice.* The first one is directly putting the theory into practice after studying any specific method or technique, such as task-based learning, cooperative learning, and communicative teaching, and so on. The latter one is related to our own practices in our context and thinking and reflecting on them to develop hypotheses and explanations. Thus, language teacher training programs should consider this dimension to train teacher candidates about the procedures of theorizing from practice, such as keeping teaching journals and discussions, etc., which are aspects of reflective practice.

Membership of a community of practice: Communities of practice is relatively a new concept although it is an old phenomenon itself and it has recently become popular in many fields, from education to marketing, to improve the performance of the members of a group (Wenger et al., 2002). Wenger et al. (2002) define communities of practice as "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problem, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis".

According to Richards (2010), language teaching is thought to be a private activity that teachers close the doors of their classrooms and do within the limits of classrooms. Nevertheless, by accentuating the importance of community of practice, he claims that this constricted view misses one important point that learning and improvement could be better achieved within groups of teachers having the same or at least similar values, beliefs, goals, and interests. A community of practice has two features:

1. It involves a group of people who have common interests and who relate and interact to achieve shared goals.
2. It focuses on exploring and resolving issues related to the workplace practices that members of the community take part in (Richards, 2010, p. 117).

This community of practice, among foreign language teachers, generally can be seen as collaboration to share what is going on in other classes, to better understand the knowledge and skills, and to make changes when necessary. Besides, teachers benefit from the potentials

that this collaboration might bring. Therefore, teacher education programs should provide theoretical knowledge about how to improve collaboration among language teachers in the field.

Professionalism: Foreign language teaching is not something that anyone who knows the target language can do; it is a profession. This profession requires particular knowledge gained through both academic study and classroom experiences (Richards, 2010). Although there has not been a consensus on the definition of professionalism, researchers point out some common aspects of professionals and professionalism. Pratte and Rury (1991, as cited in Yoğun, 2020), for example, define a professional as a person who shows ideal behaviors, the skills that make them different from others; this could be showing and applying different pedagogical content knowledge in teaching. Furthermore, professionals play active roles in their field, and they seek opportunities to develop themselves.

Leung mentions two dimensions of professionalism (2009, as cited in Richards, 2010). The first can be named as institutional professionalism, which includes the views of the administrative body of the specific context; thus, it can change from country to country. The second dimension is independent professionalism that is directly linked to an individual's beliefs, values, and practices which shape the teaching process through reflection. Reflection is observing and evaluating one's own teaching and planning future practices, and it includes asking questions as:

1. What was the problem or development, exactly?
2. How did you handle it?
3. Why did you handle it the way you did?
4. Would you handle it in the same way again? If not, why
5. Has the incident changed your general view of how to go about the practice of teaching? (e. g. you may have decided in general to be more strict, to use group work less, to ask more questions, etc.) (Wallace, 1991, p.14)

Richards (2010, pp. 119-120) expands these questions as in the following:

1. What kind of teacher am I?
2. What am I trying to achieve for myself and for my learners?
3. What are my strengths and limitations as a language teacher?
4. How do my students and colleagues view me?
5. How and why do I teach the way I do?
6. How have I developed as a teacher since I started teaching?
7. What are the gaps in my knowledge?
8. What role do I play in my school and is my role fulfilling?
9. What is my philosophy of teaching and how does it influence my teaching?
10. What is my relationship with my colleagues and how productive is it?
11. How can I mentor less experienced teachers?

The above questions can be multiplied or even revised according to the teaching context. Moreover, the competencies mentioned by Richards (2010) are not the only ones; as

mentioned before, the changes in any field are so rapid due to advancements in technology and globalization that teacher competencies should be revised regularly, even each year.

5. Conclusion

Any teacher preparation program should take many aspects of teaching and learning process into consideration such as teachers' knowledge, skills, cognition, beliefs and educational, social, cultural factors and even ideological movements (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Kumaravadivelu (2012) claims that these factors are not enough in our era; we need to add global economic trends and global cultural flows as well, and he proposes a modular model that tries to answer some questions for teachers to understand

a) how to build a viable professional, personal, and procedural knowledge base;
b) how to explore learners' needs, motivation, and autonomy;
c) how to recognize their own identities, beliefs and values;
d) how to do the right kind of teaching, theorizing, and dialogizing;
e) how to see their own teaching acts by taking into account learner, teacher, and observer perspectives on classroom events and activities.

(Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 122)
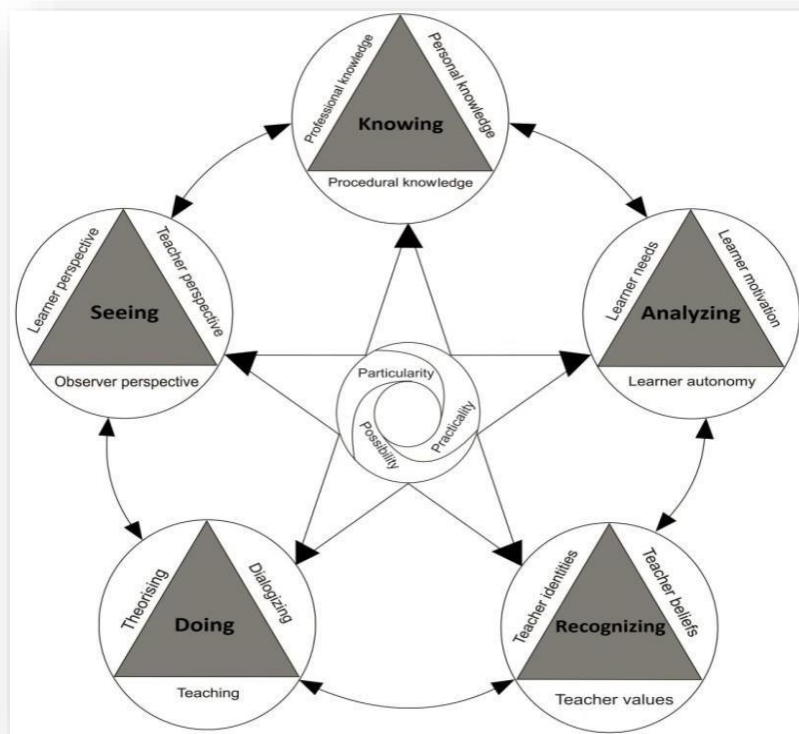
Figure 1: Kumaravadivelu's Proposed Modular Model (2012)

As seen in the Figure 1, the model has five modules: *knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing* and *seeing* (KARDS) and it is a dynamic model and the modules interact with each other. By applying these five modules teachers, teacher educators or curriculum designers might prepare a flexible curriculum and can make necessary changes according to the needs of learners and the requirements of the century.

At this point, it is necessary to remember that teaching as a profession cannot and should not be reduced to crude models. As the related discussions suggest, teaching is a profession with many dimensions. Nevertheless, these models, along with many others, are supposed to help us understand the complex nature of teaching.

The fact that, in terms of language teaching and learning, we can mostly talk about language learning theories but not language teaching theories makes the language teaching profession even more complex. As every teaching context is unique, so is every teacher; and accordingly, reponses to theoretical issues will also change from teacher to teacher.

All in all, second language teacher education programs should be revised with an 'instability rather than stability' paradigm by taking into account the complexity of the teaching profession without ignoring the practical, compentency-related dimensions of teaching, and it looks like the related literature lacks discussions focusing on the intersection of these issues.

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DEFINED COMPETENCIES OF EFL TEACHERS: UNIVERSAL AND LOCAL ASPECTS

Ayfer SU-BERGİL

1. Introduction

Individuals, in this age, where information and communication technologies are developing very rapidly, can easily access information, and therefore, the knowledge and skills possessed today become obsolete or lose their validity in the very near future (Biesta, 2012). These developments also affect and change the characteristics that individuals should have. In a competitive economy, individuals have the competencies to keep up with rapidly changing global conditions. The necessity of having employees with different skills has led all sectors to employ employees with different skills (European Commission, 2012; European Commission, 2013).

In this challenging and competitive environment, sectors seek individuals who can think critically, solve problems, use information and communication technologies effectively and adapt them easily to their professions, speak foreign languages, have high communication skills, work in teamwork and cooperation in addition to who can take initiative, when necessary, constantly improve themselves with up-to-date knowledge and skills, and are open to change and development. However, individuals are not only equipped with the latest knowledge and skills specific to their profession. It is also expected that they will have some general competencies that will enable them to be prepared for the changes and developments (European Communities, 2007).

While all these changes were taking place, education did not stay out of these developments. Competition in economic life also shows itself in the field of education (Paine, 2013). While countries determine their own education policies, they follow the systems of other countries closely and even feel obliged to do so. TIMMS (Trends in International Mathematics and International exams such as Science Study), PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), and PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy) are offered between countries to create a competition and try to compare their education quality with other developed countries in this field and adapt the systems of these leading countries directly to their systems.

In addition to comparing the education systems of countries through international exams, some other factors also lead countries to make radical changes in their education systems. Among the main of these factors are global competition and employability of teachers, stunning advances in technology and informatics sectors, classrooms becoming increasingly multicultural and meeting students' individual interests and needs, accountability, and transparency, and bringing in highly skilled workers into the economy to ensure efficiency (European Commission, 2012; European Commission, 2013).

The changing conditions of the world have also changed the expectations of schools and teachers. In the past, teachers, who were seen as the sole owner of knowledge, were expected to transfer only knowledge, but now they are expected to raise individuals who help their students to access information and construct their knowledge, find their way in the rapidly

changing world and business conditions, in other words, learn to learn and make lifelong learning as their guide (Council of Chief State School Officers 2013; ETUCE, 2008).

In the past, the knowledge and skills of teachers, which could suffice for a lifetime, are no longer sufficient with the rapidly changing socio-economic conditions and the increase and facilitation of the sources of access to information. Teachers are expected to provide their students with skills that can do jobs that have not yet emerged, use technological tools, and solve social problems that may arise in the future. This can be achieved if teachers also have 21st-century skills, so that teachers will be able to raise individuals with enhanced creativity and critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, effective use of technology, adopting democratic values, high civic awareness, and respect for differences. The understanding of education has left its place to a student and learner-centered approach rather than more content or program-oriented one. As a result, teachers are asked to have skills that consider the individual interests of students, their individual differences, and learning styles, and teach accordingly. In other words, teachers must have pedagogical and psychological competencies to help students learn optimally and to individualize their learning experiences (OECD, 2011). For these reasons, the need for teachers to equip themselves with new knowledge and skills has gained more importance than ever before. Teacher quality is one of the most important factors affecting student success. In addition, some studies indicate that the quality of the education system cannot exceed the quality of the teacher (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; OECD, 2011; Schleicher, 2016). Barber and Mourshed (2007) revealed how the academic success of two students at the same cognitive level, taught by two different teachers, changed over time and how effective the quality of the teacher was on student success.

When one of the 8-year-old and average-achieving two students works with a high-performing teacher and the other with a low-performing teacher for three years, the difference in success between these two students with the same success level becomes more than 50% at the end of 3 years. Again, another example can be given for purposes of comparison. For example, when the size of a 23-person class is reduced to 15, the increase in student achievement can increase by 8% at most (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). This is another proof of how effective teachers and teacher qualifications are in student success. Research conducted by OECD on adult skills reveals the level of existing competencies of teachers worldwide (Schleicher, 2016). The research compared the numerical, verbal, and problem-solving skills of teachers in different countries with individuals with undergraduate degrees in other professions. In none of the countries participating in the research, teachers' competencies are not in the top three in terms of the mentioned skills. Japan and Finland stand out as the two countries that are excluded from this statistical result because they are among the countries that have proven their success in the field of teacher education in recent years (Sahlberg, 2010; Schleicher, 2016). As the results of this study show, the students who will be trained by teachers with an average level of competency will also be individuals with an average level of skills. However, as in Finland and Japan, individuals trained by qualified teachers will also have high numerical, verbal, and problem-solving skills. This study is important in terms of revealing how important the quality ef teachers is.

Seeing that teachers' competencies are not at the desired level, OECD held the "International Teaching Profession Summit" hosted by the United States Ministry of Education in 2011.

Education ministers of countries, union leaders, and teacher representatives of leading countries in the field of education attended this summit and discussed how best to improve the quality of teachers and teaching (OECD, 2011). According to the result of this summit, it was emphasized that teachers should now have different skills. It is not just teachers' skills that are easy to teach and test; at the same time, it was stated that it is a necessity in today's conditions for students to have the skills that will enable them to be equipped with high-level skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking and communication skills.

Thus, the uniform and harmony-based education understanding of the past has gradually left its place to a learner-centered understanding in which individual differences and multiculturalism are given priority. This has led to the necessity of raising individuals who have 21st-century skills of learning to learn, are responsible for their learning, not only have the knowledge but also gain skills and attitudes towards the needs of their profession and society. As a result, it has gained importance for individuals to acquire competencies that will help them adapt to changing conditions, and the concept of competency-based education has emerged.

When the teaching competencies of the countries that are prominent and successful in the field of education are examined, it is seen that the changes in education are also reflected in the teacher competencies. The information age we live in requires teachers to constantly renew themselves and to be equipped with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will meet the needs of individuals and society (European Commission, 2012; European Commission, 2013; Brockmann et al., 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2006; ETUCE, 2008; Halasz & Michel, 2011; Haste, 2009; Mansfield, 2004). For this reason, special attention is given to issues such as lifelong learning, continuous professional development, and commitment to learning in teacher qualifications. In most countries, teacher qualifications are constantly reviewed and updated at regular intervals, and attention is paid to ensure that they meet the requirements of society and business life. In fact, this situation should be reflected in the education programs, and teacher training institutions should closely monitor the changes in society and constantly review the qualifications of teachers.

Unfortunately, studies in the field of teacher competencies and competency-based education are limited in our country. Teacher qualifications were first determined in 2006 and updated 11 years later in 2017 (MEB, 2017b). However, socio-economic developments in the world, and therefore in Turkey, are on a very rapid course. For example, in an age called the information age, where many transactions take place in virtual and electronic environments, the digital competencies of teachers have gained equal importance. However, the proficiency levels of teachers in these subjects are not known exactly. For this reason, it is necessary to re-determine the general qualifications that teachers should have in Turkey with the scientific studies in which large segments of the society will be represented and have a say, with the data and evidence obtained from the studies carried out in the field of educational sciences in the light of national and international developments. While doing this, the general qualifications, sub-competencies, and performance indicators of the teaching profession should be clearly stated, and these statements should be measurable and observable. In this way, it will be possible to determine the level of teacher candidates' qualifications in question. Moreover, to be narrowed down, this study examines how the studies carried out

within the scope of general teacher competencies are reflected in foreign language teacher competencies in particular. Thus, this study aims to address the answers to the following questions:

1- What does teacher competency mean?
2- What developments have been done regarding teacher competency throughout the World?
3- What are the reflections of teachers' competency in Turkey?
4- How are English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers affected by the studies of teacher competency?

2. Method

To address better understanding of teacher and EFL teacher competency, narrative literature review provided the basis for the methodology of this study. Narrative literature review critiques and synthesizes publications on a topic to provide new frameworks and perspectives (Cooper, 1998). This literature review type describes the history or development of the target problem or topic and helps build a broader perspective by providing many aspects of information in a printed format.

For this purpose, in this study, the institutional frameworks generally on teacher and specifically on language teacher competency was taken into consideration. This was conducted by focusing on the following themes predominantly:

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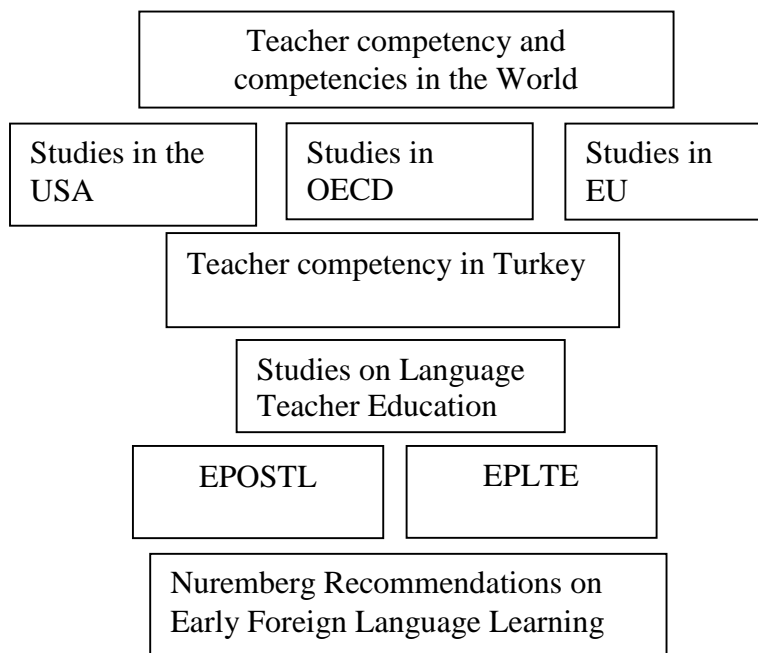
3. What Does Teacher Competency Mean?

Although extensive studies have been carried out in the literature on competency in teacher education for a long time, what the concept of 'competence' means exactly is a concept that cannot be adequately explained in both national and international literature and there is no definite consensus on its definition. Most of the time, definitions differ according to the discipline in which it is expressed, the perspective of the researcher who defines it, and even the general understanding of competence accepted in the country in which it is defined (Barış, 2013; European Commission, 2013; Haste, 2009; Jeris et al., 2005; Koenen et al., 2015; Şişman, 2009). Although it is difficult to define the concept of competence, explaining the concept of competence and drawing its basic framework will contribute to a better understanding of the changing roles of education and teachers, to raise individuals equipped with the skills required by the age, and to build a bridge between business life and education (European Commission, 2013; Mansfield, 2004).

Although there is a nuance between the two concepts of 'competence' and 'competency' in English, they are often used interchangeably and are considered synonymous in daily life. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines the word competence as "the ability to do something well" and the word competency as "the skill required for a certain job". The word 'competence' is interpreted differently in American and British English from time to time, and this leads to semantic confusion. While the word competence is used as a singular noun, it means the state of being competent, while in British English it is used only as a noun phrase, as in the expression "business competence" (Mansfield, 2004). In American English, on the other hand, the same word is thought of as a person's performance in performing a task. Competency in the singular and competencies in the plural is the distinctive feature of a person that results in an effective or superior performance. This means a distinctive behavior that can be expressed as a motive, a personal characteristic, a skill. The word competent is also used to show that the individual is competent; however, different meanings can be attributed to this word (Mansfield, 2004). The concept is defined as an individual with the necessary ability to perform a job. However, especially in cases where professional qualifications are in question, this word is used as the minimum qualification or skill required to perform a job, and a person's competence can be expressed at different levels.

The concept of competence is explained as the distinguishing feature of the individual that is associated with a certain job and enables him to perform that job competently, and it is considered as an 'input' especially in the American school. The concept of competence is accepted as the knowledge and ability that an individual must have to perform a certain job. In this context, competence is evaluated by the individual's ability to fulfill the standards required by that job in a business environment. The concept of competence is accepted as 'output' showing the requirements of the job in the English school (Winterton, 2009). In the light of these definitions, it can be said that the concepts of competence and competency show certain characteristics. While competence is a more holistic concept, competency is a concept related to the personality traits of the individual and may be exhibited in other situations while performing other tasks. However, despite all these differences, the two concepts are often used interchangeably and are accepted as concepts that evoke the same meaning (Winterton, 2009). The concept of competence started to become a popular trend in the European

education system in the 1990s, and difficulties were encountered in practice due to definitions (Mulder et al., 2009). The concept of competence is the use of a set of abilities consisting of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that must be employed to perform a job or solve a problem in a certain profession, job, organization, or situation.

Teacher competencies are defined as the "knowledge, skills and attitudes that teachers should have in order to fulfill the teaching profession in an effective and efficient manner" (Karslı & Güven, 2010, pp. 232-234). Achieving the goals designed in the field of education is closely related to the qualifications and competencies of the teachers who guide this process. If an innovation brought to life in the field of education is not reflected in the learning environments by the teachers, it is obvious that the designed goal will not be achieved. Having the basic competencies of teachers is one of the keys to increasing the success of students and ensuring their personal development. In this rapidly changing world, it is vital to encourage the development of teachers to increase their competencies and abilities.

Teacher competencies, the issue of what teachers know and can do has become the focus of research on teacher education and the effects of teachers on student achievement (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Darling-Hammond et al., 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Grand & Gillette, 2006; Imig & Imig, 2006; World Bank, 2005). Defining teacher competencies and determining their boundaries is complex due to the nature of this profession. Because the teaching profession and the expectation of what teachers can know and do have constantly changing and dynamic features (Conway et al., 2009). Societies are experiencing a complex and unplanned transformation process, and this transformation changes how people work, communicate, relate, live, and learn. The social transformation affects schools visibly. Students can easily access various information sources by using new technologies, and as a result, it becomes a necessity to reevaluate the traditionally known functions of the school and the teacher (World Bank, 2005). On the other hand, the views of educators and researchers on learning and knowledge are changing drastically. Depending on this change, very different views emerge about how to unearth students' performances in the classroom and how teachers will teach (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Since the competency of teachers is seen as having a key role in this aspect, revising the developments on it deserves attention.

4. Developments Regarding the Teacher Competency Throughout the World

Studies on the concept of competency first started in the USA. These studies were later accepted in Europe and similar studies were carried out in European Union member countries along with the Bologna Process. The OECD also conducts comprehensive studies in the field of education and reports them every year. In this context, besides the USA, OECD, and Europe-based competency frameworks, there are also frameworks for researchers who have worked in this field. In the light of these studies on determining the general qualifications of the teaching profession in Turkey were discussed and the general qualifications of the teaching profession were explained around the scope of this review. Moreover, how the reflections of general competency in teacher education have prevailed on English language teacher education more specifically was taken into consideration.

4.1. Studies on Teacher Competency in the United States

In the United States, there are nationally recognized competencies. Furthermore, the concept of standard rather than competency is preferred more in the USA. First, The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) was established in 1987 to ensure harmony between states in the USA. NBPTS (2019) has determined teaching qualifications in five basic frameworks:

1. Teachers are committed to teaching and students' learning.
2. Teachers know the subject area they teach and how to teach this subject area to students.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring their students' learning.
4. Teachers learn from their own experiences by systematically criticizing their practices.
5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

In this document, competencies are expressed in terms of standards, not in the form of specific categories. However, a structural change was made in their determination and expression of them, and they began to be expressed in the form of competency categories instead of standard sentences.

Another organization that determines teaching qualifications in the USA is the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC), a sub-organization of the Council of the Chief State School Officers. Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium have determined new teacher qualifications in line with the changing conditions and needs of the world and students. New qualifications were created by reviewing the qualifications published by the same institution in 1992. These standards have two important features that differ from the standards published in 1992. While the first published standards only express the starting standards for teachers who are just starting the profession, the new standards point to the improvements that teachers will make at different stages of their careers. The feature that distinguishes a beginner teacher from an experienced teacher is related to how comprehensively and advanced the knowledge and skills are utilized. Another difference is that knowledge, dispositions, and performances are restated to show the content and depth of teaching practice.

The InTASC core teacher standards consist of four key categories. Standards (qualifications) are listed under these categories. According to InTASC (2013, p. 6), the categories are:

1. Learner and Learning Standard 1: Learner Development, Standard 2: Learning Differences, Standard 3: Learning Environments.

2. Content Standard 4: Content Information, Standard 5: Implementation of Content.

3. Teaching Practices Standard 6: Evaluation, Standard 7: Planning of Instruction, Standard 8: Instructional Strategies.

4. Professional Responsibility Standard 9: Professional Education and Ethical Practices, Standard 10: Leadership and Collaboration.

As seen, InTASC standards are structurally different from NBPTS standards. Instead of NPBTS's standard phrases that indicate ideal, InTASC sets standard categories and explains them.

In the United States, the Jobs for the Future and Council of the Chief State School Officers initiatives consciously reflect the competencies that teachers should have instead of the widely used standards defined as competencies in the USA. Accordingly, the competencies are grouped under four main headings. These competencies are cognitive, personal, interpersonal, and teaching competencies. Under these four general qualifications, qualifications and performance indicators related to them are listed (Jobs for the Future and Council of the Chief State School Officers, 2015).

One of the most popular teaching competency frameworks in the USA (Zeichner, 2012) is the 'Teaching Through Interactions' (TTI) framework used by the University of Virginia. According to the framework prepared by this center, effective education can be provided with three basic competence areas. These areas are emotional support, classroom organization, and instructional support. General teaching competencies and performance indicators are also grouped under these three main areas (Pianta, 2011). The most important feature that distinguishes this framework, prepared by the University of Virginia, is that it also aims to improve teacher-student interaction. Thus, it is seen as a professional development model that aims to achieve better learning outcomes.

In addition to the institutional evaluation of the general qualifications of the teaching profession in the USA, there has been the determination of the general competencies through individual studies. The most widely recognized, accepted, and applied one among these is the general framework put forward by Danielson (1996). This framework has been a basic reference source in determining the general qualifications of many countries in the world (Santiago & Benavides, 2009). Danielson (1996) states that the qualifications he identified can serve as a "road map" for teachers new to the profession, while for experienced teachers they are intended as "a guide for professional excellence", "a structure for professional development efforts" and it can also be used as "communicating with the wider community" (p. 11-12). Moreover, Danielson (1996) defined the extent to which teachers have these competencies with a four-grade scale consisting of "Unsatisfactory – Basic – Proficient – Distinguished" levels.

Another example of general teaching competency from North America was developed by the University of Regina in Canada. The framework, which was originally prepared as an Intern Placement Profile for primary and secondary school teachers, was later combined by Lang and Evans and named as the Teacher Competency Profile (TCP) (Lang & Evans, 2006). In TCP, competencies are specified as targets for prospective teachers or teachers who are new to the profession. They are explained consistent with what the teachers should acquire regarding also the degree, and it provides discussion topics between prospective teachers and mentor teachers in terms of their professional development.

4.2. Studies on Teacher Competency in European Union

European Union, aiming basically to transform into an information society, especially after the Bologna process, has determined the framework of basic competences that individuals should have. The European Union prepared the "European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning" in 2006 and this reference framework was accepted by the member states (European Commission, 2007). The European Qualifications Framework, which has a dynamic structure consisting of the whole of knowledge, skills, and attitudes rather than a static education program content, consists of 8 basic qualifications (European Communities, 2007) sequenced as communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematics proficiency and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, social and civic competences, assertiveness and entrepreneurship awareness, cultural awareness and expression. The European Commission has reached a consensus on what kind of competences the citizens of the member states should have and reached a consensus on the competencies of teachers who will gain these competencies in 2007 and determined the competencies of teachers in this direction.

The European Union has considered teacher competencies as knowledge, skills, and attitudes. These knowledge, skills, and attitudes also emphasize the new skills that will make Europe an information society. The European Union has gathered teacher qualifications in three general competence areas: working with others, working with knowledge and technology, working in and with society (Caena, 2011).

To ensure transparency and mutual recognition for comparing and harmonizing the programs of universities in the European Union member countries and to increase the quality of education at the European level, within the scope of the Tuning Project in the Bologna process, teaching qualifications have also been determined as both general and special field qualifications separately according to the disciplines in eight basic fields. One of these disciplines is the field of educational sciences and teaching. In addition, the Tuning Project determined the teaching qualifications at three levels as first, second, and third-level teaching qualifications.

The European Commission has gathered teacher competencies under 6 headings in its report titled "Supporting Teacher Competence Development for Better Learning Outcomes" published in 2013. The European Commission states that drawing such a general frame of reference can be a tool for teachers' professional development to be evaluated, discussed, and analyzed from a more systematic perspective (European Commission, 2013).

The European Commission recently published a qualifications framework in 2013, in which teachers, experts, and other relevant stakeholders on teaching qualifications stated that it can be used as a reference or a source of discussion (Koster & Dengerink, 2008). This competency framework was first illustrated by Williamson and Clevenger-Bright under the title of "Teacher Competencies" (as cited in Caena, 2011, p. 8). Within the framework of this qualification, teaching qualifications are gathered in three main groups as knowledge, expertise skills, and values. The European Commission (2013) seems to have adopted this structure in the framework of its latest qualification published and includes similar qualifications under similar headings.

4.3. Studies on Teacher Competency in OECD

OCED has recently carried out a similar study conducted by the USA and the European Commission on teaching qualifications. In this report published by OECD, the basic competencies expected from teachers are "at the student level, grade level, school level, and parents and other segments of society" (Schleicher, 2016, pp. 17-18).

In detail, at student level; initiating and managing learning processes, responding to students' individual needs, using formative and level-determining assessment tools, teaching in multicultural classrooms, emphasis on cross-program work, the adaptation of students with special education needs; at school level; teamwork and planning, evaluation and planning for improving education, using information and communication technologies (ICT) for teaching and management purposes, inter-school projects and international cooperation, managing and sharing leadership, at the level of parents and other segments of society; providing expert advice to parents, building community partnerships for learning are seen as noteworthy that they are reported as macro-level competencies. In a similar vein, emphasizing cross-program studies, establishing partnerships for learning with inter-school projects and international cooperation, as well as giving special importance to teaching in multicultural classrooms can be given as examples of these macro-level competencies.

5. Teacher Competency in Turkey

Studies on the characteristics of the teaching profession in Turkey and the qualifications that a teacher should have started after the 1970s, in parallel with the studies carried out in this field in the world. Teaching was accepted as a profession for the first time in the National Education Basic Law No. 1739, which came into force in 1973 (article 43). Article 45 of the National Education Basic Law No. 1739 is related to the qualifications of teachers and in the same law, it is stated that teachers should have three basic qualifications: general culture, field knowledge, and teaching profession knowledge.

In the 11th National Education Council held in 1982, the training of teachers was one of the main topics discussed. Here, the qualifications that teachers should acquire at the end of their training are determined. Emphasizing important issues such as considering the individual differences and developmental characteristics of students, having effective communication skills, and methodological knowledge in the qualifications determined in the 11th National Education Council, the competencies are listed as a series of suggestions and gathered under certain headings or categories. Thus, the general standards of the teaching profession were also specified in the 11th National Education Council.

The first comprehensive studies on the determination of teacher competencies are seen after 1994. The restructuring of education faculties, which started at the end of 1994, was completed in 1998. These studies carried out in cooperation with the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) and the World Bank, reorganized the teacher training process, opened new departments in education faculties, determined new teaching certificates, and ended undergraduate education in educational sciences except for the field of guidance (Okçabol, 2005).

'Training and Teaching Competencies' were determined as the first product and for the purpose of the development of pre-service training programs selecting, supervising, and evaluating teachers for in-service, the training was uploaded to teacher training faculties and colleges. It has been emphasized that the teaching profession traditionally requires gaining competence in the fields of general culture, field knowledge, and teaching profession knowledge (Bransford et al., 2005). As a matter of fact, the qualifications determined by the CoHE (1998) were determined in this direction and were divided into 4 main titles as 1. Subject Area and Competencies Related to Field Education, 2. Competencies in the Teaching-Learning Process consisting of Planning, Teaching Process, Classroom Management, Communication, 3. Monitoring, Evaluating and Recording Students' Learning, 4. Other Professional Qualifications.

The studies on determining teacher qualifications by the Ministry of National Education first started in 1999. In this context, a "Teacher Qualifications Commission" was established with the participation of CoHE and representatives from universities (MEB, 2017a). This commission examined the qualifications in the national and international literature, prepared the "Teacher Competencies" document on 12.07.2002 as a result of the CoHE / World Bank National Education Development Project and the findings obtained from the studies to determine the teacher qualifications carried out by the Ministry of National Education and these qualifications came into effect on 12.07.2002. Accordingly, teacher qualifications were determined under 3 headings in accordance with the National Education Basic Law No. 1739. These titles are "general culture information and skills", "education-teaching competencies" and "special field knowledge and skills" (MEB, 2017a, p. 6).

The next stage of the studies to determine teacher qualifications, the foundation of which was laid with the preparation of the teacher qualifications document in 2002, was carried out within the scope of the Basic Education Support Project (MEB, 2017a). As a result of the studies, it was decided that determining the general qualifications of the teaching profession in the form of main competencies, sub-competencies of the main competencies, and performance indicators of these sub-competencies would be the most appropriate method, and it was accepted that teacher qualifications should cover not only knowledge but also skills and attitudes. In 2006, the draft document of "General Competencies for Teaching Profession" was finalized and entered into force on 17.04.2006 (MEB, 2017a). The general qualifications of the teaching profession, which were determined by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in 2006 within the scope of the "Support to Basic Education Project", consist of 6 basic general qualifications, 31 sub-competencies under these six general qualifications, and 233 performance indicators used as proof of these qualifications. The determined qualifications coincide with the internationally accepted qualifications in terms of scope and content. In addition, the presentation of qualifications as "area of competency", "sub-competency" and "performance indicators" shows that qualifications are prepared in a systematic framework.

The Ministry of National Education first defined the teaching profession in 2006 (Alan, 2019). After 11 years of qualifications, MoNE developed a new general qualification framework in 2017. In this process, cooperation was made with academicians and teachers as well as local institutions. General qualifications have been updated by examining the general

qualifications of the teaching profession of international institutions such as OECD and UNESCO and countries with a good education. Accordingly, general competencies are grouped under three main areas: professional knowledge, professional skills and attitudes, and values. There are 11 sub-qualifications and 65 performance indicators under these three general areas (MEB, 2017a). MoNE (2017a) states that these new qualifications frameworks can be a reference source in determining the content of the universities' teacher training courses and both determining and developing the qualifications to be sought in teacher candidates. The new qualifications are also envisioned to guide in-service teachers in identifying their strengths and weaknesses. In addition to these, it is stated that teachers' performances can be evaluated based on the competencies with an objective evaluation system to be developed.

6. Reflections of Teacher Competency on English Language Teacher Education

English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) is seen as a part of broader programs such as applied linguistics, education, and teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) (Crandall, 2000; Richards, 2008). Though ELTE improvements were adjusted following the principles of applied linguistics accepted as the basis for language teacher education, nowadays, it has been shaped under the influence of general education theories, learning theories, and teaching practices.

Throughout history, there have been several studies addressing conclusions and discussions on how to be an effective teacher. The reflections of product-oriented behaviorist approaches evolved into cognitivist, constructivist, and socio-constructivist processes that refer to common principles of process-oriented approaches. The evolution from product-oriented to process-oriented approaches in general education fields was also observed in the ELTE models and frameworks. Thus, "teaching as doing" (Freeman, 1996; Freeman & Johnson 1998) or "a craft or apprenticeship model" (Wallace, 1991), "teaching as thinking and doing" (Freeman, 1991,1996), "applied science or the theory-to-practice model" (Wallace, 1991), "the reflective model" (Wallace, 1991), or "teaching as knowing what to do" (Freeman, 1996, Freeman & Johnson 1998) can be given as examples for adaptations and changes in ELTE history.

The shift and desire for better ELTE conditions in the world result in up-to-date approaches and policies undertaken by different organizations, for instance, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in the USA, Association and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). In Europe, in a similar vein, the Council of Europe and the European Commission determined qualification standards for language teaching and learning through several frameworks known as Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), European Qualification Framework (EQF), European Profile for Language Teacher Education (EPLTE) and European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL).

6.1. EPOSTL and EPLTE

Among the increasing numbers of teacher education qualification studies in many countries of the world, the "European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages" and "European Profile

for Language Teacher Education- A Frame of Reference" carried out in the European Union are among the exemplary studies in the field of teaching and should be regarded specifically. When considered from this point of view, they can be considered as proficiency studies, which are examples of the need to determine the framework of other teaching branches in addition to their general competencies. In this section, these two frameworks, which are important steps in teaching competency studies, will be explained.

With the proposal of the European Center for Modern Language (ECML), experts from different countries developed the EPOSTL. In this portfolio, it is aimed to focus on teacher education through basic competencies, to create competency definitions related to foreign language teaching, and to include these competencies in a portfolio work in which teacher candidates (students) will reflect on their knowledge, skills, and values. The definitions in the portfolio are expressed with the definitions of "can-do" as stated in the CEFR (2001). Some explanations given in CEFR have been changed from language learning to language teaching and included in the portfolio to a certain extent. The portfolio is divided into three main parts one of which is a personal statement section that aims to help candidates at the beginning of their teacher education and reflect on general questions related to teaching. The second section is the self-assessment section, consisting of 'can-do' descriptors, to facilitate reflection and self-assessment and the final dossier section, in which the outcome of self-assessment is seen transparent, aims to provide evidence of progress and record examples of work relevant to teaching (EPOSTL, 2007).

In detail, the main parts suggest an individual report in which students answer general questions and 'can do' statements, 'self-assessment' section focused on self-assessment and reflection and a documentation section aimed at demonstrating self-assessment outputs, proving progress, and documenting case studies (Newby et al., 2007).

The descriptors of the portfolio, which enable both the pre-service teacher's self-evaluation and the teacher educators' evaluation and give trainees a chance for the development of reflective skills with a set of 'can-do' statements, are grouped under certain topics. The following areas are where these descriptors are grouped with sub-sections such as "Context" – Curriculum, Aims, and Needs, The Role of the Language Teacher, Institutional Resources and Constraints; "Methodology" – Speaking/Spoken Interaction, Writing/Written Interaction, Listening, Reading, Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture; "Resources"–no sub-sections; "Lesson Planning"– Identification of Learning Objectives, Lesson Content, Lesson Organization; "Conducting a Lesson"– Using Lesson Plans, Content, Interaction with Learners, Classroom Management, Classroom Language; "Independent Learning"– Learner Autonomy, Homework, Projects, Portfolios, Virtual Learning Environments, Extra-curricular Activities; "Assessment of Learning"– Designing Assessment Tools, Evaluation, Self- and Peer Assessment, Language Performance, Culture, Error analysis (EPOSTL, 2007, p. 14 – 57).

The sub-divisions of these seven general categories are represented with a diversity of descriptors in which student teachers are required to have the knowledge and a variety of competencies needed to make decisions related to their teaching experiences (Cullen 2020; Strakova, 2009). In addition to the descriptors section, the student teachers have the chance to suggest some evidence of teaching practices in the 'dossier' section of the portfolio which

may consist of lessons, lesson observations, and evaluations, detailed reports, comments, checklists, etc. compiled by different sources, 'teacher actions' - and from learners' tasks and related performance, case studies and action research, reflections. These sources can be added to the suggested tables also indicating the dates of the actions registered as evidence of the teaching practices.

In 'The Glossary' section, terms related to language learning and teaching existing in the EPOSTL are defined specifically in the document. The terms are defined according to how they are used in the CEFR for many cases. The index section aims to help users locate terms used in the descriptors. It takes the form of a chart in which terms relating to language learning and teaching are listed vertically and the sections of the self-assessment, horizontally. This will aid cross-referencing to discover briefly in which sections terms such as 'culture' or 'grammar' occur (Newby et al., 2007).

As can be seen, the EPOSTL is included in the literature as a comprehensive study that can contribute to pre-service teacher education due to the main areas provided as sections it contains and the sub-items of the sub-sections in these basic areas. The portfolio aims to provide prospective teachers with the teaching skills of the 21st century through various items on sections of "Context", "Methodology", "Resources", "Lesson Planning", "Conducting a Lesson", "Independent Learning", "Assessment of Learning" before they graduate. For this reason, it continues to exist as a framework that can enable prospective foreign language teachers to acquire these skills during pre-service teacher education (Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2017; Cullen, 2020; Önal & Alagözlü, 2018; Seitova et al., 2019; Yüce, 2019).

However, this critical portfolio has shown that changes are needed in the content of this document so as to make it a more beneficial one within the context of Turkey as declared by Arıkan (2016). Arıkan (2016) carried out a critical evaluation of the document in terms of "The core team, Excluding non-secondary schools, Nature of the descriptors, Descriptors' load, Vague descriptors, Physical limitations" that addressed the drawbacks of the document needed to be regarded in practice. Moreover, Hoxha and Tafani's (2015) study reflects the limited number of studies on the EPOSTL applications that have shown that prospective teachers who have used them regarded it as a useful document for teaching practices.

Developments in language teaching in the European Union date back to the studies on the EPOSTL. In this sense, the initiatives taken by the European Union in 2000 to improve language teaching and learning led to the declaration of 2001 as the European Year of Languages. In 2002, decisions on learning at least two languages in addition to the mother tongue from an early age at the European Commission meeting in Barcelona led to competency studies on language teaching. In line with these developments, because of the joint work of the European Union Education and Culture Commission and the University of Southampton, a profile for the qualifications of foreign language teachers was created with the "European Profile for Language Teacher Education- A Frame for Reference" in the report.

The prepared framework offers suggestions on a) the structure of the lessons, b) the knowledge and understanding at the center of foreign language teaching, c) the diversity of learning and teaching strategies and skills, d) the values that language teaching should

support. As a result of the data collected by expert opinions and the experience of higher education institutions, 40 key items in language teacher education were presented.

This comprehensive project report has been transformed into a frame of reference to guide national and institutional education policy authorities and teacher educators aiming to present European initiatives in the field of foreign language teacher training. For each of the above-mentioned items, the rationale and explanation are followed by the strategies for application and use them. For example, for the first item, "the curriculum combining academic study and teaching practice", the justification was given that "foreign language teachers should perceive theoretical knowledge, content knowledge and practice holistically, since each of them interacts with each other", as the strategies of "arranging the theoretical knowledge to see the application of the theoretical knowledge in the classroom" and "application and evaluation of the pre-service teachers through action research" were suggested for this item (Kelly et al., 2005, p. 5), which can be given as a sample for the application of the items included in the reference.

6.2. NR for Special Field Competencies in ELTE

The demands on teacher competencies throughout the world narrowed down with the developments of the foreign language teacher education in Europe and reached its peak level as searching for the specific qualifications in some methodologies such as 'teaching English to young learners'. As cited in Gürsoy's (2015) comprehensive study, "Nuremberg Recommendations on Early Foreign Language Learning" (hereafter NR) (Goethe-Institute, 2010) has proposed the qualifications in detail. As seen, the developments of teacher competencies are not only limited to the general performances of teaching occupation but also, they may guide teachers specifically for such kind of practices related to the main areas of teaching that can be named as sub-fields or branches of their teaching areas. Goethe Institute published the requirements of NR originally in 1996 with the collaboration of 22 countries. Due to the policy changes affected by socio-economic demands, developments in technology, and expectations of early language learning, the report was revised and reached its current version in 2010 including the demands in it. The document addresses several stakeholders such as policymakers, teacher trainers, prospective teachers, principals, and practitioners. Moreover, it provides a broader perspective with a variety of factors aiming to reach the desired conditions to display the foreign language potential of learners aged between 4 to 10.

After introducing the background conditions, needs, and desires of early foreign language education, the NR describes the process' methodology and pedagogic principles relating to learning goals and teaching content, interaction in the learning group, teaching procedures, the learning atmosphere and physical environment, learning materials and the use of media in learning. These principles aim to support the competencies of teaching English to young learners' teachers as well considering the language proficiency starting at the nursery level.

Thus, the document underlines the importance of knowledge of language and culture, methodology, and pedagogy. This transferable knowledge and experience-based qualifications are given as:

natural enjoyment of communication, capacity, and desire for intercultural communication, capacity for analytical, problem-oriented thought, competence in identifying, mediating, and implementing learning strategies, endorsement of lifelong learning as a principle for oneself and all learners, ability to inspire openness to new ways of thinking and learning, ability to cooperate as harmoniously and productively with colleagues as with children constant upgrading of own media competence, self-confident and intelligently purposive approach in fulfillment of own professional role and responsibilities together with maintenance of critical perspective, unfailing readiness to cooperate with all involved in the upbringing of children and education (NR, 2010, p. 16).

All in all, the Ministry of National Education has introduced teacher qualifications with the document of Specific Field Competencies of English Language Teachers in 2008 that aim to parallel improvements in the field-specific teacher training process. Although this document addresses five broad categories of "planning and organizing language teaching process", "developing language skills of learners", "monitoring and evaluating the development of language skills", "cooperation with the school, family and the society", "continuing professional development in English Language Teaching" (MEB, 2008) and seem to cover the methodological and pedagogical competencies as also referred to in NR, it fails in identifying required L2 proficiency of English language teachers and focusing on the intercultural knowledge and awareness. The document underlines the importance of developing and/or monitoring the language skills of learners by set qualifications and increase the level teaching process; however, it has many limitations in specifying the pedagogical and/or methodological knowledge for enhancing the performance of teaching skills required by the English language teachers (Gürsoy, 2015).

6.3. Discussion

This paper has reviewed the studies and the developments on teacher competency in the USA, EU, OECD that come up with the initial frameworks in this field. Later in the study, what the reflections of teacher competency are on language teaching and English Language Teacher Education in Turkey have been reflected. Based on the reviewed studies, the following issues are remarked:

Since the teaching profession has a dynamic infrastructure in the changing and constantly developing world conditions, when the international literature is examined, it is seen that countries do not adhere to a single competency framework. For this reason, individual researchers and leading institutions of the countries appear to contribute to competency frameworks. (Danielson, 1996; European Commission, 2013; Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005; Jobs for the Future and Council of the Chief State School Officers, 2015; Lang & Evans, 2006; NBPTS, 2019; Pianta, 2011; Schleicher, 2016).

When international and national teaching competency frameworks are examined, it is seen that each frame reflects different perspectives (Danielson, 1996; European Commission, 2013; Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005; Jobs for the Future and the Council of Chief State School Officers, 2015; Karslı & Güven, 2011; Lang & Evans, 2006; MEB, 2017a, 2017b; NBPTS, 2019; Pianta, 2011; Schleicher, 2016; Selvi, 2010;). While some frameworks are covered under knowledge, skills and attitudes, and values (European Commission, 2013; MEB, 2017a, 2017b), others are covered under the headings of competency and sub-competencies. While

some framework proposals consist of detailed sub-competencies and performance indicators (Danielson, 1996; Lang & Evans, 2006), some try to present a shorter and holistic understanding (European Commission, 2013; Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005; MEB, 2017a, 2017b; Schleicher, 2016). Although the proposed teaching frameworks have common points besides the existing structural differences, it is seen that they emphasize different competency areas such as classroom practices and teaching (Danielson, 1996; Lang & Evans, 2006), teacher's out-of-class practices (Gonzalez & Wagenaar, 2005) or attitudes and values (European Commission, 2013; MEB, 2017a, 2017b).

The conduction of the studies related to teacher competency provokes and sustains some reflections and expectations in the foreign language teacher education field. Along with the improvement of teacher competency throughout the world, the issues such as common competency areas of teachers constitute the main subjects of competency studies (European Commission, 2004; Newby et al., 2007). The frameworks developed for foreign language teachers, recorded in the literature, and dealing with the problems that may be encountered in practice, have the quality to contribute to the training of foreign language teachers in Turkey in many respects. Among these, the specifically focused one is the EPOSTL that allows pre-service teachers to evaluate themselves during pre-service training with its three main sections called "personal statement", "self-assessment" and "dossier". In addition to this, it is seen as a comprehensive framework that helps teacher qualifications reach international levels or standards and helps foreign language teacher candidates develop themselves in areas that they think they cannot gain qualifications before graduation. In addition, not only teacher candidates but also teacher educators can benefit from the target portfolio framework from different angles while organizing pre-service training or performing their profession in in-service training processes (Arıkan, 2016; Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2017; Cullen, 2020; Cakır & Balcikanli, 2012; Hoxha & Tafani, 2015; Önal & Alagözlü, 2018; Seitova et al., 2019; Yüce, 2019).

Apart from this, the gap between theory and practice in teacher education shows that the general teaching competencies do not satisfy the requirements of English language teacher education. Thus, the requirements and the qualifications of English language teachers should be revised in line with the field or branch-specific competency areas or competencies. It was declared in MoNE's 2023 strategic plan that a National Council of Foreign Languages will be formed to define foreign language teaching policies, teaching standards, and classroom practices; however, there is no hosted national council for foreign language policies by Turkey, which calls for an urgent need for the collaboration of developments in language teacher education in the World (Kartal & Başol, 2019).

7. Concluding Remarks

This chapter aimed to review the competency-based frameworks related to teacher education both from institutional and pioneering individual points of view put into practice internationally and nationally. The frameworks conducted on developing the teacher's competency suggest that competency is not restricted to static areas of the teaching process; thus, defining the competencies of teachers requires to follow the upcoming, fashion needs of time and to be complement with today's practices inside and outside classrooms.

Although quite a few articles were identified, based on the pioneering frameworks in the world, in this review it is also evident that the competencies may refer to the qualifications of specific teaching branches and areas as suggested for the student teachers of languages or could be considered for the English language teachers in Turkey or nation/context-based conditions. This indicates that the general teaching competencies are insufficient to initiate and sustain the formative process of teacher education with field or branch-specific conditions as pointing out by the English language teachers in this current study.

Thus, to reach the transformative competency-related processes in language teacher education besides all teacher education branches, more research is needed to be conducted with the resource stakeholders. Moreover, the changing conditions with the COVID-19 pandemic come up with another fashion necessities for teacher competency that may provide multiple perspectives for the different and several teaching disciplines, which may result in promising qualifications for future generations deserving better education conditions in distance or face to face education.

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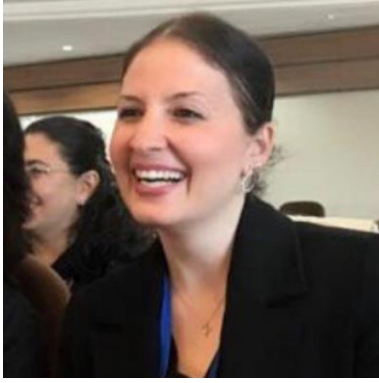
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TEACHING ENGLISH BY DISTANCE: AN INTRODUCTION

Ahmet ÖNAL

1. Introduction

We have been experiencing gradual integration of the most recent technology into every field of our daily lives from entertainment and leisure to commerce and professional domains and education is no exception (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016; Hartnett, 2016; Jaldemark, 2021; Stevens, 2010; Webster & Murphy, 2008). Consequently, the introduction and integration of the internet and computers has triggered a process of unprecedented transformation in the operations of educational institutions in the last forty years (Fischer, 2010; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; McAvinia, 2016; Simonson et al., 2015). It has been argued that educational institutions at all levels need to adapt to the requirements of this transformation in order to cater for the needs of their learners by upgrading their content and the way they convey it to the learners (Altmann et al., 2019; Eshet-Alkalai, 2009; Fillion et al., 2010) and become more competitive in international arena (Childs & Crichton, 2019; Fischer, 2010; Krusekopf, 2019; Moller et al., 2012; White, 2003). The unexpected outbreak of Covid-19 in the first quarter of 2020 further accelerated this process and educational institutions across the globe had to adopt distance education as an emergency solution. Not surprisingly, such swift shift to distance education raised questions as to the readiness of the stakeholders (including decision makers, educational institutions, teachers, students and parents) as well as the effectiveness of distance education. In this regard, this chapter aims to introduce the concept of distance education by dwelling upon its historical development and technological foundations as well as steps to be taken in the design, delivery and assessment procedures.

2. Historical Background and Definition of Distance Education

The history of distance education (DE) can be traced back to 1720s and this long history of DE has witnessed certain stages starting with written correspondences and radio/TV broadcasts and continuing with the utilization of computers and the internet (Allen et al., 2019; Jung, 2019a; Meshur & Bala, 2015). More specifically, the evolution of DE can be divided into three generations; namely, *correspondence courses, internet-based courses* and *courses offered in the technology-enabled space*. In the correspondence courses, the course content used to be delivered in written, audio, or audio-visual modes. On the other hand, while the introduction of the internet (2nd generation) made it possible to provide instruction supported by file sharing and basic learning/course management systems, 3rd generation DE builds on these opportunities and makes use of various participative, interactive, collaborative, visualization, simulation, modeling and discovery technologies (Moller et al., 2012). Bearing the long-standing marriage between technology and education in mind, it can be argued that the evolution of DE will continue as long as innovative technologies emerge (Childs & Crichton, 2019).

As of 2021, it is assumed that DE has entered mainstream thanks to progressive improvements and innovations in digital technologies (Allen et al., 2019; Hartnett, 2019; Jung, 2019b; Lerch et al., 2009; Moller et al., 2012; Obexer, 2019; Simonson et al., 2015; Torrao & Tiirmaa-Oras, 2007; Weller, 2020) and it has been labeled as the fastest growing

formal and informal education model (Berge, 2019). The outbreak of Covid-19 has expedited this tendency (Rennell, 2020) and it would be justified to argue that learning without technology has become hardly conceivable. More often than not, DE is delivered online today and since online DE shares the same roots with traditional forms of DE, Zawacki-Richter (2019) advocates that the extant heritage should not be lost and program designers should build on existing history, research, theory and practice. To sum up, the concept of DE has merged with online education in the 21st century and online learning is regarded as the equivalent of DE even though several other terms such as *virtual learning, distance teaching and learning, online education, online teaching and learning, e-learning, distributed learning, open learning,* or *asynchronous learning* are used interchangeably to refer to the same or similar phenomenon (Allen et al., 2019; Burns, 2011; Cleveland-Innes, 2021; Davis, 2019; Koç, 2020; Simonson et al., 2015).

DE has been defined as "… a planned learning experience or method of instruction characterized by quasi-permanent separation of the instructor and learner(s)" (Burns, 2011, p. 9). Ally (2008) defines online learning as ".… the use of the internet to access materials; to interact with the content, instructor, and other learners; and to obtain support during the learning process, in order to acquire knowledge, to construct personal meaning, and to grow from the learning experience" (p. 5). Moore and Kearsley (1996), on the other hand, view DE as an intentional instruction that entails unique techniques of course design and instruction, specific ways of communication supported by technology and distinct institutional, administrative and organizational arrangements. As can be understood from the definitions provided, the main characteristics of DE are: *a)* separation of learner(s) and the teacher, *b)* the utilization of digital media to connect the teacher and students, *c)* provision of two-way interaction and *d)* implementation of individualized instruction (Siedlaczek, 2004; Simonson et al., 2015). Moreover, DE can also be viewed from a broader perspective featuring a great degree of variation including the institutional context, the technology or media utilized, the nature and content of the instruction and the level of interactivity (Burns, 2011). In this respect, traditional approaches to DE view it as taking place in a different place and at a different time; however, thanks to the latest innovations in interactive technologies, the modern understanding of DE has evolved into taking place at the same time but in a different place (Simonson et al., 2015). It should be admitted that the overall context in which instruction is to be provided is a determinant factor in terms of the classification of online learning and the significant role played by the context has not gone unnoticed by Bertin and Gravé (2010b), who state that technology influences the context and, correspondingly, context has a significant effect on DE. As a consequence, DE can be implemented in various forms (see Table 1) depending on the peculiarities of the context.

Table 1: Dimensions of DE (Source: Wagner et al., 2008, p. 27)

Dimension	Attribute	Meaning	Example
Synchronicity	Asynchronous	Content delivery occurs at different time than receipt by student.	Lectured module delivered via Email.
	Synchronous	Content delivery occurs at the same time as receipt by student.	Lecture delivery via web cast.
Location	Same Place	Students use an application at the same physical location as other students and/or the instructor.	Using a Group Support System (GSS) to solve a problem in a classroom.
	Distributed	Students use an application at various physical locations, separate from other students and the instructor	Using GSS to solve a problem from distributed locations.
Independence	Individual	Students work independently from one another to complete learning tasks.	Students complete e-learning modules autonomously.
	Collaborative	Students work collaboratively with one another to complete learning tasks.	Students participate in discussion forums to share ideas.
Mode	Electronically Only	All content is delivered via technology. There is no face-to-face component.	An electronically enabled e-learning course.
	Blended	E-learning is used to supplement traditional classroom learning.	In class lectures are enhanced with hands-on computer exercises.

As can be understood from Table 1., DE can be offered either asynchronously or synchronously. While asynchronous interaction offers flexibility as to the time learners access the course, synchronous courses enable the participants to communicate on a real-time basis, which may motivate the learners and decrease the feeling of isolation. It should also be noted that, with the aim of benefitting from the advantages of both options, synchronous and asynchronous forms are being combined (labeled as *multi-synchronous*) by many institutions (White, 2003). As for the location, DE may be offered at the same place, or alternatively, it may be given in a distributed way. It may be argued that, thanks to mobile devices, the teacher and the students do not necessarily need to be in the same place and flexibility in terms of location is generally regarded as an advantage of DE. Students may study individually or collaboratively in DE; however, considering the widespread use of social networking technologies and necessity of forming a community, collaborative study has the potential to yield better results. Finally, the instruction may be provided either in a blended/hybrid mode or completely online. The context, institutional resources and

constraints, characteristics of the course and a multitude of other factors need to be regarded while making a decision as to the mode of DE.

As has been aforementioned, online learning has merged into the implementation of DE and it has been defined as "…an approach to teaching and learning that includes the use of Internet technologies for learning and teaching. Learners use the online learning environments not only to access information and course content but also to interact and collaborate with other online participants within the course" (White, 2003, p. 27). Therefore, rather than following one standard model, a continuum of practices can be offered for the concept of online learning (Burns, 2011). Table 2 below summarizes the general classification of online learning provided by educational institutions.

Table 2: Classification of Online Learning (Source: Allen & Seaman, 2008, p.4)

Proportion of Content Delivered Online	Type of Course	Typical Description
0%	*Traditional*	Course with no online technology used - content is delivered in writing or orally.
1 to 29%	*Web Facilitated*	Course that uses web-based technology to facilitate what is essentially a face-to-face course. May use a course management system (CMS) or web pages to post the syllabus and assignments.
30 to 79%	*Blended/Hybrid*	Course that blends online and face-to-face delivery. Substantial proportion of the content is delivered online, typically uses online discussions, and typically has a reduced number of face-to-face meetings.
80+%	*Online*	A course where most or all of the content is delivered online. Typically have no face-to-face meetings.

As can be seen in Table 2., an *online* course implies that at least 80 % of the content is delivered online and there is almost no face-to-face contact between the participants. On the other hand, a *blended/hybrid* course refers to a comparatively balanced combination of face-to-face and online delivery. When less than 30 % of the course content is delivered online, it implies that a *web facilitated* course is offered rather than online or blended/hybrid course. The potential of blended (or hybrid) learning in the 21st century has been underscored by many scholars (Graham, 2019; Thorne, 2003) and it has been argued that it promises to transform and reform higher education in a positive direction (Matheos & Cleveland-Innes, 2021). For instance, Fillion et al. (2010) and Jung (2019b) have observed that in the last decade there has been a gradual shift from traditional face-to-face mode to hybrid/blended or completely online modes. The main advantage of blended learning lies in its ability to blend the innovative educational technology with the participation and integration presented by traditional face-to-face education in the best way without any restrictions as to time and location (Thorne, 2003). It has also been reported that blended learning offers new forms of

communication and innovative didactical opportunities for learners to construct their understanding more permanently and effectively by tailoring the experience to the needs and preferences of learners (Torrao & Tiirmaa-Oras, 2007).

It should not go without saying that the introduction of Web 2.0 tools has made it easier, cheaper and more practical for many higher education institutions to provide their students with effective hybrid or even DE (Childs & Crichton, 2019; Fischer, 2010; Graham, 2019; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; Meshur & Bala, 2015; Simonson et al., 2015; Torrao & Tiirmaa-Oras, 2007; Weller, 2020). More precisely, web 2.0 tools enable users to become active and dynamic contributors rather than passive receivers and consumers; in other words, the users have become authors who share and produce content to express their ideas and emotions within a social milieu (Montebello, 2017), which supports the collaborative dimension of DE.

2.1. The Role of M-learning

M-learning has been defined as "any activity that allows learners to be more productive when interacting with, or creating information, mediated through a mobile device that the learner carries on a regular basis, has reliable connectivity, and fits in a pocket, a purse or a handbag" (Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015, p. 199). Just about a decade ago, it was unimaginable to expect every student in the class to own smartphones with internet connection; however, students today have become dependent upon their smartphones and access the internet mostly, and even exclusively, via their smartphones, which implies that DE designers, practitioners and researchers need to reconsider and revise their existing approaches to DE (Allen et al., 2019). Thanks to their widespread use, mobile devices such as smart phones, personal digital assistants, tablets or laptop computers have been increasingly adopted by educational institutions in recent years with the aim of enabling learners to access content anytime, anywhere, through a multitude of devices, alone and/or collaboratively (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015; Allen et al., 2019; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; McKeown & Howard, 2012; Meshur & Bala, 2015; Pandey, 2015). The main value of mobile devices lies in the fact that they provide the users with personalized connectivity and encourage collaboration through instant and/or real-time interactivity multi-modally (Berge, 2019; Burns, 2011; Jakobsdóttir et al., 2010; Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015). In addition, m-learning provides the learners with the opportunity to learn both inside and outside the classroom formally and/or informally. Thanks to their light weight, small size, wireless networking capability, ubiquity and battery power (Houser & Thornton, 2009), mobile devices have emerged as promising technological tools and replaced fixed computers resulting in a paradigm shift in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) utilization (Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2015; Mayes & Burgess, 2010).

2.2. Roles of Teachers and Learners in DE

Teaching in a traditional face-to-face educational context is quite different from teaching by distance and, as has been argued by Boettcher and Conrad (2016), "teachers who are effective in the face-to-face environment can be effective as online teachers, but it is not automatic, and it does not happen overnight" (p. xviii). Accordingly, the necessity of integrating the latest technology into the field of education and widespread adoption of DE has charged teachers

with some new tasks (Bertin et al., 2010; Childs & Crichton, 2019; Siedlaczek, 2004; Simonson et al., 2015; Stevens, 2010; White, 2003). Technological and pedagogical innovations in the 21st century require teachers to know the learner(s), the curriculum and the tools (Solvie, 2009). In line with this, instead of the transmission mode of instruction characteristic of traditional face-to-face education, DE calls for a social constructivist framework (Berge, 2019; Sturm et al., 2009; Swan, 2021) in which teachers are expected to encourage students to take part in collaborative work and express themselves in a self-discovery mode (Thomas, 2009). Therefore, in distance education, the role of the teacher shifts from telling or instructing to coaching, mentoring, guiding, and directing (Rennell, 2020) since students are expected and inclined to take on more responsibility by following their own lines of reasoning (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016). Hence, teachers are no longer '*the sages on the stage*', but they should become '*guides on the side*' (Weller, 2020). In other words, the pedagogical focus shifts from teaching to learning (Swan, 2021); thus, teachers need to improve learners' self-regulation skills, which have crucial importance to succeed in distance education (Kramarski, 2017; Narcy-Combes, 2010b).

Teachers in DE are expected to perform some extra tasks such as communicating with students digitally, modeling the tasks, initiating and participating in discussions (Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Rennell, 2020; White, 2003), creating and managing groups and group activities, monitoring and recording students' progress, offering feedback to students (Allen et al., 2019) and designing and administering online assessment (Aisami, 2009). Some distance learners may tend not to participate in the courses due to factors such as technical problems, feeling isolated and demotivated, which, in turn, implies that it is the teacher's duty to monitor the students, identify the reasons underlying such problems and achieve active participation (Hartnett, 2019; Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Siedlaczek, 2004; White, 2003). Another role DE charges on teachers is the provision of *technical* scaffolding besides *cognitive* and *affective* scaffolding with the aim of enhancing active engagement, participation, interactivity and feedback (Haghshenas et al., 2015; Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Simonson et al., 2015). Campbell and Berge (2009) contend that distance teachers need to perform; *a) managerial roles* by making decisions as to any aspect of their instruction, *b) pedagogical roles* by making use of proper pedagogical techniques and strategies to facilitate their instruction, *c) technical roles* by ensuring that the learners do not encounter any problems with technology, and *d) social roles* by building a community and constructing a positive classroom climate. Especially for students without any DE experience, the teacher needs to provide training as to the procedures, social rules, and expectations by giving clear instructions with the aim of orienting students with the implementation of DE (Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Rennell, 2020; Simonson et al., 2015; White, 2003).

It should not be forgotten that today's learners are quite different from their predecessors in that they expect to be entertained in an interactive and funny learning environment, they desire immediate feedback and 24/7 access (Rennell, 2020; Simonson et al., 2015; White, 2003), wish to have a personalized learning environment (Meshur & Bala, 2015) and work collaboratively with their peers in a learner-centered atmosphere (McGlynn, 2008). In this respect, this new generation of '*digital natives*' demand an absolute reform in the current pedagogy to satisfy their diverse needs and preferences (Maclean & Elwood, 2009). Thus, the

characteristics and preferences of digital natives need to be noticed and appreciated by the teachers and DE should be planned, designed and delivered accordingly.

We have been experiencing a rapid and continuous transformation in digital technologies and internet, dictating teachers to have "a general knowledge of the nature, extent, and composition of the Internet's almost infinite resources—both in the areas of content and pedagogy" (Lapping, 2009, p. 2170). Contrary to the common belief that teachers need to improve their skills in the utilization of technology, Paulson (2009) maintains that they do not need to become technology experts; instead, "…a positive attitude toward technology, an easy disposition with technology, an understanding of the critical importance of technology for learning, and general insight into the generic world of technology" (p. 1915), labeled as *soft skills*, will suffice to cater for digital natives. Put differently, teachers should encourage and allow their students to make the best use of technology and simply get out of their way.

When it comes to the new roles of learners in distance education, it has been argued that learners need to participate actively in the course, discover the content and take on greater responsibility by directing their own learning experiences (Fillion et al., 2010; Siedlaczek, 2004; White, 2003). More specifically, distance learners are expected to think, read, write, listen, reflect, share, collaborate and review more frequently and meticulously in comparison to traditional face-to-face education (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016). Distance learners need to follow their tasks, arrange their time and obey deadlines (Jaggars, 2019; Narcy-Combes, 2010a; Rennell, 2020; White, 2003). Distance learners should also be able to adjust themselves to the peculiarities of DE psychologically (Narcy-Combes, 2010a) since it may be a completely new experience for them and it is distinct from traditional face-to-face education.

2.3. Pros and Cons of DE

The main advantage of DE arises from the fact that it removes the barriers related to time and location that are inherent in traditional face-to-face education as well as offering the learners the flexibility to decide on *what, when, where* and *how* to learn (Burns, 2011; Hartnett, 2016; Latchem, 2010; Simonson et al., 2015; Torrao & Tiirmaa-Oras, 2007; White, 2003). As a result, the personalized nature of DE allows learners to study and progress at their own pace (Simonson et al., 2015). Another benefit of DE lies in the fact that it provides the learners with an efficient, content-rich and interactive learning experience (Latchem, 2010; Sales, 2009). In this respect, it can be argued that DE has the potential to contribute to the learners' intercultural communicative competence if there are international students in their online classes (Allen et al., 2019; Latchem, 2010). Moreover, the employment of technology and the internet enables learners to become more active, urges them to involve in the experience intellectually and improves learners' digital literacy skills (Simonson et al., 2015). It has also been noted that the design and preparation of course materials require hard work at the beginning; however, once developed, it is easier to update and revise these materials in line with the changing demands of the context and the learners (Latchem, 2010; Simonson et al., 2015). The implementation of DE has been viewed from the perspective of inclusive education and it has been maintained that the barriers that exist in traditional face-to-face education may be overcome with the help of technology and DE may prove a promising

sample for social inclusion practices (Heiser & Ralston-Berg, 2019; Sheehy, 2010). In simple terms, it has been argued that equal educational opportunities have improved for a large number of students thanks to DE (Davis, 2019; Hartnett, 2016; Jung, 2019b; Latchem, 2010; Simonson et al., 2015).

DE is not without its critics, though. For instance, poor pedagogical practices (such as simply dumping course content on the web), information overload, lack of a favorable classroom climate and sense of community as well as technical and technological problems may hinder the instructional process to a great extent (Fischer, 2010; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Salter, 2009; Simonson et al., 2015; Thorne, 2003). Digital divide, signifying the gap between people with access to information technology and those lacking it (Carvin, 2000), appears as the primary barrier to distance education. It is highly possible that some learners cannot afford or access reliable high-speed internet and/or they may encounter system-based problems or obstacles stemming from their lack of familiarity with the system (Jaggars, 2019; Mizell & Sugarman, 2009; Simonson et al., 2015; White, 2003). The quality of interaction in DE has also been questioned since it may not be conducted as successfully as it is in face-to-face education (Rennell, 2020). Furthermore, some learners may find it difficult to take the charge of their own learning (Simonson et al., 2015; White, 2003) and may need extra scaffolding since they are not autonomous learners; nevertheless, this can be overcome with the help of small group pairings (Lerch et al., 2009). It should also be noted that some courses (especially those with practical components) may not adapt well to DE; thus, such courses cannot be delivered fully online and they need to be supported with face-to-face gatherings.

2.4. Catalyzing Effect of Covid-19

The global pandemic of Covid-19 is, unfortunately, responsible for the demise and sufferings of millions of people and it has had negative effects on a multitude of sectors from economy and commerce to tourism and education. However, it has also accelerated the process of digital transformation in the field of education (Kitishat et al., 2020) if we are to consider the issue on the positive side. Educational institutions at all levels have been offering DE to their students since Covid-19 hit the world in the first quarter of 2020. The implementation of DE was a novelty for most of the stakeholders (such as educational institutions, teachers, students, parents, etc.) and it can be argued that none of the stakeholders was prepared enough for the shift to DE (Aljumah, 2020; Rennell, 2020). Adequate preparation is a prerequisite for DE because quitting lifetime instructional routines and shifting to DE will surely demand considerable time, effort, willingness and patience on the part of both teachers and learners who are new to DE (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016). The main reason behind this proposition is that the stakeholders need to make a multitude of decisions throughout the process as to the objectives of the course, delivery technology, course content and materials to be utilized, instructional methods and assessment procedures, most of which are, by their very nature, highly subjective (Childs & Crichton, 2019; Thompson, 2019). To exemplify, while making a decision as to the delivery technology, factors such as cost, institutional strengths and weaknesses, teachers' preferences, convenience and availability as well as learning objectives should be taken into consideration, which clearly depicts the challenging nature of the task. In this respect, Schroeder and Cook (2019) underscore the significance of *strategic planning* for

DE; however, it would be justified to argue that the sudden switch to DE due to Covid-19 had to be performed without much prior planning.

3. Instructional Design in DE

The significance of planning stage of instructional design in DE has been underscored since it is the planning stage that makes the difference for an effective and successful instructional experience (Simonson et al., 2015). Accordingly, an important factor to be considered while designing the instruction for DE is knowing about and understanding the learners (Burns, 2011; Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Simonson et al., 2015). To be more precise, such variables as learners' needs, goals and expectations, access to technology, geographical distribution, age and gender need to be paid close attention in the stage of instructional design (White, 2003). It should also be admitted that 21st century learners, labeled as *digital natives*, were born into and have grown up within technology. Technology and internet have penetrated into every field and moment of their lives (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016) and they "…blog, play games in immersive 3-D worlds, listen to podcasts, instant message friends, listen to music, author their own video for www.youtube.com and collaborate on the creating of 'digital stories' for their ePortfolio" (Duffy, 2008, p. 32). Their approach to education and leisure is different from their predecessors' and they are multi-taskers who absorb new information in multiple modes (text, image and/or video) simultaneously. Therefore, the power of technology and the internet should be integrated into the experience effectively (Latchem, 2010; Simonson et al., 2015; Thorne, 2003) because they have a preference for an interactive and collaborative learning environment (Gnanadass & Sanders, 2019); thus, interaction and collaboration need to be encouraged and included within the process.

Another important issue to be considered in this process is the learning styles of the students, which are defined as the overall approaches to learning and the environment (Narcy-Combes, 2010a; Simonson et al., 2015). It should not be forgotten that an individual has the ability to learn in various ways; however, when new information is presented in his/her preferred method, s/he will possibly feel more comfortable and competent; thus, learn more easily and permanently (Chambel & Guimarães, 2009). To illustrate, some students may learn better by listening (auditory), some others may prefer visuals while others may feel more comfortable with reading texts. In this respect, the cognitive preferences or the learning styles of the learners also need to be taken into consideration throughout the instructional design process in order to enable them to get the most out of their DE experience (Burns, 2011; Narcy-Combes, 2010a; Siedlaczek, 2004; Simonson et al., 2015; Thorne, 2003). Furthermore, learners' prior experience in DE and knowledge in the course content as well as the level of their self-regulation skills are many of the other factors to be taken into account throughout the stage of instructional design (Dennen, 2019).

It has also been noted that instructional design should be based on sound instructional strategies rather than presentation of information and focus on such cognitive processes as discovery, knowledge building, meaning making and problem solving (Moller et al., 2012; Narcy-Combes, 2010b). The objectives of the course, the context and characteristics of the students, content and the platform by which DE is delivered need to be taken into consideration while deciding on the teaching method to be utilized during the instruction and,

as has been offered by Simonson et al. (2015), student-centered methods with an emphasis on interactivity work best in DE due to the greater responsibility learners are charged with. Certain themes such as *collaboration, connectivity, student-centeredness, virtual reality, community, exploration, shared knowledge, multisensory experiences* and *authenticity* need to be taken into consideration in the instructional design process for DE (Branch & Stefaniak, 2019; Simonson et al., 2015). McKeown and Howard (2012) suggest that characteristics of the platform by which the content is delivered should also be taken into account throughout the stage of the instructional design so that learners can develop and construct a deeper understanding of the content presented.

In the preparation of content for DE, materials should feature: *modularity* (the core content should be presented as short as possible in various formats), *learnability* (the content should be supported with multimedia to cater for the preferences of diverse learning styles), *interactivity* and *collaboration* (Thorne, 2003; Tsang, 2008). The level of the tasks should be optimally challenging for the students and be linked to what they already know with the aim of facilitating students' satisfaction, motivation and achievement (Hartnett, 2019). Polly (2015) suggests that the content of the course should be presented via engaging activities and highlights the significance of teacher's presence, accessibility and two-way interaction between the teacher and the students. In a similar way, the power of creativity and imagination should be employed throughout the instructional design process with the help of activities such as structured discussions or debates, small group discussions, hands-on experiences with available materials, case study analysis or virtual field trips (Simonson et al., 2015).

4. Implementation of DE

The delivery of instruction in DE bears significant differences compared to traditional face-to-face education. As the teacher and the students are separated from each other in geographical and temporal terms, the interaction between and among the teacher and the students becomes tricky. Consequently, some of the students may feel isolated and demotivated, which can be alleviated if they are encouraged to build a community and collaborate with each other. Moreover, distance learners are expected to take on more responsibility of their own learning and may need guidance and scaffolding for gaining autonomy. It should not go without saying that implementation of assessment in DE brings with it certain problems in terms of fairness, reliability and validity concerns. Therefore, as Boettcher and Conrad (2016) argue, both DE and face-to-face education may be informed by the same theories of learning; nevertheless, the enactment of DE significantly differs from that of the physical classroom. In this respect, aspects to consider in the implementation of DE have been presented below.

4.1. Self-Directed Learning in DE

In its literal meaning, learning is a verb and refers to an action to be performed by learners (Moller et al., 2012). As a result, the main purpose of education in the 21st century is seen as focusing on *how* students learn as well as *what* they learn by helping them self-regulate, or self-direct their learning processes (Hoyle & Amy, 2017; Kramarski, 2017). Accordingly, the need to place learners at the center in DE has been frequently highlighted in the relevant literature (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016; Graham, 2019; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Simonson et

al., 2015) based on the view that "quality learning experiences not only depend on the efforts and preparation of the instructor but they are also largely determined by the efforts and preparation of the distant student" (Simonson et al., 2015, p. 201). In line with this, self-directed learning, or *heutagogy*, has been defined as "…a theoretical framework that can be utilized in guiding teaching and learning practices to more active and self-directed learning, where learners create their own networks of knowledge, learning, and information" (Blaschke, 2019, p.75). Put differently, the learner him-/herself takes on the control of his/her own learning, which is regarded as a key 21st century skill (Anderson, 2010; Jakobsdóttir et al., 2010). In order to get the maximum benefit out of DE, learners should be encouraged to self-direct their experience (Fischer, 2010; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Meshur & Bala, 2015; Narcy-Combes, 2010a; Simonson et al., 2015; White, 2003) and the fact that learners take on greater responsibility of their own learning suggests that they expect both their course designers and the technology exploited to match their learning priorities and preferences (Moller et al., 2012).

It should not go unnoticed that we are living in a fast-paced and information-rich world and learners are constantly bombarded with information overload (Usher & Schunk, 2017), which has been justly labeled by Benito-Ruiz (2009) as *infoxication*. In other words, there is too much to learn today. In such a context, it is highly likely that learners will feel overwhelmed and their self-regulation skills may assist them in directing their journey along the way. The skill of self-regulation is not an innate trait; on the contrary, it can be learned and developed (Usher & Schunk, 2017). Therefore, teachers are expected to fulfill a dual role; namely, they should first become *self-regulated learners* and they should function as *self-regulated teachers* (Kramarski, 2017). Moving from this line of reasoning, it would be justified to argue that acquisition and mastery of this competence is crucial for pre-service and in-service teachers.

4.2. Interaction in DE

Interaction has been regarded as a key component of DE (Bertin & Gravé, 2010a; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Narcy-Combes, 2010a; Siedlaczek, 2004; White, 2003) since it is a determining factor on the achievement and satisfaction of learners (Korres, 2015; Rennell, 2020; Simonson et al., 2015). In this respect, interaction has been defined as "…the exchange of information between and among individuals in a distance learning (DL) environment, encompassing exchanges for students, instructors, and technology staff" (Bold, 2009, p. 1244) and it has close links to *discussion, collaboration, cooperative exchange, peer-to-peer learning, interdependence, dialogue, group work, feedback, teaming* and *mentoring* (Narcy-Combes, 2010b). Moore (1989) identified three types of interaction in DE; namely, *learner-learner interaction, learner-teacher interaction, and learner-content interaction*. Sims (2001) and Bertin et al. (2010) add a fourth type of interaction, which occurs between the *learner* and *interface,* and highlight that whereas the first three types of interaction also occur in traditional face-to-face education, the fourth type of interaction can be observed uniquely in DE.

It is much easier for students and the teacher to build a relationship in a traditional face-to-face education environment because they can chat, interact and socialize during breaks;

however, DE may not offer the same opportunities for developing such relationships (Allen et al., 2019; Narcy-Combes, 2010a). By its very nature, interaction in DE may not be as effective as it is in face-to-face education since it may not be possible to make use of extralinguistic and paralinguistic features with equal efficacy in DE (White, 2003); therefore, as has been offered by Rennell (2020) and Simonson et al. (2015), teachers may arrange online office hours with the aim of interacting with students individually or in small groups. Maddrell and Watson (2012) encourage the use of learning management systems that allow for simultaneous multimodal interaction between and among the teachers and learners in order to ensure efficient interaction. It should also be noted that the frequency of interaction alone may not be a reliable indicator of an effective and satisfactory distance education environment since the quality of interaction is at least as important as its quantity (Allen et al., 2019; Garrison, 2021; Simonson et al., 2015). As a final note, Abrami et al. (2012) highlight the significance of collaborative and promotive student-student interaction in getting the best from interactivity and posit that learners should: *1)* act in trusting and trustworthy ways; *2)* exchange needed resources, such as information and materials, and process information more efficiently and effectively; *3)* provide efficient and effective help and assistance to groupmates; *4)* be motivated to strive for mutual benefit; *5)* advocate exerting effort to achieve mutual goals; *6)* have a moderate level of arousal, characterized by low anxiety and stress; *7)* influence each other's efforts to achieve the group's goals; *8)* provide groupmates with feedback in order to improve their subsequent performance of assigned tasks and responsibilities; *9)* challenge each other's reasoning and conclusions in order to promote higher-quality decision-making and greater creativity; and *10)* take the perspectives of others more accurately; and thus, be better able to explore different points of view (p. 61).

4.3. Collaborative Community in DE

The necessity and efficiency of building an inviting and welcoming collaborative community in DE has been underscored by various researchers (Hartnett, 2019; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Narcy-Combes, 2010b; Rasulo, 2009; Siedlaczek, 2004; Simonson et al., 2015) and the concept of *community* is defined as "…shared culture in the online classroom, including shared values, norms, and beliefs" (Perry & Edwards, 2010, p. 132). The sense of community is viewed as the basis for an efficient educational experience in which students feel less isolation and higher self-worth, become more engaged and dynamic, and drop-out less often. In order to encourage learners to form social bonds and a collaborative community, utilization of ice-breaking activities, which help the construction of a positive classroom climate, is highly recommended (Korres, 2015; Simonson et al., 2015). Distance teachers are advised to make use of supportive strategies such as treating learners fairly and encouraging them to express their ideas wholeheartedly (Hartnett, 2019). Besides distance teachers, the course delivery system should allow the students to freely share their opinions and form a collaborative community.

Moller et al. (2012) regard cooperation and collaboration as different concepts in that cooperation involves a group of learners who work together to attain a shared goal and the work is divided among the individuals as a result of prior planning whereas collaboration refers to "…the combined effort of every participant to work together on all aspects of the problem" (p. 10-11) rather than everyone doing only his/her part. Therefore, *team*

membership skills, a culture of collaboration and *a place to collaborate using collaborative technology* have been regarded as essential components of a collaborative community (Shepard, 2012). Building on a collaborative constructivist view of pedagogy, Swan (2021) argues that *Community of Inquiry* framework, as a process model of DE, is a necessary condition for an efficient DE experience and it highlights the relationship between social presence, teaching presence, and cognitive presence, which are dwelt upon in the next section.

4.3.1. The Concept of Presence in DE

Although distance teachers and students do not have to be physically present in a classroom, they still need to make their presence felt in various ways. In this respect, three different types of presences have been underscored in the literature of DE; namely, *social presence* (referring to an environment where the teacher and the students are socially and emotionally connected with each other), *cognitive presence* (referring to the students' ability to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse) and *teaching presence* (highlighting the design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes for the implementation of meaningful learning) (Richardson et al., 2012; Shearer & Park, 2019; Stavredes & Herder, 2019). Social presence is closely associated with interaction in that learners will freely express and share their opinions and form a community in an atmosphere where they feel socially comfortable. In addition, social presence will enable the learners to feel connected, increase social cohesion and support group dynamics (Hartnett, 2019; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010; Sharma et al., 2019; White, 2003). Cognitive presence, on the other hand, aims at cultivating learners' higher order thinking skills whereas teaching presence enables interactions that assist learners in developing cognitive presence and social presence (Stavredes & Herder, 2019). Teaching presence has also been shown to feature close links to student satisfaction, perceived learning and constructing a sense of community (Dennen, 2019; Swan, 2021); and thus, it is regarded to have critical importance for an effective and successful DE experience.

4.3.2. Risk of Isolation in DE

Not surprisingly, some learners (especially shy and introverted ones) may find it difficult to communicate in the absence of a face-to-face setting and fail to become a member of the learning community. As a consequence, sense of isolation emerges when learners have limited or no contact with their instructors and peers (Montebello, 2017; White, 2003). Lack of physical contact and face-to-face interaction with their instructors and peers may trigger this feeling among the learners and the precautions (such as quarantine practices and long-term curfews) taken against Covid-19 have even worsened the situation for some learners. It has been reported by Lee and McLoughlin (2010) that distance learners at tertiary level run the highest risk of dropping out of their programs and this tendency has been attributed to sense of isolation because young people, particularly teenagers, need to socialize with their peers in order to develop their identity and personality in a healthy manner. It should not go without saying that when learners feel that they are a part of a community, the risk of isolation will possibly disappear (Allen et al., 2019; Lee & McLoughlin, 2010). Therefore, it is distance teachers' responsibility to ensure that a positive classroom climate exists, even shy students

can participate in discussions and express their ideas, and a collaborative community has been constructed.

4.4. Assessment in DE

Assessment has usually been viewed as the weakest component of DE programs (Burns, 2011) and plagiarism and cheating have commonly been reported as the drawbacks of distance education in terms of assessment (Simonson et al., 2015; Thompson, 2019). It would be naïve to expect students not to open their books or google while they are taking online exams that solely focus on recalling and/or recognizing and it has commonly been observed that students tend to cheat when assessment practices are deemed unfair, trivial and/or irrelevant (Simonson et al., 2015). As a consequence, it has been claimed that there should be an overlap between the course objectives and assessment practices and higher-level cognitive skills (as exemplified by Bloom's Taxonomy) need to be targeted so that learners can exhibit their skills in not only recognizing and recalling but also evaluating, critiquing, creating, generating, planning, and producing (Burns, 2011; Liu, 2009; Moller et al., 2012; Simonson et al., 2015; Thompson, 2019). It has also been reported that a variety of ongoing and multi-phased assessment practices may help to solve such problems (Boettcher & Conrad, 2016; Simonson et al., 2015). In a similar fashion, Burns (2011) suggests the utilization of both formative and summative assessments, first of all, to measure learners' knowledge, skills, and competencies accurately and to enhance instruction on the grounds that "students learn best when assessment is part of, not separate from, instruction" (p. 158). The deployment of alternative assessment techniques such as authentic assessments, performance-based assessments, and e-portfolios, as long as they are supported with well-developed and reliable rubrics, has also been recommended (Palloff & Pratt, 2009). Additionally, in response to the claims by constructivists who underscore the importance of self-assessment for learning, Swan (2021) contends that self-assessment should also be embedded into the broader assessment procedures. To sum up, it would be justified to argue that the use of alternative and authentic assessment techniques will possibly discourage or prevent unethical practices on the part of the students.

As has been aforementioned, DE provides the learners with great flexibility; thus, the flexibility offered by DE should be mirrored in the stage of assessment and, if possible, learners should be allowed to choose from several options about how they are to be evaluated. Likewise, the utilization of technology should not be limited with the delivery of instruction; on the contrary, the opportunities offered by the latest technology should also be exploited throughout the stage of assessment (Burns, 2011). For instance, rather than traditional paper-and-pencil tests, e-portfolios or e-journals that require the employment of technology may be assigned to the learners.

4.5. Satisfaction with DE

The concept of satisfaction has become increasingly popular in the 21st century in that customer/consumer/client satisfaction is continuously sought for in nearly every sector that involve human beings from medical services and commerce to governmental procedures and educational processes. As a matter of fact, satisfaction is a highly complex and idiosyncratic phenomenon because the same feature of a product or service may be absolutely satisfying for

one person and just the reverse for another person, which further renders the definition and evaluation of satisfaction even harder. In this respect, it would be more precise to speak of tendencies and arrive at generalizations without ignoring exceptions.

Many studies have been conducted so far with the aim of uncovering students' level of satisfaction with their DE experience and factors such as *teacher presence, learner-instructor interaction, communication, motivation, connectedness, sense of community, institutional reputation, physical infrastructure* and *instructor empathy* are reported to enhance learners' engagement and academic achievement as well as their satisfaction and the lack of these factors may lead to dissatisfaction and higher dropout rates (Allen et al., 2019; Gnanadass & Sanders, 2019; Hartnett, 2019; Stavredes & Herder, 2019; Swan, 2021; White, 2003). It has also been reported that teacher's perception of DE, quality of the course, perceived usefulness of the course content, flexibility of the course and students' technology anxiety are critical factors that influence students' satisfaction perceptions (Simonson et al., 2015). Moreover, the construct of satisfaction has been closely linked to the instructional design process because when the course is perceived as boring or too easy/difficult, students will possibly feel dissatisfied with the experience, leading to debilitative effects on their motivation (Allen et al., 2019). On the other hand, when learners feel satisfied with their experience of DE, it may promise to change and even restructure the perception of education irreversibly (Simonson et al., 2015). Therefore, as Allen et al. (2019) suggest, rather than questioning whether DE is a satisfactory experience from the perspectives of the learners, strategies should be sought for maximizing their satisfaction.

5. Teaching English by Distance

As has been aforementioned, DE provides all the stakeholders with rare opportunities; nevertheless, it also brings certain challenges with it. To start with, it has been proposed that teaching languages by distance is much harder in comparison to teaching other subjects because the content is also the medium of instruction in language education (Murphy et al., 2010). As a result of the overview of research they have conducted, Vorobel and Kim (2012) concluded that DE may prove at least as effective as traditional face-to-face education; however, they posed several questions such as "Is it possible to teach an L2 or FL at a distance? What do educators need to know about the difference in context and mode of delivery? Which instructional strategies are most effective in such classes? How should language teachers develop materials and assess students in distance education classes?" (p. 549). Bagapova et al. (2020) acknowledge the prospects offered by DE in second/foreign language education; however, they maintain that DE may not be appropriate for language learners at beginner level and it should be supplemented with face-to-face gatherings. Ekmekçi (2015), on the other hand, conducted a study in Turkish context with the aim of revealing tertiary level learners' needs about English courses in DE and concluded that while a great majority of the learners were satisfied with the content, format, reading and grammar sections of the courses, the skills of listening, writing and speaking were not regarded as satisfactory by the learners. Moreover, the provision of feedback was also regarded as inefficient by the learners because of the time limitations dictated by the synchronous nature of the courses.

It should not go without saying that several suggestions have been made as to the teaching of different language skills and areas by distance, yet it should be kept in mind that these suggestions may become obsolete in a few years' time in view of the rapidly changing nature of technology. To begin with, Liaw and English (2017) propose that Web 2.0 tools, reading-level classification tools, text-to-speech (TTS) systems and intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) may be exploited for developing distance learners' reading skills. Similarly, Hubbard (2017) reports that 3D immersive environments are gaining in importance for teaching listening to distance learners and stresses that teachers need to keep up with the innovations in educational technologies. Li et al. (2017) focus on the benefits of using Web 2.0 tools, automated writing evaluation (AWE) systems and corpus-based tools for developing the writing skills of distance language learners and encourage distance teachers to recognize and experience the potential of such innovations in assisting L2 writing. It should be admitted that the hardest skill to teach in DE is probably speaking, particularly in asynchronous modes of DE. The contribution of paralinguistic and extralinguistic features inherent in face-to-face communication is likely to be nonexistent in DE and some distance learners (and even teachers) may find it unusual and more challenging to speak in front of a web-cam rather than real interlocutors. Blake (2017) maintains that CALL applications can be employed to promote L2 speaking and teachers need to follow the innovations that are offered by the latest technology. Kozar (2012) advocates the utilization of synchronous audio and video tools with the aim of developing language learners' fluency and accuracy. According to Heift and Vyatkina (2017), Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and intelligent CALL applications, Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) and data-driven learning (DDL) techniques may be utilized to teach grammar in DE. In a similar vein, Ma (2017) suggests that the use of lexical tools (such as e-dictionaries or lexical concordancers) and applications with a special emphasis on the use of mobile technologies and self-regulated learning principles may be useful for teaching vocabulary in DE contexts. As a final note, Murphy et al. (2010) assert that distance teachers need to: a) have native or near-native speaker competence, b) construct a favorable classroom climate in which students can express their ideas, c) scaffold students in pronunciation and grammar, d) have a good command of course content and instructional expertise, e) be approachable, supportive, committed, enthusiastic, well-organized and focused, f) cater for diverse leaning needs and styles, and g) use technology competently.

6. Conclusion

The outbreak of Covid-19 has resulted in a revolution in the routine operations of many sectors including education in that the necessity and significance of technology integration has become well-established. The close relationship between education and technology, marked by growing popularity, has probably been evolving since the invention of paper (Allen et al., 2019; Kwan et al., 2008); however, in the aftermath of the pandemic, labeled as the *new normal*, it is highly likely that this trend of technology integration will not decelerate and the distinctive characteristic of current technology integration is learning *with* rather than *from* technology (Moos, 2017), which implies that DE or blended/hybrid forms of education will continue to be adopted by educational institutions. It should also be noted that our students, also labeled as digital natives, are already engaged with technology in their lives

(Boettcher & Conrad, 2016) and the instructional processes they are exposed to should be delivered in line with their preferences and tendencies. In this regard, this chapter aimed to familiarize the readers with the concept of DE with specific reference to its historical development and technological foundations as well as the steps to be taken in the design, delivery and assessment procedures.

A great majority of studies conducted so far with the aim of comparing the effectiveness of DE with traditional face-to-face education have found *no significant differences* (Allen et al., 2019; Lowenthal & Davidson-Shivers, 2019); nevertheless, it would hardly be justified to argue that both forms of education are comparable in terms of effectiveness and quality since "distance education offerings, including online courses, vary in effectiveness and student satisfaction, in the same manner as in f2f instruction" (Allen et al., 2019, p. 123). Simonson et al. (2015) maintain that a number of factors including the attitudes of students and teachers towards DE, classroom culture, prior learning and distance learning experiences, readiness for DE and students' learning styles correlate with the achievement of students; and thus, success of the overall DE experience.

The implementation of DE charges both the teacher and the learners with some new roles and responsibilities. Graham (2019) and Latchem (2019), for instance, underscore the value of responsibility, autonomy, self-efficacy, engagement and sense of connection in DE and claim that DE is fundamentally a constructive, social interactive, self-regulated and reflective undertaking. Distance teachers need to follow the changes that occur in technological affordances, learner demographics and contextual variables and update their design and implementation of DE (Childs & Crichton, 2019; White, 2003). Correspondingly, distance learners should improve their self-regulation and digital literacy skills and take on the responsibility of their progress.

As a final note, the adequacy of the curricula implemented across teacher education institutions in terms of preparing pre-service teachers for blended/hybrid or distance education needs to be reconsidered. As has been noted above, the curricula do not include any courses that train pre-service teachers for offering DE. Moreover, it should not be forgotten that although a great majority of pre-service teachers feature high levels of digital literacy, it does not secure that they can transfer these skills into their instructional practices. Therefore, rather than just adding one or two theoretical courses on technology into the curriculum, integration of technology into educational practices should be covered and focused on by many other field courses that have practical components such as the technique of microteaching or practicum in order to ensure that pre-service teachers can genuinely make the best use of technology in their practices.

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MULTIPLE CHOICE ITEM WRITING AND ANALYSIS
(A FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION)

Flexibility comes from having multiple choices; wisdom comes from having multiple perspectives.
Robert Dilts

Atilla ÖZDEMİR

1. Introduction

Human beings are acquainted with measurement and evaluation from the moment they fall into their mother's womb. In this period, the health status of the baby is measured and the results are evaluated with the available standard data. Thus, decisions are made regarding the development and health status of the baby. Although we do not realize it until our school years, measurement and evaluation processes that appear in every aspect of our lives become a natural part of our lives. In our daily life, we often make measurements and evaluations to make decisions. For example, in order to choose shoes, we evaluate the shoes that are suitable for our foot size, we need the width and height dimensions to build a football field, we use lights to provide traffic order, and in this process, we try to develop an efficient model by using time measures. We need measurement and evaluation processes in many different areas such as these. All these measurements made in different areas have their own measurement tools and units. These tools and units allow us to make our measurements directly, indirectly or in a derived way.

It can be said that the most important process in which we realize the effect of measurement and evaluation in our daily life is our school years. The most important reason for this is the use of the measurements obtained from the achievement tests applied to the students in the evaluation of course achievement. However, when considered in national standard tests that involve high-stakes tests (Kumandaş & Kutlu, 2010) used for transitioning between levels and continuing higher education, measurement and evaluation processes become an important agenda for all stakeholders in education. Since the purpose of all achievement tests is to measure psychological structures, their development has shown parallelism. In this sense, attempts to measure psychological constructs can be considered as approaching the subject from a much broader perspective.

While tests are generally used to get to know individuals (Cronbach, 1990), psychological tests are used to make standard measurements of an individual's intelligence, abilities, skills, attitudes, etc. (Anastasi, 1988). The use of psychological testing and testing programs is traced back to ancient China around 2200 BC (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2018; Janda, 1997; Popham, 1999). The applied tests included a number of difficult processes called imperial examinations, which were used for the selection of officers and civil servants. The similarities of those tests to modern tests in terms of application methods are striking. The simplest explanation for this situation is that the exam administration procedures and the psychometric properties developed by the Chinese were used as a basis for similar applications in countries such as France (1791), India (1833) and the USA (1883). In exam applications, processes similar to modern practices such as keeping the names of the candidates confidential, filling the papers by different coders so that the handwriting is unrecognizable, implementing exams in small rooms in special exam buildings under similar conditions for each candidate, and

employing at least two independent evaluators when evaluating exam papers have been developed. (Bowman, 1989; Cohen & Swerdlik, 2018).

Tests that have been applied since ancient China can be considered in 3 different ways; the first is the purpose of the test, the second is the content of the test, and the third is how the test content is applied. The use of tests has become widespread in many areas, including clinical, counseling, geriatric, workplace and military purposes. In educational environments, it is still frequently used in the measurement of cognitive, affective and psychomotor areas such as intelligence, achievement, attitude, coordination skills. Moreover, it is seen that certain standards regarding test environments have been established from the past to the present and special exam buildings similar to today's buildings have been built (Bowman, 1989; Cohen & Swerdlik, 2018; Wainer, 1987).

It is seen that the test contents differed by shifting from verbal tests to written tests in the process. While the official exams were administered orally at the University of Bologna (1219), a similar practice was also used in the recruitment of students at the University of Oxford (1639) (Janda, 1997). In this sense, it can be stated that the establishment of examination systems in universities relatively fell behind. Horace Mann has made some criticisms about the limitations of oral exams (Madaus, 1988). In the mid-1800s, Horace Mann was the secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education and was aware of the increasing student enrollment due to immigration. He considered that it was important to establish a common public-school system so that the current system would allow incoming immigrants to be successful. For this, he argued that standardizing curriculum and instruction would reduce the difficulties faced by the growing student population (Smith, 2002). At Mann's direction, in 1845, the Boston School Committee used written essay exams instead of the oral exams to which students were accustomed (Rothman, 1995). Mann stated that the written exams should be applied, and thus, the subjective question selection problem that may arise in oral exams will be eliminated. Written exams had important advantages such as a standardized process for each student, being able to ask more questions, and reducing chance errors. Horace Mann believed that regular written examinations could be valuable tools for comparing the quality of teaching among schools (Caldwell & Courtis, 1925; Madaus & O'Dwyer, 1999). Thus, in the middle of the 19th century, the use of written exams for university entrance became widespread both in America and Europe.

In addition, towards the end of the same century, the fact that psychology became a separate discipline and studies of many scientists such as Darwin, Galton, Cattel, Herbart, Weber, Fechner, Wund, Locke in the fields of individual differences and psychophysics increased the importance of tests (Özgüven, 2007; Wainer et al, 2000). The influence of these studies, especially Galton's works, extends to the present day. Influenced by his cousin Charles Darwin's work 'On the Origin of Species', Galton wrote the book 'Hereditary Genius' and his ideas on the genetic transmission of intelligence have been influential in modern psychology, educational sciences and many other fields since then (Gillham, 2001). As Galton was never satisfied with the problem until he found methods that would express the problems he dealt with in numbers and analyze them statistically, his studies had an important place in the fields of measurement and statistics. Belgian statistician Adolph Quelet is the first person to use statistical method and the normal probability curve (bell curve) in social sciences (Schultz &

Schultz, 2011). In addition, with the work of Galton, the foundations of asking questions such as 'Rating scales' and 'Questionnaire', which are frequently used today, were laid. The widespread use of psychological tests increased gradually with the publication of the intelligence test developed by the French psychologists Alfred Binet and Dr. Th. Simon (1905) at the beginning of the 20th century (Kite, 1915). While all of the Binet intelligence tests and revisions were individual tests that could be applied to adults, after a while, a group of tests was prepared for school children's norms by Pyle (1913) (Boake, 2002). In the World War I that took place in the same period, a commission was established by the American Psychological Association (APA) upon the request of the US army to divide its soldiers into various classes during the war. This commission asked Arthur Otis, who was also a student of Lewis Terman, who created the first group intelligence test, for help in dividing the soldiers into various classes. Arthur Otis prepared the 'Army Alpha' group tests for the literate and the 'Army Beta' group tests for the illiterate (Bell, 1921; DuBois, 1970; Gregory, 2015; Janda, 1997; Otis, 1920).

With these developments, from the beginning of the 20th century, formal education institutions at the level of primary education became widespread. As a result, emphasis has been placed on measuring individual achievements. As a consequence of the rapid rise of the American industry in this process, Frederick Winslow Taylor's standardization-based structure, which prioritized the system in factories, was adopted by Edward Thorndike and formed the basis of school systems. On the basis of Thorndike's structure, adopting the view that 'quality is more important than equality', he adapted Taylorism to the education system to distinguish superior students from those below average (Rose, 2016). Thorndike was also influenced by Francis Galton in his practices. Thus, Thorndike had a great influence on the development of achievement tests in the process, and in the ongoing process, testing studies were also handled by disciplines other than psychology. Especially in the field of statistics, along with Spearman's studies in which he presented the basic principles of psychometry, many statistical algorithms have been put forward for the calculation and interpretation of the reliability coefficient (Aiken & Groth-Marnat, 2006).

In the early 1900s, it was seen that both statistical studies on test processes and different types of tests emerged in order to measure performances related to different skills (Burt, 1911; 1972; Gooddenough, 1926; Lowell, 1919; Porteus, 1915; Woodworth, 1910). With these developments, tests started to be applied collectively, not individually, and the use of multiple-choice tests became widespread with group tests. This was first implemented in the USA in 1901 in the university entrance exam, and in the ongoing process, a committee was established on this subject and an aptitude test called 'Scholastic Aptitude Test' (SAT) was developed and started to be used in 1926. The use of the test has become increasingly widespread and has begun to play an effective role not only in university entrance but also in granting scholarships (Wainer et al, 2015). Today, many universities in the United States use secondary school grades, scores from talent and achievement tests such as SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test), GRE (Graduate Record Examination) and GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test). While letters of recommendation are also considered in this process, some universities may also apply a separate selection exam in addition to these documents (Erdoğan, 2003).

A similar situation was experienced during the transition process to higher education in Turkey. As a result of the increase in the demand for higher education, the process started with a central examination in Ankara University in 1964 and the Interuniversity Selection and Placement Center (ISPC) was established in 1974, and the central examination system for student placement in all higher education institutions started. This center, which was established in 1982, took over the task of developing and implementing the central examination system under the name of Student Selection and Placement Centre (SSPC). The only thing that has not changed in the central exams since 1974 is that the exam questions are multiple-choice items. Although the use of multiple-choice items in tests provides great advantages, it is criticized for its negative effects on pre-university education (Eşme, 2014).

2. Historical Development Process of Multiple-Choice Tests

Although the development of psychological tests can be traced back to before Christ (Table 1), the use of the multiple-choice item format has managed to become one of the most valid and popular test formats for the evaluation of knowledge.

Table 1: Historical Development Process of Psychological Tests*

Year	Occurring Event
B.C. 2200	It is known that the proficiency test is applied in China. The civil servants of the empire were evaluated periodically.
B.C. 400	Plato advises people to work in jobs that are consistent with their skills and knowledge—an idea that will be echoed by psychologists, human resources professionals, and parents for ages.
1734	Christian von Wolf is the author of two books, Experimental Psychology (Psychologia Empirica, 1732) and Rational Psychology (Psychologia Rationalis, 1734), which envisioned psychology as a science. Von Wolf, a student of Gottfried Leibniz, put emphasis on the idea of perceptions below the level of awareness, which was Leibniz's thesis, thus predicting Freud's idea of the unconsciousness.
1829	English Philosopher James Mill, in his Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind, suggested that intelligence consists of emotions and thoughts. Mill envisioned an approach called structuralism that aims to reveal the basic components that make up the mind in experimental psychology.
1845	Printed exams were used for the first time by the Boston School Committee under the guidance of educator Horace Mann.
1864	George Fisher, a British teacher, constructed a series of assessments of simple questions and answered the test questions as a guide for assessing students.
1869	Sir Francis Galton, cousin of Charles Darwin, published 'Hereditary Genius', which had an important place in (a) the claim that genius was hereditary, and (b) the use of the statistical technique, which Karl Pearson would later call correlation. Galton would later make many different contributions to measurement with his discoveries and innovations.
1890	American psychologist James McKeen Cattell coined the term mental testing in a publication. Cattell would go on to establish several publications, notably the Journal of Science and Psychology. In 1921 he formed the Psychology Association for the 'beneficial use of psychology'.
1892	Psychiatrist Emil Kraeplin, working with Wundt, planned a research in which he used a word association test. Also, in 1892, the American Psychological Association (APA) was formed with 31 members, mainly thanks to the efforts of its first president, G. Stanley Hall.
1904	Charles Spearman, a student of Wundt in Leipzig, began to lay the groundwork for the concept of test reliability. Spearman also began to establish the mathematical framework of factor analysis. E. L. Thorndike's 'An Introduction to the Theory of Mental and Social Measurements', the first essential test book on educational measures, was published.

1905	Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon published a 30-item 'intelligence scale', developed in Paris to help identify school-aged children with intellectual disabilities. The concept of measuring intelligence was accepted by readers around the world.
1908	A revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence test was published.
1910	In his article 'Handwriting', E. L. Thorndike developed the 'Children's Handwriting Scale', one of the first standardized tests to include arithmetic, handwriting, language, and spelling. This article contained 16 handwriting examples ranked by skill level.
1914	The World War I contributed greatly to test-enforcement studies, as thousands of soldiers had to be selected very quickly for mental function and emotional disposition. Alpha and Beta (first group intelligence tests), used as exams in the army, were structured and applied on newly recruited soldiers.
1916	After years of research, Lewis M. Terman at Stanford University published the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. This American adaptation and revision of the test, first developed in France, would become commonly known as the Stanford-Binet.
1926	The Council of Higher Education supported the development of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and applied the test for the first time.
1927	Carl Spearman published two-factor theory of intelligence in which he assumed the general intelligence factor (g) and specific components of general intelligence. Also, in 1927, German neurologist Kurt Goldstein began a study on brain-damaged soldiers in World War I. Many of these tests examined the ability to make inferences.
1931	L. L. Thurstone published Multi-Factor Analysis, a landmark study that had far more impact than statistical analysis; this had the effect of focusing research attention on cognitive abilities.
1939	While working at Bellevue Hospital in New York City, David Weschler introduced the Weschler-Bellevue Intelligence Test, which was developed to measure adult intelligence. This test would later be revised and become the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Test. Subsequently, additional Wechsler tests used for children and preschoolers would be developed and periodically revised.
1940	The World War II brought about the urgent need for a tool to be used to qualify for recruitment. In the same year, psychologist Starke R. Hathaway and psychiatrist/neurologist John Charnley McKinley published their first newspaper article on the test they were developing, now known as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.
1951	Lee Cronbach developed the alpha coefficient to measure the reliability of tests. Cronbach's formula was a modification of the KR-20 (the twentieth formula of George Frederic Kuder and Marion Webster Richardson). Conceptually, Cronbach's alpha calculated the mean of all possible split-half test correlations corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula.
1954	Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget published an original and influential study on cognitive development in children.
1970	The use of computers increased in the design, management, conclusion, analysis and evaluation of tests.
1971	It was decided to use tests in job applications (USA).
1980	Frederic M. Lord's book, 'Applications of Item Response Theory To Practical Testing Problems' was published. This book became a pioneering work in the field, just like the earlier works in the field by American Psychometrist M. W. Richardson (1891-1965), Danish psychometrist Georg Rasch (1901-1980), and others.
1985	The Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing was published.
1998	An article by Anthony Greenwald et al. in the Journal of Personality and Social Psychology presented a methodology for measuring implicit cognition through the implicit-association test.

* Some selected events are given in chronological order. (Source: Aiken& Groth-Marnat, 2006; Cohen & Swerdlik, 2018)

Table 1 shows that the multiple-choice test format was first used during the World War 1 in the Army Alpha test, which was used by the US Army to classify 1.5 million soldiers for

military purposes (Downing, 2006). Today, multiple-choice items are widely used in a variety of settings, including school tests, university exams, professional aptitude tests, and even TV quiz shows. Undoubtedly, the most important reason why multiple-choice tests have such a wide usage area is their objective evaluation (Baker, 2001).

From a historical perspective, the reason for the dependence on the use of traditional multiple-choice exams is clear. Professor Wood of Columbia University participated in a collaboration with IBM engineers in 1934 to develop a mechanical test scoring machine. The first model was developed by science teacher R. Johnson. "The developed machine adopts the logic of reliably reading the marking number of the graphite pencil, which conducts electricity at predetermined positions on a piece of paper, from an ammeter" (Kezer, 2013, p. 12). As a result of this, costs decreased due to the labor required in scoring other question types, at the same time, exam booklets were reused, and testing programs were developed with the ability to conduct exams for large groups at the same time. As a result of these developments, it has become inevitable to adhere to the multiple-choice question type in exams. For these reasons, multiple choice items are mostly preferred in high-risk exams/assessments (high-stakes tests/testing/assessment) (Kumandaş & Kutlu, 2010). High-risk exams are used for exams that have very important results for individuals, such as transitioning to a higher grade or higher education, and thus, causing anxiety (Başaran, 2005; Casbarro, 2004; Cizek, 2001; Orfield & Wald, 2000; Özer- Özkan & Turan, 2021; Resnick, 2004). In this sense, such exams as HSES/LGS (High School Entrance System), BPT/TYT (Basic Proficiency Test), FPT/AYT (Field Proficiency Test), PPSE/KPSS (Public Personnel Selection Exam), APPEEE/ALES (Academic Personnel and Postgraduate Education Entrance Exam), FLPT/YDS (Foreign Language Proficiency Test), MSE/TUS (Medical Specialization Exam) can be identified as high-risk exams. The most obvious common feature of these exams is that the exam questions in each of them consist of multiple-choice items. High-risk exams also significantly affect in-class assessments. In his study, Sınacı (2019) examined teacher-made exams held before and after TEOG (central joint exam for transition from primary to secondary education) and found that in some schools, teacher-made exams conducted before TEOG included questions and scoring that were not similar to TEOG's, while teacher-made exams conducted after TEOG showed a higher correlation with TEOG. He stated that the placement scores obtained from the TEOG were not calculated fairly since the results of teacher-made exams were tried to be equated to TEOG results. In the study conducted by Özdemir et al. (2021), a total of 60 exam papers were examined in 4 different courses, including Turkish, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies courses. It was found that 833 (51%) of 1632 questions in total were prepared in multiple-choice format. As a result, it can be stated that teachers have to plan an exam-oriented course content and build their teaching on multiple-choice questions (Çetin & Ünsal, 2019).

Despite the widespread use of traditional multiple-choice items (MC), it has been observed that there are some limitations. Two of the most obvious ones are test wiseness and cheating. These are the limitations that negatively affect the psychometric properties of the test when there are measures other than the information that a test wants to measure. It is possible to present the advantages and disadvantages of traditional multiple-choice items as in Table 2.

Table 2: Advantages and Disadvantages of Traditional Multiple-Choice Items

| Advantages	Disadvantages
High content validity.	Students can answer the questions correctly by chance.
Difficulty of the question can be modified by changing the options.	Since the answers are scored correctly or incorrectly, it is not possible to distinguish between students who have no knowledge about the subject and those who have partial knowledge.
Rating is objective. Thus, high reliability measurements can be made.	Since factors such as reading speed in questions with long question stems will be included in the measurement process, students with different reading speeds at the same knowledge level may get different scores.
With item analysis, detailed statistics on items and options can be obtained.	It is difficult to measure behaviors related to the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy.
Can be applied to large groups as it can be read quickly with the help of machines.	Familiarity with the test and cheating are relatively easy compared to other types of tests.
Can be used at all educational levels.	Designing a good one is difficult and takes a long time.
Since it consists of many questions, it is a wide-ranging exam with the highest validity and reliability.	Adjusting the difficulty level of questions requires expertise.

(Source: Atılgan vd., 2009; Baykul, 1999; Chatterji, 2003; Karataş et al., 2003; Kline; 2000; Kubiszyn & Borich, 1996; Miller et al., 2012; Özgüven, 2011; Murphy & Davidshofer, 2005; Turgut & Baykul, 2010)

Although there are various types of multiple-choice items, the most frequently used ones are traditional multiple-choice items. In addition, there are matched multiple choice items, alternative choices, best answer items, broad matched items, true-false items, complex multiple-choice items, multiple true-false items, content-dependent item sets, and discrete multiple-choice item types (Foster & Miller, 2009; Haladyna, 2004).

In the following section, the traditional multiple-choice item type, which is frequently used in large-scale and classroom measurements, is emphasized.

3. Writing Traditional Multiple-Choice Items

Traditional multiple-choice items basically consist of two parts: question stem and options. It is possible to detail these two parts as in Figure 1.
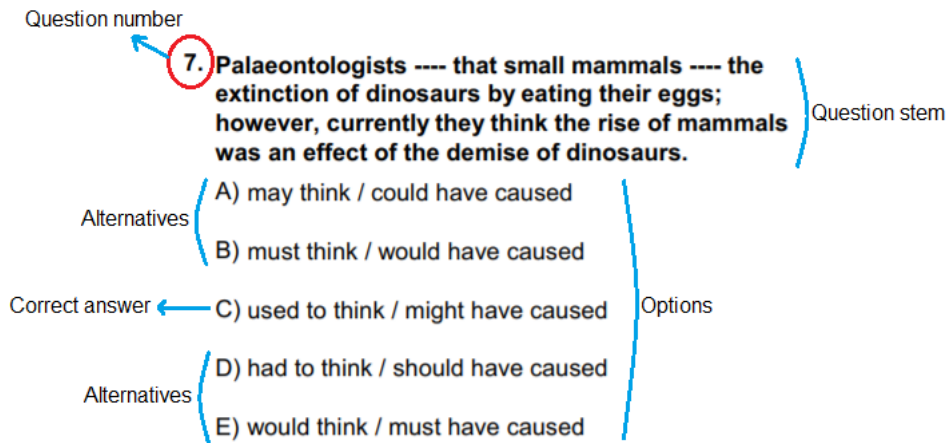
Figure 1: Traditional Multiple-Choice Test Item Structure

Figure 1 demonstrates that the multiple-choice item consists of a question stem and options with one of them being the correct answer. In general, items are prepared with three (primary school), four (secondary school) and five (high school and above) options. The main purpose of this is to reduce chance factor, to distinguish students who do not have the expected information about the item or who do not know the correct answer.

Although the classical multiple-choice item seems like a simple structure, the usage areas of the tests in which these items are used are very wide. Such a situation reveals a number of basic features that should be considered for the preparation of multiple-choice tests. These features can be briefly listed as follows (Başol, 2013; Doğan, 2007; Güler, 2012; Haladyna, 1996; Haladyna et al., 2002; Otbiçer, 2004; Öncü, 2003; Özçelik, 1997; Turgut & Baykul, 2012):

1. The question stem should be prepared to measure a single outcome and should clearly state what the problem to be answered is.

2. Necessary information should be given only for those who have the measured gain in the question stem. Unnecessary, clue-like information and questions whose answers may vary from person to person should be avoided.

3. Each item should focus only on a single mental skill, rather than complex chains of behaviors and skills. Traps should be avoided.

4. The test items should be written in a clear language; the expression should be precise and should not allow for different interpretations. Words that will change the meaning of the sentence, such as 'often', 'sometimes', 'rarely', lead to different interpretations instead of giving certainty to the item. Provided that the item is kept clear, it should be tried to be expressed in a minimum of words.

5. The information given in the question stem must be scientifically correct and consistent, and must have a clear correct answer.

6. The difficulty level of the test items should be kept well below the average reading ability of the group that will answer the test.

7. Written sources such as test items and other written materials to be used in the tests, textbooks, etc. should not be used verbatim.

8. The test item should not ask for trivial details. Otherwise, perfect but equally invalid items can be created.

9. The items in the same test should not contain clues that will enable one other to be answered.

10. The options should be compatible with the question stem in terms of meaning and grammar. The lengths of the options should be close to each other.

11. Options should be similar in wording, length and scope. In terms of sentence structure, if the wrong options do not resemble the question stem or the correct option is more similar to the question stem, it will be easier for the respondents who do not have the expected information to select the correct one. The options should be independent of each other and one should not include the others.

12. In items where options can be put in order, their placement in the options must be in a certain order. For example, numeric options should be given in ascending or descending order.

13. The number of options should be appropriate for the level of the student to which the test is addressed. For example, three options in primary school; four options in secondary school; five options are recommended for high school and above. The number of options for all items in a test must be the same.

14. While writing the options, it is recommended to use capital letters so that they can be noticed more easily by the student. Also, the options should not be overlapping, and one option should not cover the other.

15. The options should not include 'all' and 'none'; because these are attractive answers. Especially in questions asking 'the most correct' answer, 'none' should not be included in the options as this situation creates an expression disorder. In addition, in the questions with the 'all' option, the person who is sure that the two answers are correct will easily select the 'all' option.

16. Distractors should attract those who do not know and those who know wrong just in accordance with their purpose. Distractors that confuse the ones who know the correct answer should be avoided. Misconceptions should be considered in the writing of distractors.

17. The difficulty of the item increases as the degree of closeness of the distractors to the correct answer increases. Item difficulty is adjusted according to the purpose of the test. Therefore, the degree of closeness of the distractors to the correct answer should be adjusted according to the difficulty level of the test.

4. Calculation of Multiple-Choice Item Statistics

There are stages in the preparation of a test in which multiple choice items are used. Basically, the process of preparing a test consisting of multiple-choice items consists of 5

basic stages (Airasian, 1994; Anastasia, 1988; APA, 1999; Haladyna, 1997; 1999; Kline, 1986; Özçelik, 1997):

1. Determining the purpose of the test (identifying learning deficiencies, measuring the level of success, evaluating the curriculum etc.)

2. The scope of the test and the behaviors to be measured (searching for resources on the subject, seeking expert opinion, textbooks etc.)

3. Writing test items (There must be at least one item measuring each achievement in the final form, more than one item should be prepared in the trial form)

4. Item proofreading (whether the item is qualified to measure the behavior to be measured, whether there is a scientific mistake, whether it is understandable in terms of language, whether there are grammatical/spelling mistakes, whether the test and items are defective in terms of technical features, etc.)

5. Trial form (The materials to be used are selected)

6. Creating the form (Items are placed in the form according to the group level to be applied. At this stage, typesetting, font, etc. procedures are completed. Pilot test is conducted and the statistical analysis stage is started)

7. Analysis of the measurements of the test (The reliability of the scores obtained from the test is analyzed.)

8. Item analysis (Item discrimination, item difficulty and distractor efficiency.)

9. Creation of the final test (The final test form is prepared as a measurement tool based on the statistical results obtained from the pilot test.)

5. Psychometric Properties of Multiple-Choice Tests

In order for a test to be considered psychometrically adequate, it must be demonstrated by appropriate statistical methods that the test accurately measures the variable it aims to measure and that the results it gives are consistent (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2017). The psychometric values of the scores obtained from a multiple-choice test can be calculated by classical test theory (CTT) or item response theory (IRT). While calculations related to item response theory generally require large data (at least 500), classical test theory is preferred for small groups. In this study, calculations will be made with classical test theory.

The features that should be present in a test can be listed as reliability, validity and practicality.

Reliability: For a multiple-choice test to be reliable, its results must be consistently similar across different measures or on different raters. In addition, there should be consistency between the items of the test.

Internal Consistency: Internal consistency is an analysis that shows that test items consistently evaluate the same variable. In tests consisting of multiple-choice items and scored as 1-0 (true-false), one of the indicators of internal consistency is the statistically calculated KR-20-21 coefficients. The KR-20 coefficient and the Cronbach's alpha value are

equal. "The range of reliability measures are rated as follows: i) less than 0.50, the reliability is low, ii) between 0.50 and 0.80 the reliability is moderate and iii) greater than 0.80, the reliability is high" (Salvucci et al., 1997, p. 115). Another method that shows internal consistency is the correlation of the item score with the total score. Correlation of the items with the total score is expected to be 0.3 and above (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 303). Similarly, the change in KR-20 value when the item is deleted is also important. If an item in a test is deleted and the internal consistency of the test increases significantly, then that item may be measuring a different variable than other items in the test (Field, 2003).

Factors to consider to enhance the reliability of a test:

1- As the number of questions increases, reliability increases.
2- Clearly understandable and answerable questions increase reliability.
3- Respondents should be encouraged to answer each question carefully and quickly.
4- The duration of the exam should be long enough for almost all students to answer all the questions.
5- Every exam should be scored in an objective way.
6- Difficulties should not be encountered during the implementation of the test.

Validity*:* Validity is a concept that describes how well a test measures its purpose. A valid test can accurately measure the target variable.

Content Validity: The concept of content validity is related to the inclusiveness of the tests regarding the features associated with the variable it aims to measure. The first step in content validity is to collect theoretical information about the subject while developing the test and to create a table of specifications accordingly.

Criterion Validity: Criterion validity is a concept of how useful the test result is. Criterion validity is very important as it is the practical demonstration of whether the test measures the variable it aims to measure.

Construct Validity: Construct validity is a concept related to whether the test items form a structure suitable for the theoretical knowledge on the subject. It is necessary for the test items to form sub-dimensions and a structure as a whole that is compatible with the relevant theory.

Face Validity: Face validity is related to the test taker's ability to understand the characteristic that the test is intended to measure. Unlike other types of validity, it is determined by expert opinion rather than statistical calculations.

Factors to consider to enhance the validity of a test:

1- Each question should be prepared in such a way as to reveal and measure at least one of the behaviors we want to measure.
2- Each question should be prepared in a way that distinguishes those who have the target behavior we measure and those who do not.
3- After the question items are prepared, the opinions of the group teachers should be sought.
4- It is absolutely necessary to prepare the test reliably.

5- The test should be prepared in a way that it is both inclusive and representative of the curriculum.

6- The questions should be neither too hard nor too easy.

7- The same questions should not be used for successive years without changing them.

8- Any mistake that may occur in the scoring of the papers will also reduce the validity.

9- Cheating also reduces validity.

If the reliability of a test is low, its validity is also low. However, a test with high reliability may not have high validity, even may have low validity. Therefore, reliability is a prerequisite for validity, but it is not sufficient on its own.

Practicality*:* Practicality is the concept of how much benefit a test provides compared to its cost.

6. Item Analysis in Multiple-Choice Tests

In item analysis in multiple choice tests, three main topics will be focused on: item difficulty, item discrimination, and distractor efficiency.

Item Difficulty Index (p_j): The difficulty of a test item is the ratio of the number of correct answers to the number of all respondents (Özçelik, 1997, p. 123). Item difficulty index is the percentage of answering the question correctly (Tekin, 1984). Item difficulty index (p_j) takes values between 0 (zero) and 1. The closer the item difficulty index is to 0, the more difficult the item (question) is, and the closer to 1, the easier the item (question). The item difficulty index of a medium difficulty item (question) is between 0.40 and 0.60, and nearly half of the respondents are expected to answer the question correctly.

n_j : the number of people who answered the item correctly,

n_s : total number of students,

p_j: The item difficulty value is calculated with the following formula:

$$p_j = \frac{n_j}{n_s}$$

Item Discrimination Index (r_{jx}): It is also called the item validity coefficient. It is the correlation of an item with the test. This statistic is calculated with one of the biserial or point-biserial correlation coefficients. The discrimination of a test item is its power to distinguish respondents who have probed behavior from those who do not (Özçelik, 1997 p. 123). In short, it is the power to distinguish between those who know the correct answer to the question and those who do not. A high item discrimination coefficient means that there is a high correlation between the item score and the test score, and that students who correctly answer that item get a high score in the entire test. If it is low, it means that students who score high on the whole test cannot answer that item correctly. Therefore, we obtain the knowledge of the degree of distinguishing between the student who knows and the student who does not know, with the power of item discrimination.

n_j: 27% upper group,

n_x:27% lower group,

n: The number of students who fall into the 27% lower or 27% upper,

r_{jx} :The discrimination index of the item is calculated with the following formula:

$$r_{jx} = \frac{n_{j-} \, n_x}{n}$$

Even though the item discrimination index is a correlation coefficient, we can analyze it together with the item difficulty and interpret it by using Table 3.

Table 3: Item Difficulty and Item Discrimination Index Ranges

Item Difficulty Index Value (p_j)	Interpretation	Item Discrimination Index Value (r_{jx})	Interpretation
0,00 – 0,19	Very Hard	-1,00 – 0,00	Item does not work
0,20 – 0,39	Hard	0,00 – 0,15	Very low discrimination
0,40 – 0,59	Medium Hard	0,16 – 0,29	Low level discrimination, should be corrected
0,60 – 0,79	Easy	0,30 – 0,49	Acceptable level of discrimination
0,80 – 1,00	Very Easy	0,50 – 1,00	Good discrimination

(Source: Kutlu & Vefikuluçay, 2003)

Distractor Efficiency: Analyzing the options is important to see which options work how well. For this, options are analyzed below based on real data. Analyzes were made using TAP (Test Analysis Program), which is a free program (Ayhan, 2010).
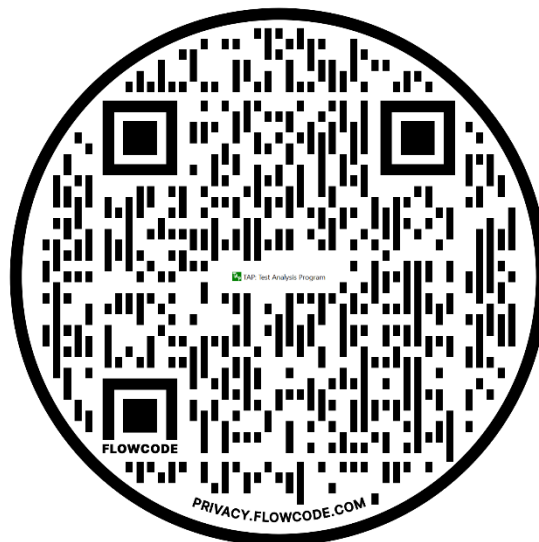
Video 1: Test Analysis Program (TAP)

7. Summary

This section focused on the basics of preparing a traditional multiple-choice test and analyzing test items. Additionally, information regarding how traditional multiple-choice items emerged in the historical process and their usage areas were provided. A sample video application about the reliability of the test results and the statistical analysis of the items were presented, and the data file was shared, allowing readers to use the application.

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SUCCESS STORY OF AN INTENSIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAM: ACTIONABLE EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Oya TUNABOYLU

1. Introduction

English is the most preferred language in written and spoken discourses all around the world. In a recent study, English appeared to be the most spoken language with 1.35 billion people worldwide followed by Chinese Mandarin by 1.12 billion people (Szimigiera, 2021). Additionally, English is the language of science that the majority of scholarly articles, up to 98 % of publications written, are in English (Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020). That being said, English maintains the status of being a 'lingua franca', the language for mutual communication, in the world. As thus, it would not be difficult to estimate that English is by far the most-studied target language around the world by up to 1.5 million learners as of 2014.

The case is not different in Turkey; English is the most preferred and taught foreign language in Turkey (Baş-Collins, 2020). To this end, English language instruction has always been a priority in the educational agenda of the Turkish policy-makers. One obvious evidence to back up this argument is that the English language was integrated into the second grade of the primary school education as a required course starting in the 2013-2014 academic year. Given time and effort invested in teaching English, the proficiency level of Turkish students is not satisfactory. EF (Education First) agency released (2020) Turkish students' English proficiency report as 'low' ranking 39th out of 100 countries included in the survey. According to the country-wise report, Turkey was found to be 33th out of the 34 European countries.

In Turkey, housed in both state and private universities, Schools of Foreign Languages (SFL) (aka foundation or English preparatory schools), offer one year intensive English language instruction to undergraduate students as a departmental requirement. That is, some departments require their potential students to study English intensively for a year before they start their disciplinary studies. The studies conducted across the country so far to investigate the existent problems and the efficacy of the instruction provided at SFL revealed that there are problems such as: teacher-led classes, lack of emphasis on speaking skills, lack of practice components in the four language skills, unmotivating coursebooks, poorly-designed curriculum and courses, coursebook-bound instruction, lack of practice component accompanying regular courses (Örs, 2006; Karataş & Fer, 2009; Özkanal & Hakan, 2010; Baş-Collins 2020; Demirtaş & Sert, 2020).

Although the title of the chapter reads 'story', everything included in this chapter is real. The chapter will present a plethora of extra-curricular activities that have been tested and confirmed as beneficial in a SFL at a state university. The practices can be regarded exemplary as the school was granted European Language Label Award twice for two innovative teaching projects. That being said, the primary purpose of this chapter is to showcase a success story that will presumably inspire teaching staff working in such schools by replicating and adapting some of the presented activities in their own contexts.

2. Prevalent Concepts in Current Language Teaching and Learning Practices

Language learning is a complex and multidimensional process including cognitive variables such as language aptitude, learning strategies, learning habits, affective variables like language learning anxiety, personality-related variables, and demographic variables such as the age of the learner (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995). All these parameters have an impact on a language learner's learning processes which are traditionally compartmentalized in three stages as input, processing and output.

To begin with, language teaching and learning practices and accompanying competencies are shaped by changing needs and expectations of a particular age. During the pre-methods period, the ancient languages such as Latin and Greek were taught by teachers solely relying on the epitomes of the Grammar-Translation method. Simply put, literary texts were used to teach linguistic structures and vocabulary items through memorization. It was not until the emergence of the communicative approaches to language teaching in the 1970s that the language competency was limited to primarily teaching decontextualized linguistic elements. Canale and Swain (1980) redefined the meaning of knowing a language in their seminal article. In their conceptualization of communicative competence they highlighted four competencies as linguistic (rules, lexical knowledge and so on), sociolinguistic (use of the language appropriately in social contexts), discourse competence (appropriate coherence and cohesion in the oral and written communication), and finally strategic competence (knowing and generating strategies to survive).

As the borders of the world have started to shrink thanks to the globalization, intercultural competence emerged as another vital competency along with formerly-established language competencies (Alptekin, 2002). The basic premise of the intercultural competency is that effective communication across the borders in a globalized world can be ensured by intercultural competence.

In the current era of digitalized world where there is an abundance of digital instructional sources outside the classroom available to what Prensky (2001) calls 'digital natives', teachers' reliance on taken-for-granted pedagogical teaching skills of the past appears to be a big fallacy. In sum, language learning and teaching practices performed by learners and teachers are prone to change in accordance with the necessities that arise in a particular course of time period. However, what remains constant is that people will continue learning languages to express themselves by harnessing written and oral affordances appropriately in a context-sensitive manner. In recent years, three important concepts; exposure, engagement, and positive psychology have been situated in the language teaching/learning literature. Closely related to the language teaching pedagogies, these concepts are well credited in increasing number of empirical studies.

2.1. Exposure

The concept of exposure is associated with usage-based approaches. These approaches operate on the premise that language learning is linked with input and experience with language (Ellis & Cadierno, 2009; Muñoz et al., 2018; Tomasello, 2003). More specifically, aligned with the usage-based approaches, this concept suggests that inside and outside

learning contexts might have an impact on language learning process. That is, input-rich environments outside the classroom are promising for learners to improve proficiency. Drawing from the above argument, we can deduce that learners may achieve higher levels of competency when they are exposed to input-rich activities outside the classroom. Given the fact that classroom instruction is limited to the input provided by teachers through coursebooks or similar teaching materials, the provision of input-rich learning ecology additional to the classroom instruction needs to be given due credit.

With regards to the classroom input, some researchers argue that poor input, both in terms of quality and quantity offered in the classrooms lead to slow learning rate. Additionally, scholars also argue that most classroom instruction fosters explicit learning (DeKeyser, 2012; Munaz, 2006; Munoz & Cadierno 2012). Thus, in order for learners to improve the target language skills, they need to be exposed to extra activities that they can practice and internalize the target language beyond the classroom walls. As is asserted, teaching does not occur in a vacuum; metabolizing what is learned inside the classroom is likely to be translated into tangible practices when students are exposed to language-rich activities. In doing so, students can find venues to experiment and internalize what they are instructed within classrooms. To exemplify, a study conducted on Japanese L1 learners revealed that students' pronunciation skills have improved in spades after getting exposed to extra activities inside and outside the classroom (Saito & Hanzawa, 2018).

2.2. Engagement

Another prevalent concept in the current language learning and teaching practices is engagement. The concept of engagement was traditionally associated with the field of education and was found to have promising impact on overall learning outcomes. Primary concerns of the earliest studies were compartmentalized in students' engagement with school and school community with an emphasis on drop-out rates, lack of motivation in school activities (Case 2007 as cited in Zhang 2020; Mann 2001).

Since its emergence in the field of education, this complex and multifaceted concept has been researched in various studies. Based on a study conducted by Anderson et al. (2004), the concept was conceptualized in four different layers as behavioral (e.g. participating in extra-curricular and class activities), academic (e.g. task completion, time spent for learning and while engaging with a task), cognitive (e.g. utilizing learning strategies or self-regulated learning modalities), and psychological (e.g. relationships with teachers and the sense of belonging to a school culture). Some other researchers have come up with different conceptualizations of the concept of engagement. Dunleavy (2008), for instance, investigated the learner engagement at secondary schools in Canada and proposed a tripartite conceptualization of the concept as behavioral (e.g. participation in school activities and attendance), academic-cognitive (e.g. time assigned to task, homework assignment completion) and social-psychological dimension encompassing motivation and interest so on. The concept has also found its place in language teaching arena in relation to its many constructs that are linked with the discipline such as cognitive, behavioral and academic dimensions. The concept of engagement is promising for teachers as it provides insights into

teaching practices that can create optimal learning environment thereby facilitating learner engagement.

The concept of exposure suggests that input is vital in language learning process. However, quality and quantity of the provided input is also important. Language learners need to be surrounded by language-rich environments both in and outside the classroom. Thus, they can engage with the input at academic and cognitive levels. Linked with the education discipline, the concept of engagement, on the other hand, suggests that students need to be provided with instructional affordances that trigger engagement at behavioral, academic and cognitive levels. In a nutshell, both concepts point out the characteristics of favorable teaching milieu where students are surrounded by rich and quality input of desirable quantity in and beyond the classroom. Once students are provided with language-rich learning affordances they will likely get engaged in the learning process. Along with the aforementioned concepts of exposure and engagement, the concept of positive psychology has potential to link with the scope of the chapter at hand.

2.3. Positive Psychology

The concept of positive psychology (PP) was first introduced in a seminal work produced by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000). The rationale and primary argument in the work was a needed shift in the focus from negative emotions to more positive ones. More specifically, there is a fixation in psychology on highlighting the negative emotions over positive ones such as hope, love and enjoyment. However, in reality, life is a mixture of both good and bad instances. Of the definitions proposed so far, Peterson's (2006) definition of positive psychology as "the scientific study of what goes right in life, from birth to death and at all stops in between" (p. 4, cited in Wang et al., 2021) provides the backbone of the concept of positive psychology.

The concept has been positioned in the language studies by advocating the integration of both positive and negative emotions. In line with PP, various studies on enjoyment of learning experience, happiness, emotional intelligence have appeared along with bulky studies accentuating negative emotions with regards to language learning. Supporters of positive psychology in language acquisition argued that in the past, the subject areas researched in L2 were clustered around negative aspects such as anxiety, burn out, or boredom. However, the concept of positive psychology in L2 suggests that separation between two ends of the emotional continuum is nearly impossible. That is, the positive psychology researchers in L2 advocated accentuating and investigating both groups of emotions especially the good ones instead of creating a sheer polarity between positive and negative emotions.

Seligman and Csikzentmihalyi (2014) stated the pillars of positive psychology as whatever is positive in the realm of emotions, subjective experiences and personality characteristics. Since the onset of the concept in education field and its transfer to L2 teaching discipline, Oxford's (2016) EMPATHICS model of nine components has become an important step. Largely drawing from the PERMA model proposed by Seligman (2011), Oxford's EMPATHICS model stands for;

1. Emotion and empathy,

2. Meaning and motivation
3. Perseverance, including hope, resilience and optimism
4. Agency and autonomy
5. Time
6. Hardiness and habits of mind
7. Intelligences
8. Character, strengths and
9. Self factors (self-verification, self-esteem, self-concept, and self-efficacy)   (Wang et al 2021. p.3)

As can be seen from the items included in the model, almost every detail that might impact learning is included. In the figure below, possible PP dimensions for language teaching are presented (Wang et al., 2021). Although it is beyond the scope of this chapter to review every parameter in the figure in detail, the PP factor of enjoyment is truly worth mentioning in relation to the topic of the chapter at hand which is extra-curricular activities. Based on the findings of various empirical studies it has been stated that foreign language enjoyment (FLE) is an underestimated subject, yet influential in terms of motivation, engagement and overall achievement of the students. Furthermore, research studies on FLE also indicated that teacher-related factors are more definitive in the whole process. That is, teacher's support, friendliness, tone of voice, sense of humor or respect toward students were found to be correlated with students' overall achievement. Enjoyment in itself is stated to be a factor which stimulates engagement in the activities. Therefore, it is crucial that students are provided with opportunities that they can enjoy while learning. To this end, it can be stated that well-designed extra-curricular activities have potential to create enjoyment-filled learning ecology at SFL.

In a nutshell, the concepts of exposure, engagement and positive psychology all have valuable insights into rationalization of extra-curricular activities at Schools of Foreign Languages. Exposed (**exposure**) to well-designed extra-curricular activities, learners can find joyful learning milieu (**enjoyment**) where they can get engaged (**engagemen**t) in language-rich learning processes.
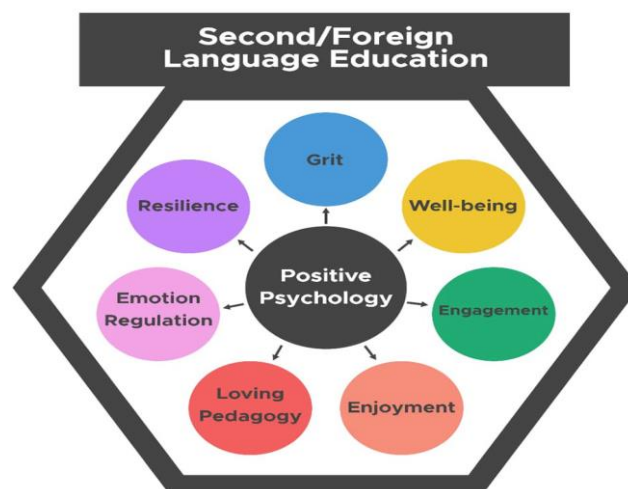

Figure 1: Positive psychology factors contributing to the second/foreign language learning experience (Wang et al., 2021, p.6).

The rest of the paper will be devoted to the extra-curricular activities that were successfully conducted with promising outputs at a state SFL in Turkey. The following section is divided into two major sections; the activities designed for the instructors working at the school and the students who are receiving EFL instruction.

2.4. Instructors

As it is repeatedly mentioned in the related literature, instructors, as game changers, are the gatekeepers of quality education at all levels. Simply put, quality education can be ensured by only quality instructors. As thus, continuing professional development of instructors comes to fore as a must for quality education. Below is a list of ideas that can be actualized to help instructors both develop professionally and teach effectively.

2.5. ln-service Seminars from Within

In-service seminars are typically considered the major source of professional development pursuits for both teachers working at primary or secondary schools and instructors working at higher education institutions. Generally speaking, at SFL, teacher trainers affiliated with major publishing houses provide seminars for the instructors. However, in order to create collegiality and establish what might be called 'learning culture' at schools, instructors should be given the opportunity to conduct seminars themselves along with the other type of seminars given by invited teacher trainers. In the related literature, the concept of 'communities of practice' points out a theoretical framework in which teachers collaborate to learn (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999; Lave & Wenger 1991). In line with this, the instructors working at SFL can be asked to choose a topic of their interest and give a seminar to their colleagues. In so doing, the instructors will develop professionally thereby creating a 'learning community'.

2.6. Seminars from Outside

As mentioned earlier, typically in-service seminars for the instructors are provided by the teacher trainers from the publishing houses. Usually the case is the teacher trainer presents what s/he has on his/her professional agenda. That is, the content is usually determined by the teacher trainer. However, these seminars can be more beneficial if they are informed by the professional needs of the instructors working at SFL. That is, the school management can conduct needs analysis surveys to identify the real needs of the instructors before arranging such seminars. For instance, instructors at a particular SFL might need to learn how to create a rubric to assess oral presentation or spoken language skills and the school might ask the teacher trainers to give a seminar particularly on this subject.

2.7. Ongoing Assessment Meetings

Addressing usually to large groups of students, the SFL which provide intensive English instruction are busy programs with tests, quizzes, lessons devised at various proficiency levels and managing some curricular details. That is, co-ordination of tasks and general flow of the work at such busy programs require allocation of agency among teaching staff. In line with this, instructors can form autonomous teams under lesson sections such as; Listening-Speaking, Reading-Writing, Main Course, and so on. In doing so, instructors will be encouraged to hold section-wise meetings autonomously as teams and make decisions based

on the needs of their lesson section. The concept of autonomy is highlighted for both students and teachers as well in the related literature (Holec 1981; Lamb 2008). The existence of autonomous teachers at a SFL will serve two purposes. In the first place, autonomous teachers will have a voice in the decisions related to the school which, in turn, will nurture a sense of belonging to the school. Secondly, autonomous teachers will be aware of the problems that might occur in the school system and adopt a proactive stance.

As is widely agreed, assessment is a crucial component of every educational setting at all levels. The case is not different at SFL. In order to realize educational endeavors smoothly and effectively at busy schools like SFL, holding regular ongoing assessment meetings with the participation of all teaching staff is crucial. During these weekly meetings where the school management and the instructors, that is, teams of instructors representing their own lesson sections get together to evaluate the past week and plan the next week. During these meetings, the instructors representing different lesson sections will have an opportunity to share the decisions taken in their group meetings with both the management board and their colleagues. Holding regular weekly ongoing assessment meetings at SFL is like feeding two birds with one cone; weekly assessment of the instruction will lead to effective teaching practices at school and create a synergy where autonomous instructors are involved in the decision making processes. Furthermore, collective decision making process in such an autonomous ecology is likely to lead to collegiality among teaching staff thereby nurturing a sense of belonging to the institution.

3. Extra-curricular Activities for Students

3.1. Establishment of Clubs: Speaking Club and Reading & Writing Cub

The concepts of engagement and exposure both advocate provision of language-rich activities for language learners at schools. That is, students need to be exposed to enjoyful activities in which they will have the opportunity to engage in the learning process. With this in mind, clubs can be established at SFL. Operating on volunteer-based, these clubs will be preferably moderated by the instructors of the related lesson-section. The contents can be either arranged based on the coursebook content or on the topic of interests that students want to talk about. In order to add extra spice to these clubs, foreign students who are studying at institution might be invited to join the clubs. In the Reading & Writing Club students can read books of their choice and engage in discussions and writing activities accordingly. What needs to be noted is that both clubs should meet regularly with the participation of volunteer students. In order to motivate students, topics of interest might be identified via needs analysis surveys beforehand and be announced a week before the club meeting.

3.2. Self-access Center (SAC)

These centers are considered to be a part of autonomous learning (Benson & Voller 1997; Koyalan 2009; Lamb 2008). The rationale for SAC lies in the fact that learners should be exposed to a variety of learning materials to help with their learning process. Establishment of such a center at SFL will encourage students to practice language beyond the classroom at their own pace and time. The materials can be compiled by donations from appropriate sources. In SAC, board games in English can be placed that students can form their groups

and play. In case the SAC sources cannot address to large number of students, use of the center can be designed on appointment basis. At the beginning of the semester, students can be provided with an orientation as to how they could use the center and what type of materials available.

3.3. Wall Paper

Throughout the intensive English instruction at SFL, students are assumed to prepare homework assignments and various projects. On the walls of the halls, Wall Paper can be placed to display students' assignments. In so doing, students who see their peers' assignments on the Wall paper can be motivated to work harder. Furthermore, weekly topics of the abovementioned clubs can be announced on these paper.

3.4. Discipline-specific Oral Presentation

The schools of SFL host students from various disciplines. These students study English for a year. Although, curriculum might change from one school to another, almost always basic language skills are taught at every school along with other courses. In Listening/Speaking course, students might be asked to give a prepared talk to their peers on a disciplinary topic as a partial requirement of the course. To actualize this task, students might be directed to their departments to meet the teaching staff and get some ideas for their talks. In doing so, students will have the opportunity to get familiarized with their future school ecology thereby getting acquainted with the teaching staff there.

3.5. Invited Talks from Representative Disciplines

As mentioned earlier, demotivation among students at SFL is a prevalent problem that needs to be addressed. In order to increase motivation level of students, guest speakers can be invited representing the disciplines of the students. Designing such invited talks where SFL students will have the opportunity to listen to experienced and knowledgeable faculty is likely to boost up their motivation.

3.6. Game Day

As is stated earlier in relation to enjoyment studies, students are more motivated to learn when they are provided with joyful activities. To this end, a specific time and day can be integrated into the curriculum as 'game day'. Game day can be designed in a way that students have opportunity to review unlearned vocabulary items or subtle structures that they have problem to internalize.

3.7. Fun Night

Scheduled at the end of the academic year, this night is the showcase of the students who have received instruction for a year. The students are informed about the Fun Night at the beginning of the year and are encouraged to take part in this night with any performance they want to share with their peers, teaching staff, and even with their parents. This night is totally assigned for student performances in English of their own choice. The performances may vary from reciting poems, staging short plays they have written down, to music. To realize Fun Night, the participating students will have to work with the guidance of the instructors through decision making and rehearsal processes. Being the showcase of students'

accumulated language learning experience, such a performance night will prove that what is learned in the classes theoretically can well be morphed into flesh and blood.

4. Conclusion

Language learning is a complex and painstaking process. The prevalent concept of exposure advocates that language learners need to be **exposed** to quality input and quantity in language-rich contexts. The concept of **engagement**, on the other hand, suggests engagement is necessary for the internalization of provided instruction. **Enjoyment**, one of the research areas of positive psychology, tells us it is important to create a learning ecology where teachers are friendly, humorous, respectful toward students. In other words, in the learning settings where students are happy and enjoy themselves, reaping the fruits of painstaking language instruction will be easier. To this end, well-designed extra-curricular activities might function as life jackets to remedy various learning problems that might be encountered at SFL. Despite the significance of extra-curricular activities, there is a dearth of empirical studies regarding the views of the instructors working in the intensive or foundation programs teaching English. With regards to the instructor voices, a study conducted by Ginosyan et al. (2019) found that instructors agreed on the positive effects of these activities implemented in a foundation school in Oman. The study asked the participating instructors to evaluate the extra-curricular activities on eight different dimensions varying from language improvement, learners' needs and their interests, self-esteem to self-confidence. The findings revealed that foundation students benefit from the activities in terms of language improvement and adjustment to education life.

Language learners need venues to practice what they have learned in the classes. Extra-curricular activities have potential to offer language learners opportunities to practice language beyond the walls of classrooms. In the chapter, a number of actionable extra-curricular activities enacted and tested beneficial at a state SFL were presented with the hope that they could be replicated in similar settings.

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