EDITORS Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

unning and a second second

THE FUTURE OF FOREIGN Language Education:

INDUATIONS IN DIFFERENT MODES OF TEACHING



AND CONTRACTOR OF CONTRACTOR O

THE FUTURE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION: INNOVATIONS IN DIFFERENT MODES OF TEACHING

> EDITORS Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

THE FUTURE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION: INNOVATIONS IN DIFFERENT MODES OF TEACHING

Editors

Dr. Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI

Dr. Ahmet ÖNAL

Cover / InDesign

Yunus ŞENTÜRK

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

Copyright © 2024 by ISRES Publishing

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form, by photostat, microfilm, retrieval system, or any other means, without prior written permission of the publisher.

Authors of the chapters in this book accept that the materials included in the chapter do not violate copyright laws. All sources have been appropriately acknowledged and/or referenced. Where required, appropriate permissions have been obtained from the original copyright holder(s).

The Future of Foreign Language Education: Innovations in Different Modes of Teaching

Published by ISRES Publishing, International Society for Research in Education and

Science (ISRES)

Includes bibliographical references.

ISBN

978-625-6959-66-8

Date of Issue

December, 2024

Address

Istanbul C. Cengaver S. No 2 Karatay/Konya/TURKEY

E-mail isresoffice@gmail.com

Table of Contents CHAPTER 1: BRIDGING PERCEPTION AND PRACTICE: THE POWER OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
Dilara SOMUNCU, Mehmet BARDAKÇI
CHAPTER 2: TRANSLANGUAGING IN DEPTH: A REVIEW ARTICLE
Ayşegül ÖZASLAN, Bilal GENÇ
CHAPTER 3: AI-POWERED CHATBOTS FOR DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW
Elif Nur SARIYILDIZ, Nazlı BAYKAL, İdil SAYIN
CHAPTER 4: A GLIMPSE INTO TEACHING IDIOMS IN THE SECONDARY EFL CLASSROOMS IN TURKISH SCHOOLS
Mehmethan ÇEVİK, Ali KARAKAŞ
CHAPTER 5: THE PRACTICE-ORIENTED MODEL OF TRAINING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE PHILOLOGIST AT THE UKRAINIAN UNIVERSITY
Iryna KHALYMON, Valentyna SLYVKA, Svitlana TEZIKOVA
CHAPTER 6: COLLABORATIVE ONLINE UNIVERSITY LEARNING: CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES
Olha PONOMARENKO Viktoriia SMELİANSKA Nataliia SHCHERBA Iryna SHKOLA
CHAPTER 7: FOREIGN/SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER IDENTITY IN THE DIGITAL TRANSFORMATIONAL MODES OF INSTRUCTION
Ayfer SU-BERGİL
CHAPTER 8: ENHANCING COLLABORATIVE WRITING OF GRADUATE STUDENTS THROUGH WHATSAPP AND GOOGLE DOCS: AN ACADEMIC WRITING COURSE
Nihan ERDEMİR, Derya COŞKUN, İdil SAYIN
CHAPTER 9: CULTIVATING EFFECTIVE MINDS: INTEGRATING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS IN EFL/ESL INSTRUCTION
Hayriye AVARA
CHAPTER 10: REVOLUTIONIZING FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE DIGITAL AGE
Semin KAZAZOĞLU, Gamze TURUN
CHAPTER 11: THE FACES OF JANUS IN WOMEN STUDIES: CRITICAL FEMINIST THEORY AND ELT
Dümmenga DEVTAS Vühra SIV VESED

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ, Kübra ŞIK KESER

PREFACE

In this edited book titled "*The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*", the authors of the 11 chapters try to shed light into what we may expect from the future of FLT and how FLT may evolve over time. In the first quarter of the 21st century we are going through, technological advancements are overwhelming and rapid. This in turn affects all folks of life alongside with education in general and FLT in particular. Therefore, this book comes in a timely manner to give some insight into the possible future of FLT.

In the first chapter, the authors examine the connection between English language teachers' views on motivational strategies and how frequently they implement these strategies in their teaching on the fly. They conclude that teacher autonomy and the intentional implementation of motivational strategies act as crucial factors in shaping students' motivation, suggesting further research into specific motivational strategies and their effectiveness across language proficiency levels.

In the second chapter, the authors take a historical look into the shift in FLT since the 19th century and argue that this period witnessed the outburst of several approaches and techniques, each attempting to eliminate the deficiencies of the preceding.

In the third chapter, the authors aim to address the methodological trends, descriptives, and main findings in studies on AI-powered chatbots for developing EFL learners' speaking skills. This research provides insights into the use of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills and a comprehensive analysis of current research in the field.

In the fourth chapter, the authors examine the state of idiom teaching in secondary EFL classrooms in Turkish schools. Through interviews with English language teachers, the study finds that most EFL teachers do not incorporate idioms into their lessons, citing reasons such as curriculum constraints, perceived lack of student readiness, and time limitations.

In the fifth chapter, the authors provide an in-depth analysis of the practice-oriented experience of training students in a specialized bachelor's degree program in Philology with a specialization in *Germanic Languages and Literature (including translation), with English and German languages* at Nizhyn Gogol State University in Ukraine.

ii

In the sixth chapter, the authors examine the growing prominence of Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) projects in higher education in general and in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher training in particular.

In the seventh chapter, the author delves into the multifaceted dimensions of foreign/second language teacher identity, considering factors such as digital transformations, digital platforms of instruction, technological competencies, identity transformation and creation. This chapter also aims to highlight the complexities and challenges faced by language teachers and educators as they navigate the digital realm, negotiating between traditional pedagogical practices and emergent technological demands.

In the eighth chapter, the authors aim to investigate the collaborative writing process among 6 graduate students as they work on research or review papers using WhatsApp and Google Docs. The overall findings of this chapter might suggest that mobile technology can be a valuable tool for improving graduate students' academic writing by fostering a collaborative environment among mentors and graduate students.

In the ninth chapter, the author tries to explore the value of promoting critical thinking skills in English language instruction by outlining a number of strategies for developing critical thinking abilities in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. By doing this, the study hopes to make a contribution to the field of English language instruction utilizing various strategies - ranging from questioning techniques, debate, discussion, role-playing and simulation, text analysis, reflective writing, feedback and revision -through which teachers may help students think critically, communicate effectively, and navigate language and cultural differences in an increasingly interconnected world.

In chapter 10, the authors explore the use of digital tools in enhancing the four skills in foreign language teacher education and anticipate offering fresh perspectives on integrating technology-enhanced language learning into foreign language teaching programs through the incorporation of digital literacy tools.

In chapter 11, the last chapter, the authors try to bridge Critical Feminist Theory (CFT) and English Language Teaching (ELT). They dig into CFT and ELT by the dearth of research on Critical Feminism in ELT. Critical Feminist Theory is covered by including a brief background, fundamental concepts, and a discussion of their relevance in ELT and ELT in Türkiye.

I hope that this book will contribute to our understanding of the future of FLT.

Prof. Dr. Mustafa ŞEVİK

CHAPTER 1: BRIDGING PERCEPTION AND PRACTICE: THE POWER OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Dilara SOMUNCU ២ Mehmet BARDAKÇI ᅝ

1. Introduction

As a term extensively referred in applied linguistics, motivation is the triggering reason and the desire for people to make effort for doing and sustaining the language learning activity (Dörnyei et al, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The concept of motivation is among the most extensively studied topics within the realm of education. As one of the earliest scholarly work on motivation, socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985) founded on two key orientations, namely integrative and instrumental motivation, had a substantial impact on motivation studies in the scholarship of foreign language teaching. However, in the 1990s, a great number of studies started to recognize the idea that other factors like friendship or confidence may also play an important role as motivating factors, and they initiated a broader perspective by incorporating cognitive approaches into the conceptualization of motivation in educational agenda (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

As an attempt to bring different components of motivation together in foreign language education, Dörnyei (2001, 2005) proposed three categories in a model: the language proficiency level, the learner's individual level, and the level of the learning environment. The first category -language proficiency level- is related to certain aspects like culture, belonging to a social group, and usefulness of the language while the learner's individual level as the second category involves what the learner adds to the classroom experience as individual characteristics (e.g. self-confidence and ambition for academic success). Finally, the level of the learning environment consists of motivational dynamics regarding the course, teacher, and learning group. This model is important in terms of illustrating the situational factors affecting motivation and its multifaceted structure.

Williams and Burden (2000) emphasized the importance of a social constructivist view of motivation by stating that the cognitive view does not take account of the influence of emotions, and affective-social factors. This depiction of motivation was formed around a three-phase

motivation model: the reasons behind taking action, the decision to take action, and maintaining the effort or continuing to persevere. However, recent studies have started to adopt a more education-oriented approach for L2 motivation research by integrating some prominent theories from mainstream psychology like attribution and goal theories, and these studies elaborated especially on the contextual factors connected to classroom implementation and instructional practices (e.g. Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Ellis, 2012; Nitta & Baba, 2015; Sak, 2019; Williams et al., 2015).

L2 motivation is a key element in influencing language acquisition because it is the driving source and force that generates and sustains the language learning process (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2005). Besides, L2 motivation leads language learners to persist long enough to gain functional language proficiency no matter what their linguistic ability or learning environments are (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Since language learning motivation is among the fundamental components of language acquisition, some prominent studies focused on the factors increasing or decreasing L2 motivation, and some of these influencing factors were found to be assessment, classroom atmosphere, and teachers (Ghenghesh, 2010; Yeung et al, 2011).

Along with the importance of researching the conceptualization of motivation, it is also critical to explore the educational aspect of the issue by focusing on motivational engagement techniques to shed light on how to use this knowledge to motivate students (Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Brophy, 2004; Dörnyei, 2006; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ibrahim, 2016; Karimi & Zade, 2018). As also highlighted by Maeng and Lee (2015), the mainstream research line has been generally scoped around the part motivation plays in educational settings, but the scarcity of studies examining teachers' motivational strategies remains as a gap in the related literature. Motivated by the fact that teachers' motivational teaching practice may have an efficient role in shaping learners' language learning motivation, this study attempts to infuse to the current academic works by examining the contexts in which teachers employ motivational strategies and how these influence learners' motivated behaviour.

2. Motivational Strategies

As having a critical role in language attainment, the skill of motivating learners should be at the centre of teaching competence (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005; Karimi & Zade, 2018). Accordingly, teachers can change the course of action with the intentional implementation of motivational engagement strategies that are referred to as "instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation" (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 57). Influenced by this view, motivational strategies were intensively investigated in the 1990s with similar lists of recommendations for motivational techniques to generate a motivating classroom atmosphere (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Following this trend, Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) inclined for empirical examinations for the potential usefulness of motivational strategies. In their study conducted with English teachers in Hungary, the participants assessed a set of motivational strategies, and the same language teachers were asked to indicate the significance they attributed to these strategies and how often they actually put them into practice. The emerging results indicated a list of the upmost important motivational teaching strategies, which the researchers identified as 'ten commandments for motivating learners'. Through these, the researchers created a new scholarly agenda for investigating teachers' beliefs about the application of motivational strategies in real instructional settings.

By building on these investigations, Dörnyei (2001) presented a more inclusive and theorybased framework of motivational strategies by organizing them around three focal points: what motivational strategies entail, how they align with classroom realities, and how to apply them effectively. He designed a model focusing on processes to understand motivation within the language classroom setting. The structure of motivational teaching strategies included four key phases that align with different stages of the motivational engagement pathway: (1) establishing foundational motivational circumstances, (2) stimulating primary motivation, (3) sustaining and safeguarding motivation, and (4) fostering affirmative reflections on the learning experience. Based on this framework, Dörnyei listed 35 macro-strategies with corresponding 102 substrategies that can be specifically employed by language teachers to foster learner motivation. Within this manner, Dörnyei (2001) made a significant contribution to the field by offering these elements, which can help teachers intentionally integrate motivation into their regular teaching routines. This involves using targeted motivational strategies, ranging from creating a secure educational setting to starting, maintaining, and critically reflecting on instructional practices.

Evidently, the studies on motivational strategies provided empirical evidence by highlighting the significance and implementation of motivational strategies in addition to displaying similarities and differences across different cultural contexts. In pursuit of more empirical evidence on the implementation of motivational strategies, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) followed a different path in actual classroom practice instead of grounding their study solely on self-report data. Therefore, they developed a classroom-based study that explored the

3

connection between teachers' motivation-oriented instructional implementations and motivated learner actions in an EFL setting in Korea. For this study, they developed a classroom observation scheme to code real time teacher and learner behaviour in terms of motivation, and the findings showed that motivational practices cause a direct impact on the situational motivation of language learners.

Inspired by classroom-oriented approach to motivational strategy implementations, the current research design takes the scope further and incorporates other critical dimensions into the investigation. Since the majority of research on motivational strategies relied exclusively on teachers' self-reports regarding the significance they assign to certain strategies and how frequently they implement them (see Karimi & Zade, 2018), this study seeks to bring additional empirical data regarding the effects of motivational strategies by utilizing both self-reports and classroom observations. Therefore, the study firstly compares teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies with their actual implementation by employing a classroom observation tool to evaluate motivational teaching practices and a self-report to assess the perceived importance and frequency of teachers' utilization of these strategies. Secondly, this investigation also seeks to scrutinize how motivational instructional practices influence students' motivated learning behaviour. Lastly, another objective is to supply verifiable proof of the influence of motivational teaching strategies by identifying the factors that predict learners' motivated behaviour. With these aims, this study explores the below-listed inquires:

- What is the relationship between the teachers' perceptions and their classroom practices in terms of using motivational strategies? Is there a discrepancy between them?
- How does the teachers' motivational teaching practice affect learners' motivated behaviour?
- What is the relationship between the variables of teacher's motivational teaching practice, learners' motivated behaviour, and learners' appraisal of English course and the teacher?
- Which is the best predictor of learners' motivated behaviour: teacher's motivational teaching practice, learners' attitude towards the course, or learners' linguistic selfconfidence?

3. Designing an Investigation on Motivational Strategies in Language Education

This study was conducted at the preparatory school of a private university in Türkiye. There were included 13 learner groups with a total number of 13 teachers and 168 students in order to investigate overall motivational teaching practice that may represent participants' general motivational orientation instead of focusing on a specific teacher and class. The participant students' proficiency levels varied from A1 to B1, as assessed by a proficiency exam aligned with the Common European Framework at the start of the academic term. Given that the medium of instruction in their major programs is English., they underwent rigorous language education. Therefore, the need to learn and use English was considered a shared ground among all participants, whose ages ranged from 19 to 23. As for the teachers, the age range was between 24 and 30, and their professional experience in teaching varied from 1 to 8 years.

In the current study, four different instruments were employed to collect data to obtain a credible and consistent depiction of the teachers' motivational orientations and the students' motivational state. A classroom observation scheme (MOLT, Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) to observe the teachers' motivational teaching practice and the students' motivated behaviour was the main data collection tool. In order to collect data about the teachers' motivational strategy orientations, Teacher's Motivational State Questionnaire (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) was implemented. The tools designed to find out students' motivational state and appraisal of the English teacher and the English course were the other instruments implemented to reveal different aspects of student motivation. While the administered questionnaires were in English for the teachers, the ones prepared for the students were in Turkish to prevent misinterpretations considering participants' different proficiency levels of English.

The first step of the data collection procedure started by visiting English lessons of 13 different teachers and learner groups in order to observe the courses by using MOLT. The observer researcher filled out the MOLT minute by minute for 40 minutes on average for each lesson, and video-recordings of the same lessons were analysed based on MOLT with another colleague for inter-rater reliability check. The total score indicating the number of minutes for each variable on observational data was used for statistical analyses. As the second step of data collection, the teachers and the students were requested to complete a form following each session. By using a questionnaire about the teachers' use of motivational strategies, it was aimed to find out the teachers' general attitude towards this issue. Besides, with the post-instruction feedback assessment form prepared for the students, it was aimed to explore the students'

appraisal of motivation-specific features of the teacher's instructional behaviour in the course. Lastly, two weeks after the observation, the students were invited to answer an additional questionnaire about their general motivational state. Data collection tools are explained in detail in the upcoming sections.

3.1. The MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme

The Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme was developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in order to observe the language teachers' use of motivational strategies to motivate the learners during the lesson. In order to design this scheme, the researchers combined two paramount and well-known frameworks: system of motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001) and classroom observation scheme, the COLT (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). The MOLT follows a real-time coding principle by recording categories of observable teacher and learner behaviour within the framework of motivational strategies. Every minute of the unfolding lesson is coded in two parts: the teacher's motivation-focused teaching methods and the students' motivated learning behaviours. The section designed to observe learners' motivated behaviour is used to record the learners' attention, participation, and volunteering acts based on the observer's assessment while the part of the teacher's motivation-focused implementations is drawn from 25 motivational practices classified into four categories: teacher discourse, participation structure, activity design, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. According to the coding convention, only the most important event taking place at that moment was coded even if two or more events occurred at the same time in the same category. Table 1 below presents each motivational variable with the mean values calculated in the present study.

	Mean		Mean
Social chat	1.30	Scaffolding	2.53
Signposting	0.92	Promoting cooperation	1.92
Stating the communicative purpose	1.46	Promoting autonomy	1.53
Establishing relevance	2.69	Referential questions	2.69
Promoting integrative values	0.30	Pair work	2.55
Promoting instrumental values	1.38	Group work	3.33
Arousing curiosity attention	1.61	Tangible reward	0.69
Personalization	2.38	Creative / interesting	3.84
Intellectual challenge	1.30	Tangible task product	2.61
Individual competition	1.00	Team competition	1.01
Neutral feedback session	2.46	Process feedback session	1.38
Elicitation self/peer correction session	1.46	Effective praise	1.53
Class applause	0.23		

Table 1. Teacher's motivational practice

3.2. Teacher's Motivational State Questionnaire

By using the Teacher's Motivational state Questionnaire developed by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), grounded in Dörnyei's (2001) comprehensive review of motivational teaching strategies, this study aimed to explore how the teachers perceive motivational strategies. Although Cheng and Dörnyei (ibid.) developed the scales in two formats with the same motivational strategies based on their importance and frequency, the present study preferred to use the version with six alternative options representing varying levels of importance from *not important* to *very important* because the aim was to determine the teachers' perspectives on motivational teaching strategies to compare it with their real motivational practice in the classroom. There are 48 items on the scale categorized into 10 constituent strategies including "proper teacher behaviour, recognise students' effort, promote learners' self-confidence" and others (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

3.3. Instruments to Test Student Motivation

Data collection on the students' motivation and motivated learning behaviour was managed with two instruments. The first one was used as a post-lesson evaluation scale to find out students' appraisal of the English teacher and the English course. It was implemented immediately after the observed lesson. This research tool is a semantic differential scale taken and adapted from the English Language Learning Survey developed by Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994). The students were supposed to indicate their immediate impression about how they perceive the specific concept in relation to the two opposing perspectives on a 7-point scale. There are 16 differential descriptors and the sample semantic classes for the English teacher are *imaginative-unimaginative, interesting-boring*, and *helpful-unhelpful* while semantic expressions like *easy-difficult, good atmosphere-bad atmosphere*, etc. are used for the English course. The total scores that the students got from this instrument were used to explore whether the teacher's motivational approach is linked to the students' assessments of both the English teacher and the course.

The second instrument employed is the Student Motivational State Questionnaire which is implemented to investigate the students' situation-specific motivational disposition related to their current English course. In order to develop this scale, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) adapted some parts from different scales (Clement et al., 1994; Gardner, 1985), and they added some extra items to assess three categories of students' motivational state: attitudes toward the current L2 course, linguistic self-confidence, and L2 classroom anxiety. However, the classroom anxiety part was excluded from the present study because it was aimed to test only the positive dispositions of the classroom motivation in this study. The scale was designed on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from '*definitely not*' to '*totally true*'. Both scales in this section were carefully translated into Turkish using a meticulous back-translation process, guided by expert opinions.

Inferential statistical analysis was applied to the data gathered through the aforementioned instruments. Therefore, correlation analyses and a standard multiple regression analysis were conducted as the main statistical analyses.

4. Outcomes of Implementing Motivational Strategies in Language Classrooms

One of the aims of the present study was to investigate whether the teachers' perceptions about using motivational strategies correlate with their motivational instructional behaviour in the classroom. Furthermore, it was aimed to explore the relationship between the teachers' motivational instructional behaviour and learners' motivated behaviour, learners' appraisal of the just-completed English course and their teachers' motivational performance in this course. Because MOLT and Teacher's Motivational State Questionnaire were organized for each teacher, the researcher made use of the class-level means of the students' appraisal questionnaire to run the correlation analysis. Accordingly, these variables were examined using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, and it was found that there was a strong, positive correlation between the teachers' motivational state and their motivational teaching practice (r = .56, p < .0005), with high levels of perceptions about using motivational strategies associated with higher levels of motivational teaching practice. The other variables also demonstrated strong and positive correlations with motivational teaching practice as shown in Table 2 below.

	1	2	3	4
1. Teachers' motivational teaching practice	1			
2. Teachers' motivational state	.567**	1		
3. Learners' motivated behaviour	.556**	.421**	1	
4. Learners' appraisal	.610**	.211**	474**	1

Table 2. Relationship between motivational teaching practice and the other variables

***p*<.001(2-tailed).

As the second aim, it was intended to find determinants of the learners' motivated behaviour with a multiple regression analysis by looking at the predicting effects of teachers' motivational teaching practice, learners' attitudes toward English course and their linguistic self-confidence. Before conducting a regression analysis, certain assumptions need to be verified. The initial aspects to examine are multicollinearity and singularity, which refer to the relationships between the independent variables. Multicollinearity occurs when the predictors are strongly correlated (r = .9 or higher). After conducting a Pearson correlation analysis, it was found that the correlations among the independent variables did not exceed the multicollinearity threshold, as illustrated in Table 3. Additionally, to prevent singularity, the sub-dimensions of the Student Motivational State Questionnaire were analysed individually. Other preliminary checks were performed to confirm that there were no violations of assumptions regarding outliers, normality, linearity, as indicated by a straight diagonal line in the Normal P-P Plot, and exhibited appropriate Tolerance and VIF values without any outliers, as determined by Mahalanobis and Cook's Distance values.

Prior to performing additional analyses, an attempt was made to examine the relationships between the independent variables (teachers' motivational teaching practice, learners' attitudes toward English course and their linguistic self-confidence) and dependent variable (learners' motivated behaviour). Pearson correlation coefficients revealed that the independent and dependent variables correlated positively at a statistically significant level. Among these three independent variables, the strongest correlation with learners' motivated behaviour belonged to teacher's motivational teaching practice (r = .55, p < .01), exhibiting a strong correlation. The remaining correlation coefficients are showcased in Table 3 below:

	1	2	3	4
1. learners' motivated behaviour	1			
2. teacher's motivational teaching practice	.556**	1		
3. learners' attitude toward course	.470**	.354**	1	
4.leaners'linguistic self-confidence	.495**	.309**	602**	1

Table 3. Relationship between the dependent and independent variables

A standard multiple regression analysis was performed after accounting for the interaction between each predictor and the dependent variable. The goal was to determine how effectively the measures of teachers' motivational teaching practice and student motivational states predict learners' motivated behaviour, the variance accounted by these measures, and the primary predictor of the dependent variable.

Predictors	Standardized coefficients β	t	р	Correlations		
				Zero order	Partial	Part
motivational teaching practice	.363	4.945	.000	.556	.361	.278
learners' attitude	.244	3.296	.000	.470	.146	.132
linguistic self-confidence	.296	3.744	.000	.495	.281	.211
Overall Model	F	df	p	R ²	Adj. R ²	
	38.238	163	.00	.484	.471	

Table 4. Predictors of learners' motivated behaviour

p = .01

Upon adding the independent variable measures to the model, the total variance accounted for by the model in learners' motivated behaviour was 48.4%, F(4, 163) = 38.238, p = .000. Results

indicated that each of these three independent variables contributed significantly and uniquely to the prediction of learners' motivated behaviour (teacher's motivational teaching practice, β = .363, t = 4.945, p< .001; learners' attitude toward English course, β = .244, t = 3.296, p< .001; leaners' linguistic self-confidence, β = .296, t = 3.744, p< .001). It was also found out that teacher's motivational teaching practice is the best predictor for learners' motivated behaviour with the highest beta value.

5. Conclusion

The primary goal of this study was to explore the connection between teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies and how they actually implement these strategies. Secondly, the relationship between teachers' motivational teaching practices and their students' motivated learning behaviour was explored. In addition to these, additional analyses were performed to provide empirical evidence on the effectiveness of motivational strategies by investigating the factors that predict students' motivated learning behaviour. The findings presented above will be discussed in this part of the study.

To start with, by following a real-time coding principle in the MOLT, the teachers' motivational teaching practice was observed based on 25 motivational variables grouped into four categories: teacher discourse, participation structure, activity design, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. The mean values calculated based on this observation made it possible to assess the most preferred motivational strategies among 13 teachers. Figure 1 clearly showcases that, in teacher discourse, the most frequent motivational strategies are establishing relevance and using referential questions, and scaffolding follows them. Establishing relevance is described as "connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday lives (e.g. giving grammatical examples with references to pop stars)" (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 63). According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), teachers can generate initial motivation by ensuring the teaching materials are meaningful and relevant to the learners. Similarly, Chambers (1999) lays emphasis on addressing the necessity of relevance in language teaching by noting that "if students fail to see the relationship between the activity and the world in which they live, then the point of the activity is likely to be lost" (p. 37). Next, referential questions are the ones for which the teacher does not have the answer, and they can include questions about students' lives (Long, 1983). Brock's (1986) study illustrates that when faced with referential questions, student answers are significantly longer, syntactically complex by containing greater numbers of connectives. By looking at these results, it is good to see that teachers in this study favoured referential questions, and it may be one of the reasons that a correlation was found between teachers' motivational practices and learners' motivated learning behaviour, which will be further explained in the following paragraphs. Lastly, by offering suitable strategies and examples to guide students in successfully completing the activity (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), the teachers in the present study used *scaffolding* as an effective motivational strategy by mostly preferring multimodal explanations and demonstrations. The other frequently employed strategies in *participation structure* and *activity design* categories are as follows: *using pair and group work*, *having a creative and interesting activity design* and *putting personalization in the activity accomplished with tangible task products*.

By conducting a correlational analysis, one of the main goals of the present study was to explore the connection between teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies and their actual implementation, as well as examine the relationship between teachers' use of motivational teaching practices and their students' motivated learning behaviour. The strong interconnections between the variables (see Table 2 & 3) suggest that the theoretical relationship proposed is also statistically supported by these findings. Firstly, the relationship between teachers' motivational teaching practices and their perceptions regarding these motivational practices, r = .56, p < .0005, indicate that being aware of the importance of motivational strategies may lead to higher levels of motivational strategy use by the teachers. The previous studies on motivational strategies mostly focused on either self-reports or only classroom observation with different purposes. At this point, this study adds to the existing body of research by comparing teachers' views on motivational strategies and how they implement these strategies in practice by combining different measurement tools. Both of the research tools (Teacher's Motivational State Questionnaire and MOLT) used for this part of the study were developed under the same framework designed by Dörnyei (2001). Since the theoretical background is the same for both tools, it is significant for this study to find out that teacher perceptions and classroom actions in terms of motivational strategies correlate in the current data case. Further correlational analyses between teachers' motivational practice and learners' motivated behaviour and between teachers' motivational practice and learners' appraisal of the course and the teacher also indicate that there is a strong relationship between them (r = .55, p < .0005, r = .61, p < .0005), which suggests that teacher practice may affect learners' motivated behaviour and student motivational dispositions specific to that course and the teacher. These results are in line with the idea that teachers have the ability to affect student motivation and actively do so. They shape student motivation in various ways through their daily interactions, such as influencing students' self-perceptions of their abilities, their attitudes toward the subject, their short-term and long-term goals, their understanding of the reasons behind their successes or failures, and the motivations behind their academic efforts (Anderman & Anderman, 2010).

Furthermore, these results are in line with Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) results in which they presented the correlation between teachers' motivational practice and learners' motivated behaviour as r = .61. The findings both from their study and the present study may provide important implications in terms of the influence of language teachers' motivational teaching implementations within the specific context of the classroom, and by concentrating on particular individual strategies, the research agenda can be broadened in further studies. However, it is important to take account of deliberate teaching practices as Kassing (2011) reports that teachers are generally unaware that their motivational practices influence learner motivation. Inspired by this view, it can be claimed that if teachers use motivational strategies according to learner needs, then motivated learner behaviour can be controlled by the teacher. Therefore, it can also be claimed that there is a need for teacher autonomy in using motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2007a).

With the aim to find the best predictor of learners' motivated behaviour, a standard multiple regression analysis was conducted in this study, and it was revealed that the model proposed for learners' motivated behaviour explains a good amount of the variance (48.4%, F(4, 163) =38.238, p = .000). Considering this result, it might be supposed that higher levels of teacher's motivational teaching practice, learners' attitude towards the course, or learners' linguistic selfconfidence lead to higher levels of situation-specific motivated learner behaviour. It was also found that teacher's motivational teaching practice is the best predictor for learners' motivated behaviour with the highest beta value ($\beta = .363$, t = 4.945, p < .001) which was followed by learners' linguistic self-confidence (β = .296, t = 3.744, p< .001) and learners' attitude toward English course ($\beta = .244$, t = 3.296, p < .001). They all have positive values of contribution to the prediction of learners' motivated behaviour. All these results may prove the idea that classroom-specific impact of language teachers' motivational teaching practice and students' general L2 motivation may be effective factors determining learners' motivated behaviour, and learner motivation in the course of the action can be oriented by teachers' use of motivational strategies (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). These may provide critical empirical data in favour of teachers' use of motivational strategies, which is stated as a gap in the literature by the relevant scholar work (e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ibrahim, 2016; Karimi & Zade, 2018; Maeng & Lee, 2015). In contrast to these views, Sugita and Takeuci's (2010) study suggests

that only a small number of motivational strategies are linked to students' motivation, and the effectiveness of these strategies differed based on the students' language proficiency level. Therefore, future studies can investigate the predicting effect of each specific motivational strategy on learner motivation. In this way, an explanation can be brought for the gap between the anticipated and actual effectiveness of certain motivational strategies (Chen et al., 2005).

According to Dörnyei's (2001) study, many teachers noted that the skill of motivating learners to learn L2 is a crucial but difficult teaching skill, and it is also fair to claim that learning a new language is a difficult experience for students as well (Dörnyei, 2005). Therefore, motivating and being motivated is the crucial point where effective and mindful use of motivational strategies can merge the gap. As a common concern, in most of the educational settings, teachers are expected to focus on delivering the curriculum rather than on motivating learners (Dörnyei, 2001); however, by making training on motivational strategies as a part of L2 teacher training programs, L2 motivation problem can be solved from the beginning with firm steps. Therefore, future studies can investigate the effectiveness of motivational strategy training programs for further implications, by also examining the predictive effects of motivational strategies on L2 learning with an idealistic expectation that "all students are motivated to learn under the right conditions, and that you can provide these conditions in your classroom" (McCombs & Pope, 1994, p. 7). Accordingly, teachers can be made aware of the key elements in process-oriented organisation of motivation: (1) establishing fundamental conditions for motivation, (2) fostering student motivation, (3) sustaining and safeguarding motivation, and (4) promoting affirmative self-assessment. (Dörnyei, 2014). Since there are a great number of motivational strategies under this taxonomy (35 key strategies each with substrategies), it is not fair to expect from a teacher to employ all of them. If they tend to use all of them, they may miss the important aspects of teaching and classroom management (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As Dörnyei (2007a) pointed out, what we need to look for is quality rather than quantity. Instead of becoming a 'super-motivator', teachers can be 'good enough motivators' with carefully-chosen strategies which are appropriate for both the teacher and the learners (Dörnyei, 2001, 2014).

REFERENCES

- Alison, J. (1993). *Not bothered? Motivating reluctant language learners in Key Stage 4*. Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Alison, J., & Halliwell, S. (2002). Challenging classes: Focus on pupil behaviour. CILT.
- Brock, C. A. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESL classroom discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(1), 47–59. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3586388</u>

Brophy, J. E. (2004). *Motivating students to learn* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Chambers, G. N. (1999). *Motivating language learners*. Multilingual Matters.

- Chen, J. F., Warden, C. A., & Chang, H. T. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(4), 609–633. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3588524</u>
- Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153–174. <u>https://doi.org/10.2167/illt048.0</u>
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417–448. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x
- Crooks, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, *41*(4), 469–512. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00690.x</u>
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273–284. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/330107</u>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. Erlbaum.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *The handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–731). Springer.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistics: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methodologies. Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2014). Motivation in second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 518–531). National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). Teaching and researching motivation (2nd ed.). Longman.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, 2(3), 203–229. https://doi.org/10.1177/136216889800200303
- Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes, and globalization*. Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). The psychology of the language learner revisited. Routledge.
- Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). Learning to learn English. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2012). Language teaching research and language pedagogy. John Wiley & Sons.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks. *Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 359–368. https://doi.org/10.2307/330108
- Ghenghesh, P. (2010). The motivation of L2 learners: Does it decrease with age? *English* Language Teaching, 3(1), 128–141. <u>https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v3n1p128</u>

- Ginsberg, M. B., & Wlodkowski, R. J. (2000). Creating a highly motivating classroom for all students: A schoolwide approach to powerful teaching with diverse learners. Jossey-Bass.
- Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 55–77. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00207.x</u>
- Ibrahim, Z. (2016). Affect in directed motivational currents: Positive emotionality in long-term L2 engagement. In P. MacIntyre, T. Gregersen, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in second language acquisition* (pp. 258–281). Multilingual Matters.
- Karimi, M. N., & Zade, S. S. H. (2018). Teachers' use of motivational strategies: Effects of a motivation-oriented professional development course. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(1), 1–11. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2017.1422255</u>
- Kassing, R. B. (2011). Perception of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL classroom: The case of a class in a private university in Indonesia (Master's thesis, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand). Victoria University of Wellington.

http://researcharchive.vuw.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10063/1835/thesis.pdf?sequence=2

- Kikuchi, K. (2009). Listening to our learners' voices: What demotivates Japanese high school students? *Language Teaching Research*, *13*(4), 453-471.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 126–141. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.126</u>
- Maeng, U., & Lee, S. M. (2015). EFL teachers' behavior of using motivational strategies: The case of teaching in the Korean context. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 46, 25–36. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.10.010</u>

- McCombs, B. L., & Pope, J. E. (1994). *Motivating hard to reach students*. American Psychological Association.
- Nitta, R., & Baba, K. (2015). Self-regulation in the evolution of the ideal L2 self: A complex dynamic systems approach to the L2 motivational self-system. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 367–396). Multilingual Matters.
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal*, 78(1), 12–128. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/329249</u>
- Papi, M., & Abdollahzadeh, E. (2011). Teacher motivational practice, student motivation, and possible L2 selves: An examination in the Iranian EFL context. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 571–594. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00632.x</u>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54–67. <u>https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020</u>
- Sak, M. (2019). Contextual factors that enhance and impair directed motivational currents in instructed L2 classroom settings. Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 13(2), 155–174.
- Spada, N., & Fröhlich, M. (1995). COLT communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme: Coding conventions and applications. National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.
- Sugita, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2010). What can teachers do to motivate their students? A classroom research on motivational strategy use in Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(1), 21–35. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/17501220802450470</u>

- Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. (2000). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M., Mercer, S., & Ryan, S. (2015). Exploring psychology in language learning and teaching. Oxford University Press.
- Yeung, A. S., Lau, S., & Nie, Y. (2011). Primary and secondary students' motivation in learning English: Grade and gender differences. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(3), 246–256. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2011.03.001</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Dr. Dilara SOMUNCU

ORCID: 0000-0002-2770-3318

dilarasomuncu2@gmail.com

Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Dr. Dilara Somuncu holds her PhD in English Language Teaching from Hacettepe University, Turkey. She now works as an Assistant Professor at the Department of Foreign Language Education at Gaziantep University, Turkey. Her research interests primarily include language teacher education, teacher cognition, classroom discourse, L2 interaction, and formative assessment.



Prof. Dr. Mehmet BARDAKÇI

ORCID: 0000-0002-0071-0059

mbardakci@gantep.edu.tr / mbardakci@gmail.com

Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education, Dept. of English Language Teaching

Mehmet Bardakçı holds an MA and a PhD in English Language Teaching, and currently works as a professor of English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University, Faculty of Education. His work focuses specifically on teacher training, teaching English to young learners, critical reading and reasoning fallacies.

To Cite this Chapter

Somuncu, D. & Bardakçı, M. (2024). Bridging perception and practice: The power of motivational strategies in language education. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 1-20). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 2: TRANSLANGUAGING IN DEPTH: A REVIEW ARTICLE

Ayşegül ÖZASLAN ២ Bilal GENC 🕩

1. Introduction

Language is always in a process of constant change because of its very dynamic and evolving nature. Accordingly, the methodology of teaching language has been undergoing a dramatic shift since the 19th century and this period witnessed the outburst of several approaches and techniques, each attempting to eliminate the deficiencies of the preceding. Following the entrance of language courses into the curriculum, methodology paved its way with the classical GTM approach putting the main focus on structure with the native language use. This tradition lasted for some time with the contribution of the Direct Method, ALM, CLL, Suggestopedia, TPR, and The Silent Way until a need for communication emerged. Towards the end of the 20th century, this paradigm changed with the arrival of the Communicative Approach, also known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Contrary to the previous methodology, CLT emphasized using language rather than structures. All these methodologies dealt with the mother tongue (L1) and the target language (L2) differently.

While the earlier approaches were more moderate in using L1 for the aim of linguistic analysis, more recent practices were stricter about it. The ideal classroom should have "as little of the L1 as possible," as Cook (2001, p. 404) argues because using the L1 can be interpreted as a sign of failure. Hence, the controversy of whether using L1 in teaching L2 has been centered around monoglossic and heteroglossic ideologies. In a monoglossic language setting, L2 exposure is of vital importance with the avoidance of L1 use in the class, as embodied by CLT and TBLT (Bruen & Kelly, 2014). However, it has been a matter of discussion since monolingual classrooms neglect the facilitative role of bilingualism, and the effect of L1 in L2 learning (Hall & Cook, 2012; Littlewood & Yu, 2011). According to Garcia (2009a), a monoglossic worldview may create a power imbalance in schools between the home and school languages, with the former valued while the latter is seen as irrelevant. This traditional way of teaching foreign languages in isolation is often associated with the common beliefs about bilingualism. Having invoked parental, cultural, educational, and politico-ideological fears (Beardsmore, 2003) with its emergence, bilingualism was fiercely criticized as leading to a list of disorders

such as moral depravity, scumbling, left-handedness, idleness (Weinreich, 1953) and even mental retardation (Goodenough, 1926). Supporter of linguistic and cultural diversity, Hugo Baetens Beardsmore contributed enormously by publishing his comprehensive book about all the facets of bilingualism, which gave rise to the explosion of research in this field.

With the help of numerous research, it was eventually found that greater sensitivity, improved cultural awareness, and increased cognitive flexibility are associated with increased linguistic repertoire, refuting earlier theories that bilingualism implied a dividing of finite cognitive potential or a decrease of intellectual capacities (Edwards, 2003).

Despite the superiority of bilinguals in number, monolingualism is generally seen as the norm (May 2014). Notwithstanding, in the ever-shrinking world of today, even bilingualism has started to give way to multilingualism. Although multilingualism is generally associated with metropolises in continents such as America, Europe, or Africa, in recent years there have been mass migrations due to war and economic impossibilities in developing countries that are apparently monolingual as official languages, and multilingualism has become a common linguistic phenomenon in every geography. Even in countries such as Türkiye, where only one official language exists, different varieties and languages are spoken. This proves that the multilingualism matter is affecting the nations that are known to be monolingual.

According to Cenoz and Gorter (2020), some students possess successful multilingual trajectories that include excellent resources for learning a new language, which is often neglected. Additionally, they resemble students to "empty vessels, learning from scratch and with the monolingual speaker of the target language as a model" (p.1). Due to population movement and the growing use of English as the language of instruction, learning through the medium of a second or additional language is becoming increasingly common across the globe, which calls for a novel approach with multilingualism at its core (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

The aforementioned changes in the paradigm have led to the development of a novel concept of translanguaging, which simply fosters the use of different languages together for effective learning to take place.

2. Definition of translanguaging

As explained by Dr. Cen Williams in an anecdote (in Thomas et.al., 2022), the term translanguaging was coined by himself and Dafydd Whittall in the early eighties in a hotel bar. Both being deputy heads in secondary school at that time, they joined a lecture. When they met at the hotel bar, Dafydd realized that Cen took notes in Welsch with the occasional English term. They started to talk about this process of listening to the English lecture and absorbing

the information so fast to reproduce in Welsch. They noticed that they both were doing this, but it was different from translation which meant to require special skills and expected to progress slower. They aimed to characterize reading or listening input in one language and writing or speaking in the other. Then they tried to name this process, which in turn resulted in the Welsh word 'trawsieithu'. The term was called "translinguifying" in English but then replaced by "translanguaging" after the conversation between Cen Williams and Colin Baker (Lewis et al., 2012).

This notion originated from the Welsh educational context, where Welsh-English bilingual education is attained. Though Welsh is a minority language in this context, it plays an important role in Wales for its citizens' perception of identity. As Selleck and Barakos (2023) imply, language and identity have a strong correlation, with Welsh being frequently used to convey an idea of Wales and Welshness rather than English or bilingualism. Hence, the idea behind the emergence of this concept was to make English, the dominant language, contribute to the development of Wales, the weaker language.

Translanguaging has been defined by several researchers. According to Baker (2011), it is "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (p. 288). Garcia (2009b) states it is "the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, to maximize communicative potential" (p. 140). Cenoz and Gorter (2017) define it as "a pedagogical practice that alternates the use of Welsh and English for input and output in the same lesson. The idea is to get information in one language and to work with that information in the other language" (p. 311). Canagarajah (2011), additionally, mentions it as "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (p. 401).

Although translanguaging may seem like an umbrella term that consists of bilingualism and multilingualism, it displays some stances. Traditionally, bilingual education supported keeping two languages separate for the sake of language learners. However, it was challenged by several different terminologies. Referring to the separation of French and English in Canadian immersion programs, Cummins (2007) criticized the real monolingualism of the context with his famous 'two solitudes' idea. Similarly, Swain (1983) used the phrase "bilingualism through monolingualism" (p. 4), and Gravelle (1996) described these bilinguals as "two monolinguals in one body" (p. 11).

However, translanguaging theory oversteps the traditional extent of individual languages by emphasizing the dynamic nature of communication. In this linguistic phenomenon, language segregation is strictly opposed and the existence of two interdependent language systems where learners switch from one to another is refused. Speakers blend and intertwine linguistic elements from different languages within a single conversation. It offers a more inclusive language use by welcoming the linguistic diversity of individuals. Vogel and Garcia (2017) highlight the three basic assumptions underlying translanguaging theory as follows:

1. It posits that individuals select and deploy features from a unitary linguistic repertoire to communicate.

2. It takes up a perspective on bi- and multilingualism that privileges speakers' own dynamic linguistic and semiotic practices above the named languages of nations and states.

3. It still recognizes the material effects of socially constructed named language categories and structuralist language ideologies, especially for minoritized language speakers (p. 4).

Considering these assumptions, the theoretical basis of translanguaging theory can be associated with Cummins's notable works called the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (1979) and Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) (1984). LID emphasizes the transferable nature of linguistic skills, so learners can pass on their linguistic/metalinguistic skills from one language to another. CUP, similarly, explains the interconnectedness of linguistic skills across multiple languages. Cummins asserts that irrespective of their level of proficiency in each language, people develop a common cognitive and linguistic competency underlying their talents in all the languages they know. In CUP theory, language skills are transferable and interconnected; the development of a common proficiency is affected by cognitive and academic experiences. Like translanguaging, Cummins's concept also emphasizes the fluid and dynamic nature of language use. Cummins (1984) exemplifies this concept with an iceberg metaphor. While an individual uses multiple languages at the surface, the whole linguistic repertoire, namely CUP, is placed at the bottom.

Moreover, translanguaging brings another well-known, metaphorical approach to mind, that is Language Ecology. Pioneered by Einar Haugen (1972), language ecology draws upon on the similarities and differences between biological species. This metaphor indicates that like biological species, languages are also living organisms that have similar issues such as "the maintenance of linguistic diversity around the planet, the endangerment and extinction of languages, language planning, and the effects of 'introduced' or exotic languages on the environment" (Wendel, 2005, p. 55). Language ecology is closely interested in the interdependence of languages within a particular context and the preservation of rarely spoken languages. By welcoming linguistic diversity, language ecology considers how to coexist and interact with each other. Translanguaging and language ecology both embrace the use of multiple languages, and diversities, and so contribute to the richness of languages.

The emergence of the translanguaging concept has required the clarification of coincidental terms such as code-mixing and code-switching, which had been around before translanguaging theory. Even though code-switching, code-mixing, and translanguaging seem identical at first glance, they each carry distinctive features. Code-switching refers to swapping between two or more languages. Hymes (1962) defines code-switching as "a common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of a language or even speech styles" (p. 9). Additionally, code-switching is both deliberate and noticeable, hence it does not stem from a lack of knowledge.

Code-mixing, on the other hand, is defined by Bokamba (1989) as "the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes, words [unbound morphemes], phrases and clauses from a cooperative activity, where the participants infer what is intended, must reconcile what they hear with what they understand" (p. 281). Thus, it is possible to say that code-mixing operates at a smaller linguistic level compared to code-switching.

Both linguistic phenomena are widely used among bilingual and multilingual individuals and communities for different reasons. These reasons why people switch or mix codes are listed by Hoffman (1991) as "talking about a particular topic, quoting somebody else, inserting sentence fillers and connectors, expressing group identity, being emphatic about something, repetition used for clarification, and intention of clarifying the speech content for interlocutor" (p. 116). In sum, if you change the language, you are communicating intentionally and deliberately to make it more functional, it is code-switching, but if you include borrowing words or phrases from one language and incorporate them into another spontaneously, it is code-mixing. Translanguaging offers a more holistic approach compared to code-switching or code-mixing. Whereas their focus was on alternating or blending the languages, the translanguaging concept emphasizes the interconnected nature of languages and smooth movement between languages. Essentially, translanguaging is viewed as a socio-cognitive behavior, whereas code-switching is thought to be a socio-linguistic behavior (Singleton & Flynn, 2021). Translanguaging is more inclusive of linguistic diversity and rather than surface-level modifications, it encourages people to express themselves authentically by using a rich array of linguistic sources that are

available to them. As opposed to code-switching, translanguaging involves systematic side-byside usage of the first and second languages (Erdin & Salı, 2020).



Figure 1. The difference between code-switching and translanguaging (taken from Thomas et al., 2020, p. 23)

As illustrated in the left side of Figure 1 above, code-switching and code-mixing involve the segregation of languages, where elements of two different languages are stored separately. The learner, here, is expected to shift between two languages. However, this kind of sortation is strictly disputed in translanguaging. On the right side of the visual, the jumbled placement of words from two different languages represents the unity of the linguistic system. The learner is expected to authentically and fluidly engage with his/her linguistic resources.

3. Translanguaging in Pedagogy

Cenoz (2017) has defined pedagogical translanguaging as "planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire" (p. 194). In both language and content classes, the goal is to foster multilingualism in two or more languages, which includes the minority language's development. In this educational approach, students' multilingualism is regarded as a precious source in their process of learning a language. When the theoretical principles of pedagogical translanguaging are considered, like in constructivism, constructionism, and cognitivism, prior knowledge is central here and it includes the knowledge of pragmatic and social aspects of language use, and beliefs about the language besides learners' vocabulary or grammar knowledge (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). This kind of pedagogy welcomes the existing linguistic and cultural diversity of learners as a facilitator of learning rather than seeing it as a potential obstacle. By activating the pre-existing knowledge that learners have as a result of learning different languages, more effective and facilitated learning can be achieved. Translanguaging saves language classrooms from isolated language teaching and enables them to leverage their proficiency in multiple languages and transfer their existing linguistic knowledge to the newly learned language.

In an educational setting directed toward the principles of translanguaging, while linking prior knowledge with existing one, educators integrate students' native languages into their classroom practices as a facilitating tool. Contrary to the dominant L1-inhibitory approaches, translanguaging allows students to ask questions, express ideas, and engage with the academic content in their native language. Having the comfort of L1 use in class helps students clarify themselves better when challenged or discuss their ideas more effectively. By this means, translanguaging is regarded as a scaffolder. Associated with Vygotsky's ZPD concept, scaffolding means encouraging an inexperienced learner to pick up a skill by giving him short-term support.

Finally, the underlying theory of translanguaging is connected to the concept of 'connected growers' in Dynamic Systems Theory. According to this theory, language development is a dynamic self-adaptation process where '"a set of variables mutually affect each other's changes over time" (Van Geert, 1994, p. 50). Van Geert (2003) labels each variable of the linguistic system (lexicon, or the syntax) 'a grower', which is dependent on growth. Cenoz and Gorter (2021) suggest that with the help of pedagogical translanguaging, multilingual repertoire can be developed more effectively and with fewer resources by identifying connected growers.

Another important perception to consider in multilingual classrooms, especially, is the identity matter. Multilingual speakers may be competent in several languages, and they make conscious choices about the language they communicate. However, sometimes they may abstain from using certain linguistic sources. Multilingual people may feel alienated from specific cultures or communities, code-switching may raise their tension, may not feel belonging to any group due to cultural hybridity, or they may not be equally proficient in all the languages they speak. Language is one of the ways individuals construct their identities. Hence, appreciating students' languages also means acknowledging their cultures and identities, which in turn makes them feel validated. Through translanguaging, people can create adaptable and situation-specific identities by navigating between various linguistic and cultural resources (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Cenoz and Gorter (2020) organized the core characteristics of pedagogical translanguaging as below, noting that it can be in different shapes. The following explanations regarding Table 1 are based on their conceptualization. As mentioned in the earlier parts of this article, translanguaging comes to the fore from the bilingual Welsh context. Hence, its main aim is to

develop multiliteracy and multilingualism, which is not confined to only two languages. The goal of translanguaging is to improve school lessons and the languages, it especially fosters the development of the minor language through the more dominant language. In the organization phase, activities should be designed by the teachers as context-specific. The general approach of translanguaging requires soft boundaries between languages, which means overall linguistic repertoire should be deployed by employing elements from different languages.

Table 1. Core characteristics of pedagogical translanguaging (taken from Cenoz & Gorter,2020, p. 3).

Type of program	Multilingual education program
Aims	Aims at linguistic and academic development
Organization	Translanguaging activities are specifically designed
Approach	Soft boundaries between languages

Code mixing happens when the speaker mix between the mother language to another language or it can happen when someone uses one word or phrase from one language to another language rapidly.

4. Review of Recent Research Articles on Translanguaging

The rapidly increasing literature on translanguaging proves its growing significance in multilingual education contexts. Translanguaging, including the dynamic and flexible use of multiple languages within a single communication, has aroused interest for its impact on language development, identity formation, and diverse educational contexts. Translanguaging, as a notion, has been explored in various disciplines such as linguistics, education, and sociocultural perspectives. However, this section comprises articles mainly about pedagogical practices of translanguaging which combines findings from theoretical and empirical studies. The studies included in this part were chosen depending on their relevance to pedagogical implications, recentness, diversity of research contexts (different countries, different participant profiles, and linguistic backgrounds), and the use of quantitative and qualitative research designs. By adopting such inclusion criteria, this review aims to provide a deeper understanding

of translanguaging and insights into its practical implementations in multilingual learning environments worldwide.

Wyper (2020) made an investigation in the Canadian context. The author ran a qualitative research project that probed 18 faculty members and 35 students at a local university about their translanguaging strategies and usage. The data analysis presented that it is hope-giving in terms of classroom practice in the future, and both faculty members and students supported the use of the first language in class.

In the same year, Akbar and Taqi (2020), in Kuwait, investigated the effect of translanguaging on learners' performance and language learning. The sample of the study consisted of 34 volunteer female students of English who took pre- and post-oral and written exercises on the use of translanguaging. Then with a short questionnaire, their perception of using translanguaging as a part of their class work was searched. The findings showed that translanguaging helped them understand better and achieve higher levels of information processing. However, there was not any significant improvement in their language proficiency. Dougherty (2021) from the USA investigated the use of translanguaging in bilingual classrooms in a qualitative research project. Three teacher candidates each of which was placed with a mentor were involved in the study. Via face-to-face interviews, observations, and field notes, their experiences implementing translanguaging during their clinical experience were explored. The findings verified the benefits of translanguaging by showing that it enriched learners' comprehension of subject area content, fostered classroom participation and identity formation, and was well-implemented both spontaneously and purposefully. Also, the author recommended some steps regarding how to employ the translanguaging approach.

In a Turkish state university setting, Karabulut and Dollar (2022) researched the role of translanguaging pedagogy in writing classes and the learners' perceptions of its implementation in an EFL context. 63 prep-school students were included in the study, some of whom were assigned to one control group while the others were divided into two experimental groups. Experimental group 1 was exposed to translanguaging in their writing lessons, but the second experimental group was taught writing by excluding the use of their mother tongue. The control group, on the other hand, had product-oriented English-only writing sessions. Four in-class writing tasks were used as the data of this quantitative study, and inferential statistics was used for data analysis. A weekly questionnaire evaluated participants' perceptions. The results displayed that there was a significant increase in task achievement, lexical and grammatical

range and accuracy, and cohesion and coherence favoring translanguaging. The participants asserted that translanguaging helped them develop their English writing from several aspects. Chicherina and Strelkova (2023) explored the beliefs and attitudes of 581 university students and teachers of two Russian universities towards English medium instruction and English language teaching. They collected the quantitative data with a questionnaire. They found out that ELT supported by English-medium instruction was of high value for all the participants. Translanguaging applications with minimum use of Russian as the mother tongue were prior for the participants, and extra language learning events increased their commitment and confidence to study non-language subjects in English.

Altun (2023) conducted a mini-ethnographic study at a prep school of a Turkish state university. With a purposeful sampling procedure, she included 7 plurilingual students who were learning Turkish as their second language. The author investigated whether translanguaging in academic writing classes would contribute to the learners' writing skills. The qualitative data was collected through think-aloud protocols, follow-up interviews, field observations, and analysis of writing tasks during the semester. It was shown that translingual methodology enhanced writing skills and fostered language learning understanding.

Another research from the Turkish context has come from Karakaş (2023) as a case study approach. The researcher studied the perspectives of university students on translanguaging and its functions in content teaching and learning. The data was collected via semi-structured indepth questionnaires from 3 different Turkish universities with English medium instruction with the participation of 15 students. The findings indicated that while teachers held the virtual position in which they only use English banning L1; students held the optimal position where they valued L1 resources. The study underlines the need for a shift in EMI classes.

5. Conclusion

Taking the detailed information given in this present review article, the concept of translanguaging emerges as a powerful way of teaching through which the dynamic and interconnected nature of languages is understood. Translanguaging makes multilingual people overcome the challenges of multilingualism and allows them to experience the richness of their linguistic repertoire and cultural diversity. It is beyond being only a linguistic phenomenon since approving multilingualism, which was harshly criticized not long ago, means embracing the social and cultural varieties of our global world.

The concept of translanguaging has aroused huge interest and its benefits in language pedagogy have been studied widely (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; García, 2009;

García & Kleyn, 2016; Lynch, 2011; Mazak & Carroll, 2017; Pennycook, 2007). In addition to these researchers, Baker and Wright (2017) listed four advantages of translanguaging. First, translanguaging has the potential to foster a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter. Secondly, it can aid students in improving their literacy and oral communication abilities in their less proficient language. Third, it can make the bonds between school and home stronger. Fourth, translanguaging can facilitate multilingual students' integration with fluent speakers of the instruction language even if they are not as proficient in it (Baker & Wright, 2017, pp. 281–282).

Despite its prominence in recent years, translanguaging is certainly not without criticisms. Though mostly championed, it also has sparked some debate. Some scholars argue about the broadness of the concept, its definition, and its boundaries. Makoni and Pennycook (2007), for example, claim there is no need for such a concept and argue that if we give up on named languages, then bilingualism and multilingualism should be given up as well and that the term 'languaging' may be adequate in their place. Another debate centers around the implementation of translanguaging in classrooms and potential obstacles in translingual applications in education (Flores & Rosa, 2015). Translanguaging is thought to lead to a decrease in the welfare of the students since they may not think this approach is liberating (Charalambous et al., 2016). Similarly, the relationship between multilingual turn and neoliberalism is also probed by Kubota (2015). The scarcity of research conducted in different levels of educational settings is another matter of debate (Carroll & Sambolin Morales, 2016; Riviera & Mazak, 2017), along with the skepticism of its implementation in writing classes (Atkinson et al., 2015; Gevers, 2018; Matsuda, 2013).

As a novel approach to language learning environments of the multicultural modern world, the concept of translanguaging is still on the way to progress. There is still limited research on this subject matter. The fact that translanguaging is highly advocated requires educators, and teachers from all levels to give a chance to try this approach. This attention-grasping notion offers a possible future subject matter to be experienced for the researchers, with the contributions of whom we will understand the application of it better.

REFERENCES

- Akbar, R.S.S., & Taqi, H.A. (2020). Translanguaging as an ESL learning strategy: A case study in Kuwait. *International Journal of Higher Education* 9(6), 54-63.
- Altun, H. (2023). Translanguaging approach in writing Turkish as a second language: An experimental Study. *Türkiye Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi 27*(2). 473-490.
- Atkinson, D., Crusan, D., Matsuda, P. K., Ortmeier-Hooper, C., Ruecker, T., Simpson, S., & Tardy, C. (2015). Clarifying the relationship between L2 writing and translingual writing: An open letter to writing studies editors and organization leaders. *College English*, 77(4), 383.
- Baker, C., & Wright, W. E. (2017). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism (6th ed.). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Beardsmore, H. (2003). Who is afraid of bilingualism? J. Dewaele, A. Housen & W. Li (Eds.), *Bilingualism: Beyond basic principles* (pp. 10-27). Multilingual Matters. <u>https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853596315-004.</u>
- Bokamba, E. G. (1989). Are there syntactic constraints on code-mixing? *Word Englishes*, 8(3), 277-292. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.1989.tb00669.x
- Bruen, J., & Kelly, N. (2014). Using a shared L1 to reduce cognitive overload and anxiety levels in the L2 classroom, *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(3), 368–381. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2014.908405</u>
- Carroll, K.S., & Sambolín Morales, A.N. (2016). Using university students' L1 as a resource: Translanguaging in a Puerto Rican ESL classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal, 39*, 248-262.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 402-423.

- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Code-meshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401–417. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x</u>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: threat or opportunity? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *38*(10), 901-912.
- Cenoz J, Gorter D. (2020). Pedagogical translanguaging: An introduction. *System* 92. E-pub ahead of print 3 May 2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102269.
- Cenoz J, Gorter D. (2021). Pedagogical translanguaging. Cambridge University Press.
- Charalambous, P., Charalambous, C., & Zembylas, M. (2016). "Troubling translanguaging: language ideologies, super-diversity, and interethnic conflict". *Applied Linguistics Review*, 7(3), 327-352. <u>https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2016-0014</u>
- Chicherina, N.V., & Strelkova,S.Y. (2023). Translanguaging in English language teaching: Perceptions of teachers and students. *Education Sciences* 13(86). https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13010086
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103–115. http://www.jstor.org/stable/25612290
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, *49*(2), 222–251.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(2), 221–240.
- Dewaele, J. M., Housen, A., & Wei, L. (Eds) (2003). *Bilingualism: Beyond basic principles*. Multilingual Matters.

- Dougherty, J. (2021). Translanguaging in action: Pedagogy that elevates. *ORTESOL Journal*, 38, 19-32.
- Edwards, J. (2003). The importance of being bilingual. J. Dewaele, A. Housen & W. Li (Eds.), *Bilingualism: Beyond basic principles* (pp. 28-42). Multilingual Matters. <u>https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853596315-005</u>
- Erdin, Y., & Salı, P. (2020). Translanguaging: Insights into its theoretical underpinnings and classroom implications. *Journal of Language Research*, 4(1), 1-11.
- Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 85(2), 149– 171. <u>https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149</u>
- Garcia, O. (2009a). Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective. Blackwell/Wiley.
- García, O. (2009b). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. A.K.
 Mohanty, M. Panda, R. Phillipson, & T. Skutnabb-Kangas (Eds.), *Multilingual* education for social justice: Globalising the local (pp. 128–145). Orient BlackSwan.
- Garcia, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments*. Routledge.
- Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education*. Palgrave MacMillan..
- Gevers, J. (2018). Translingualism revisited: Language difference and hybridity in L2 writing. Journal of Second Language Writing, 40, 73-83. doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2018.04.003
- Goodenough, F. (1982). Racial differences in the intelligence of school children. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 9, 388-397.

Gravelle, M. (1996). Supporting bilingual learners in schools, stoke on trent. Trentham Books.

Hall, G., & G. Cook. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching 45*(3), 271–308.

Haugen, E. (1972). The ecology of language. Standford University Press.

Hoffman, C. (1991). An introduction to bilingualism. Longman.

- Hymes, D. (1962). The ethnography of speaking. Gladvin, T., & Kim, M. (Eds) (2008). Are cases of unconventional code-switching useless? (p.139-149). Anthropological Society of Washington.
- Hymes, D, (1974). *The Ethnography in Speaking*. T. Gladwin (Ed.). *Anthropology and Man Behaviour*. Washington.
- Karabulut, A. & Keşli Dollar, Y. (2022). The use of translanguaging pedagogy in writing classes of Turkish EFL teachers. *Participatory Educational Research* 9 (6). 41-45
- Lewis, G., Jones, B.L., & Baker, C.F. (2012). Translanguaging: origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, *18*, 641 654.
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, *44*(1), 64–77.
- Lynch, A. W. (2011). Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective by Ofelia Garcia. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 5(1), 80-82. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2011.539491
- Matsuda, P. K. (2013). It's the wild West out there: A new linguistic frontier in U.S. college composition. A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and classrooms* (pp. 128-138). Routledge.
- May, S. (2014). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. Routledge.
- Mazak, C. & Caroll, K. (2017). *Translanguaging in higher education*: Beyond Monolingual Ideologies.

Pennycook, A. (2007). Global Englishes and transcultural flows. Routledge

- Rivera, A. J., & Mazak, C. M. (2017). Analyzing student perceptions on translanguaging: A case study of a Puerto Rican university classroom. *How*, 24(1), 122–138.
- Selleck, C. & Barakos, E. (2023). A reflexive approach to researching bilingualism in Wales: language, legitimacy, and positionality. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. 44. 672-688. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2023.2195382</u>
- Singleton, D. & Flynn, C.J. (2022). Translanguaging: a pedagogical concept that went wandering. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 16(2), 136-147. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2021.1985692
- Thomas, E. M., Siôn, C. G., Jones. B., Dafydd, M., Lloyd-Williams, S. W., Tomos, Rh., Lowri Jones, L. M., Jones, D., Maelor, G., Evans, Rh. a Caulfield, G. (2022). *Translanguaging: A quick reference guide for educators*. National Collaborative Resources: Aberystwyth University and Bangor University.
- Wendel, J. N. (2005). Notes on the ecology of language. *Bunkyo Gakuin University Academic Journal*, 5, 51-76.
- Weinreich, U. (1953). Languages in Contact. The Hague: Mouton.
- Wyper, L., (2020). Translanguaging usage and perceptions in higher education: Towards inclusionary pedagogy and transformative learning. *Journal of Transformative Learning*, (7)2, 72–98.
- Van Geert, P. (1994). Dynamic systems of development: Change between complexity and chaos. Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Van Geert, P. (2003). Dynamic systems approaches and modeling of developmental processes.
 Valsiner & K. J. Connolly (Eds.), *Handbook of developmental psychology* (pp.640-672).
 Sage.

Vogel, S., & Garcia, O. (2017). Translanguaging. G. Noblit & L. Moll (Eds.), Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education (pp.32-56). Oxford University Press.

https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315752617-9

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Lecturer Ayşegül ÖZASLAN

ORCID: 0000-0002-9523-6432

aozaslan@erciyes.edu.tr

Erciyes University, School of Foreign Languages

Ayşegül Özaslan graduated from Gazi University, English Language and Teaching Department. She completed her master's degree at Erciyes University, English Language and Literature Department, where she is a PhD student now. She is currently teaching at the School of Foreign Languages at Erciyes University, Kayseri, Türkiye. Her research interests include language teaching methodologies, intercultural communication, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics.



Prof. Dr. Bilal GENÇ

ORCID: 0000-0002-6231-6057

bgenc@erciyes.edu.tr

Erciyes University, Faculty of Letters, English Language and Literature Department

Bilal Genc completed his doctorate in the field of English Language Education at Çukurova University. Dr. Genc has published nationally and internationally. Dr. Genc is currently a Professor at the English Language and Literature Department of Ercives University, Kayseri, Türkiye. His research interests include ELT research and applied linguistics.

To Cite this Chapter

Özaslan, A. & Genç, B. (2024). Translanguaging in depth: A review article. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 21-38). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 3: AI-POWERED CHATBOTS FOR DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW¹

Elif Nur SARIYILDIZ ^(D) Nazlı BAYKAL ^(D) İdil SAYIN ^(D)

1. Introduction

Technology is recognized as a potential tool to innovate and change the dynamics of teaching and learning practices. Specifically, the recent technological advancements in artificial intelligence (AI) have caused AI to make its way into education. Learners and teachers widely utilize AI for several educational purposes by incorporating various tools and applications such as intelligent tutoring systems, teaching robots, and adaptive learning systems (Chen et al., 2020). Among these, AI-powered chatbots have attracted noticeable interest for their potential to promote language learning. An AI-powered chatbot is a computer program that can engage in conversations through audio and text interfaces (Kim et al., 2021). Significant advancements in AI promoted the use of chatbots in language education (Jeon, 2022). Incorporating AI-powered chatbots for educational purposes allows learners to practice a foreign language (Kim et al., 2021). Interacting with these chatbots also provides plenty of opportunities for speaking practice (Kim et al., 2021). Moreover, AI-powered chatbots could engage in intelligent dialogues with language learners while evaluating their speaking skills (Huang et al., 2023). Thus, AI-powered chatbots can provide personalized learning experiences and accommodate students' individual needs and proficiency levels.

AI-powered chatbots have become increasingly popular in English language teaching over the past few years (Kim et al., 2019). Additionally, chatbots developed for commercial use have increased significantly in recent years. Therefore, studies on AI-powered tools and their effects on language skills are gaining importance, which also shows that researchers have growing interest in using AI tools in language education (Huang et al., 2023). Several systematic reviews have investigated the efficacy of chatbots and AI-powered chatbots, summarizing their application in language education overall (Huang et al., 2021; Kuhail et al., 2023; Pérez et al., 2020; Wollny et al., 2021). However, a notable gap exists in the literature regarding systematic

¹ This paper has been presented in Third International Language-for-All Conference (LFAC'24).

reviews specifically addressing the use of AI-powered chatbots for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' speaking skills.

This review paper aims to address this gap by examining the methodological trends, descriptives, and main findings in studies on AI-powered chatbots for developing EFL learners' speaking skills. This research provides insights into the use of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills and a comprehensive analysis of current research in the field. It contributes to understanding AI-powered chatbots' potential to support EFL speaking skill development in the digital age.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Artificially Intelligent Chatbots

Various AI tools have been used in education to facilitate language learning. Nowadays, within the diverse AI applications in language education, chatbots have become prominent for their ability to mimic human speech and provide interactive language practice. Most chatbots employ AI algorithms and Natural Language Processing (NLP) techniques to generate responses, providing users with a conversational experience that closely mimics human interaction (Hsu et al., 2023). They have a sophisticated conversational system designed to mimic human interaction through written or spoken language, and these systems can communicate through text, speech, visuals, virtual gestures, or physical gestures with feedback (Belda-Medina & Calvo-Ferrer, 2022).

The history of chatbots dates back to the early 1960s with the development of ELIZA, a program that interacted with human users through typed English input (Kim et al., 2019). Since then, chatbots have evolved from retrieval-based systems to more advanced generative models. ALICE, Cleverbot, Elbot, Eve, Replika, Lyra, Andy, Mondly, and Duolingo are chatbots invented after ELIZA. Although numerous chatbot applications share similarities, some stand out for their effectiveness in promoting and motivating users to learn, engage in conversation, and communicate effectively (Kim et al., 2019). They can provide students with increased interactivity and expanded opportunities to utilize foreign languages despite the limitations in language learning (Kim et al., 2019).

Some chatbots are specifically designed for foreign language learning, such as CLIVE, an early AI-powered chatbot. CLIVE is an AI-powered chatbot that can provide users with authentic conversations by utilizing an instant messaging interface to facilitate conversational language practice (Zakos & Capper, 2008). Several AI mobile applications have been created for EFL

speaking practice, including Duolingo, Liulishuo, and EAP Talk, all utilizing speech evaluation technology and NLP (Zou et al., 2023). Advanced AI models such as ChatGPT contributed to the popularity and use of chatbots. The emergence of new applications like Talk-to-ChatGPT has provided significant growth in conversations between humans and chatbots (Jeon et al., 2023). Moreover, ChatGPT 4.0 offers users a human-like communication experience by providing text- and voice-based interaction. These advancements have led AI technology to have a significant role as a conversational tool in language education. In their systematic review, Ji et al. (2022) stated that the primary function of conversational AI was to serve as a speaking partner. Most of the studies they reviewed utilized conversational AI as a speaking partner that uses learners' spoken input for interaction. Similarly, Jeon et al. (2023) reviewed studies on speech recognition chatbots for language learning and found that conversational partner was the most common role of chatbots.

Thus, the potential of AI-powered chatbots to improve EFL speaking skills as effective conversational partners has been the focus of research. However, understanding how these tools specifically impact EFL speaking skills is essential.

2.2 AI-powered Chatbots and Speaking Skills

Interacting with AI can help language learners improve their speaking skills (Yin & Satar, 2020). Zou et al. (2023) stated that various studies have proved that AI-powered speaking applications effectively develop EFL speaking skills. Similarly, Kim (2017) found that textand voice-based chatbots enhance EFL learners' speaking skills, although the voice-based chatbots were more favorable. Likewise, Van Doremalen et al. (2016) indicated that voicebased chatbots are more suitable for language learning. Considering that the majority of today's AI-powered chatbots include both text and voice chatting, they can be more interactive and provide learners with correct pronunciation and intonation of the words, as well as feedback.

Several studies highlighted various benefits of AI-powered chatbots in developing foreign language learners' speaking skills. Kang (2022) conducted a study using Replika by comparing the outcomes of non-native English speakers interacting with AI to those interacting with native English speakers. The study showed that AI had a more positive effect on improving EFL learners' speaking skills compared to the group interacting with native English speakers, particularly in terms of accuracy, fluency, coherence, and interaction. Similarly, Lin and Mubarok (2021) examined how Replika affected EFL learners' speaking skills. The results showed that learners improved their fluency, consistently used appropriate structures, and

developed topics logically and coherently, with minimal hesitation or repetition. In another study, Shafiee Rad (2024) found that Speeko positively influenced language learners' speaking skills, willingness to communicate (WTC), and perceptions. Yang et al. (2022) used a voicebased chatbot, Ellie, and investigated its performance as a conversational partner. It was stated that the chatbot encouraged Korean EFL students to interact. Chien et al. (2022) examined English-speaking exercises using the LINE ChatBot. The findings of their study revealed that using the LINE ChatBot within a contextual learning environment led to the development of EFL learners' speaking skills. Moreover, Kim (2016) examined how voice chat influenced the speaking skills of Korean EFL learners. The findings of this study revealed that engaging in voice chat enhanced speaking skills across various proficiency levels among the learners. It was also emphasized that voice chat offers EFL learners opportunities to boost motivation, build confidence, and reduce anxiety. The study by Shafiee Rad and Roohani (2024) indicated that integrating the ELSA Speak App significantly improved the accuracy and comprehensibility of pronunciation among language learners. Their study revealed that AI-based teaching was more effective than traditional face-to-face teaching. However, according to Kim et al. (2021), interactions through both face-to-face communication and AI chatbots are equally beneficial for enhancing speaking skills. Furthermore, Hsu et al. (2023) designed TPBOT to eliminate non-native English speakers' speaking anxiety and achieved this goal by improving their English-speaking skills. Jeon (2022) showed that chatbots can help alleviate students' speaking anxiety because they can freely express themselves without fear of making mistakes in front of their peers.

Recent studies displayed the positive effects of integrating AI-powered chatbots into language learning. The use of these tools is influential in improving speaking skills and reducing anxiety. The positive outcomes can be attributed to some of the characteristics of AI-powered chatbots. Exploring these features can help explain how AI-powered chatbots enhance speaking skills. Several key factors contribute to the effectiveness of AI-powered chatbots in improving speaking skills. First, they are accessible anytime and anywhere, allowing learners to practice at their convenience (Dokukina & Gumanova, 2019), especially for those with time constraints. Second, they provide immediate feedback, allowing learners to correct mistakes and refine their skills in real-time (Dokukina & Gumanova, 2019; Hakim & Rima, 2022; Shafiee Rad, 2024). These applications give individualized, instant feedback, allowing students to identify and correct errors immediately, improving pronunciation, fluency, and grammar (Shafiee Rad, 2024). Another feature is that chatbots provide a less stressful environment (Mageira et al.,

2022; Shafiee Rad, 2024). Learners can engage in tasks at their own pace, free from the fear of making mistakes, in a friendly setting (Mageira et al., 2022). This supportive atmosphere boosts WTC (Shafiee Rad, 2024). Moreover, chatbots' authentic conversation gives learners a better understanding of the target language (Shafiee Rad, 2024). These factors significantly affect the development of speaking skills.

Considering the positive outcomes and findings from the available literature, it is significant to investigate the use of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills. While previous reviews have explored chatbots in a broader context, this systematic review focuses specifically on AI-powered chatbots used to develop EFL learners' speaking skills. Considering that the focus is on speaking skills, this study investigates AI-powered chatbots that support voice-based interactions. This study aims to offer an overview of the state-of-the-art and suggest directions for future studies by identifying the key research trends and gaps. Lastly, the review synthesizes the findings from available literature to assess the overall impact of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills.

This systematic review aims to examine the descriptives, methodological trends, and main findings in studies on using AI-powered chatbots to develop EFL learners' speaking skills. To achieve this, the following research questions were addressed:

- What are the descriptives and methodological trends in studies on AI-powered chatbots for developing EFL learners' speaking skills?
- What are the main findings from studies on the use of AI-powered chatbots for developing EFL learners' speaking skills?

3. Examining the state-of-the-art in AI-powered chatbots for EFL speaking skills

The current study utilized a systematic review methodology to examine available literature and present the current research landscape. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guideline (Page et al., 2021) was followed to identify and analyze the relevant studies systematically. Studies utilizing AIpowered chatbots with voice-based interaction on EFL speaking skills were identified to identify descriptives, methodological trends, and main findings.

This systematic review focused on identifying relevant studies within the electronic databases Web of Science (WoS), Scopus, and ERIC. These databases were selected for their extensive coverage of educational research and inclusion of high-quality, peer-reviewed publications. The screening process followed three steps:

- 1. Potential studies were identified through search strings.
- 2. Titles and abstracts were examined to determine the relevance of studies to the research objectives, and inappropriate studies were extracted according to the inclusion criteria.
- 3. A full-text assessment was conducted to evaluate the eligibility of studies for inclusion in the review.

Figure 1 presents the PRISMA flowchart that displays the process.

The first screening step was conducted on the databases on May 20th, 2024. Two rounds of search were conducted to avoid missing any records. Table 1 displays all the search strings used for both screenings. The search accessed 321 studies on WoS, 186 on Scopus, and 161 on ERIC, utilizing the categorical filter (educational research category). After duplicates were removed (n=50), 618 studies remained. The records were screened by title and abstract, and 542 studies were extracted. After the full screening of the studies, 22 articles were found eligible for the systematic review according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria (Table 2).

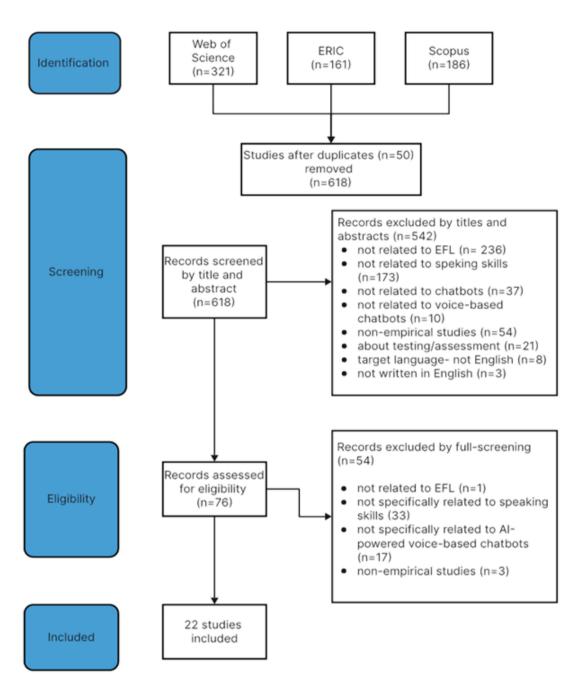


Figure 1. PRISMA flowchart (adapted from Page et al., 2021)

Round	Search strings (Group 1)	Boolean operator	Search strings (Group 2)
1	"chatbot*" OR "chatterbot*" OR "voicebot" OR "AI chatbot*" OR "artificial intelligence chatbot*" OR "conversational agent*" OR "artificial intelligence"	AND	"speaking" OR "speaking skill*" OR "speaking performance" OR "pronunciation" OR "fluency" OR "accuracy" OR "intonation" OR "oral proficiency" OR "speaking anxiety"
2	OR "artificial intelligence and speaking skill*" OR "artificial intelligence speaking tool*" OR "interactive conversational agent*"		OR "willingness to communicate" OR "language education" OR "language acquisition" OR "language learning" OR "language teaching" OR "EFL" OR "ESL"

Table 1. Search strings

The asterisk (*) indicates that the keyword was screened with the flexibility to include various forms of the word. For example, 'skill' will find 'skill', 'skills', 'skillful', etc."

Criteria	Inclusion	Exclusion		
Publication year	2020-2024	Before 2020		
Publication type	Peer-reviewed articles	Review articles, Editorial material, Book chapters, Early access articles, Proceedings		
Context	Educational contexts, EFL	Other language skills than speaking, Disciplines different from EFL		
Language	English	Other languages		
Focus	Al-powered chatbots with a focus on foreign language speaking skill	Non-Al chatbots, Only text-based chatbots		
Chatbot	Al-powered chatbots providing voice-based communication	Non-Al chatbots, Only text-based chatbots		

Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The included studies were analyzed through content analysis to categorize the data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Content analysis allows for the analysis and interpretation of the included studies by reducing them into identified categories (Harwood & Garry, 2003). For this purpose, research questions were subcategorized. Table 3 displays the research questions and their subcategories.

Research Question	Subcategories		
	Number of studies per year		
	Number of studies per country		
	Research design		
RQ1. What are the descriptives and methodological	Study group		
trends in studies on AI-powered chatbots for developing	Size of study group		
EFL learners' speaking skills?	Context of intervention		
	Duration of intervention		
	Chatbots		
	Studied topic		
	Mechanics of speaking		
RQ2. What are the main findings from studies on the use	Affective dimensions of speaking		
of AI-powered chatbots for developing EFL learners' speaking skills?	Advantages of AI-powered chatbots		
SP	Disadvantages of AI-powered chatbots		

Table 3. Subcategories of the research questions

4. The state-of-the-art AI-powered chatbots for EFL speaking skills

4.1. Descriptives and Methodological Trends

The predetermined subcategories were examined to answer the first research question and explore the descriptives and methodological trends in studies related to the use of AIpowered chatbots in EFL speaking skills. These subcategories include the number of studies per year, the number of studies per country, the research design, the study group and size, the context and duration of the interventions, chatbots, and the studied topic.

4.1.1. Number of studies per year

Figure 2 demonstrates the distribution of the studies on AI-powered chatbots and EFL speaking skills published between 2020 and 2024. While no study specifically focused on AI-powered chatbots and EFL speaking skills in 2020, the number of studies increased in the following years: n=5 in 2021, n=4 in 2022, and n=7 in 2024. As the cut-off date was May 2024, additional studies may emerge by the end of the year.

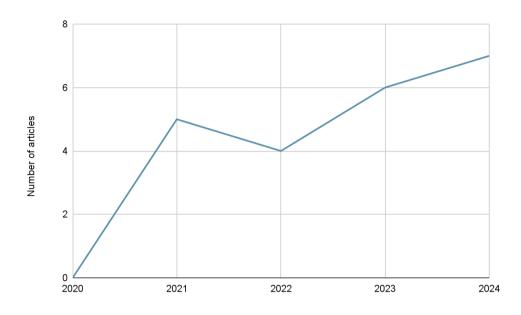


Figure 2. Distribution of studies per year

4.1.2. Number of studies per country

The reviewed studies took place in a wide range of countries. Figure 3 presents the distribution of studies per country. Most of the studies examining AI-powered chatbots and EFL speaking skills were implemented in Taiwan (n=4), followed by China (n=3), Korea (n=3), and Iran (n=3). The rest of the studies took place in a range of countries: Sweden (n=2), India (n=2), Malaysia (n=1), Türkiye (n=1), Indonesia (n=1), Vietnam (n=1), and Kazakhstan (n=1).

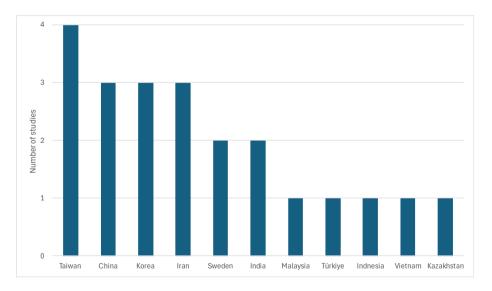
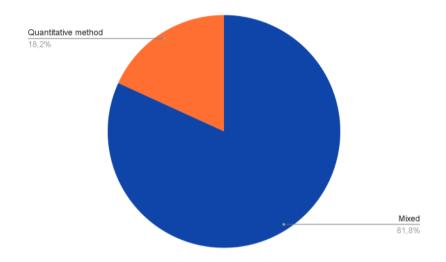
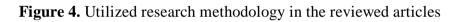


Figure 3. Countries of the studies

4.1.3. Research design

As shown in Figure 4, the mixed method (81,8%, n=18) was the most frequently used design in the reviewed studies. The quantitative method (18,2%, n=4) was also preferred, while the qualitative method was not preferred. Most studies chose mixed method design to get a deep insight into students' perspectives towards using AI-powered chatbots on EFL speaking skills and their effects. In most of these studies, the quantitative and qualitative findings support each other.





4.1.4. Study group

Figure 5 illustrates the distribution of study groups in the reviewed studies. University students comprised the largest group, representing 50% (n=12) of the total. Elementary school students comprised 25% (n=6), followed by high school students at 12.5%. Adult learners accounted for 8.3% (n=2), while teachers constituted the smallest group, representing 4.2% (n=1).

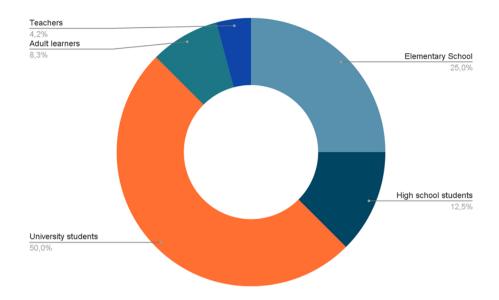


Figure 5. Study groups in the reviewed studies

4.1.5. Size of study groups

In the reviewed studies, the size of study groups varies from n=314 (Chung et al., 2022) as the largest to n=22 (Ericsson & Johansson, 2023) as the smallest. However, most of the studies had study groups with more than 60 participants. Figure 6 shows the distribution of studies based on their study group size.

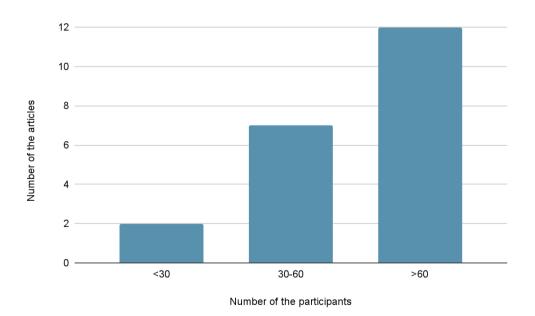


Figure 6. Sample size in the reviewed studies

4.1.6. Context of intervention

In the reviewed studies, AI-powered chatbots were used in class, outside the class, or both. While the central tendency is in-class (n=9) (e.g., Tai & Chen, 2021), many studies used AI-powered chat outside the class (n=7) (e.g., Yang et al., 2022). In addition, some studies preferred both in-class and outside the class (n=6) (e.g., Kim et al., 2021), as shown in Figure 7.

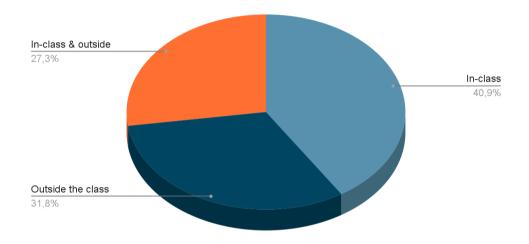


Figure 7. Context of AI-powered chatbots

4.1.7. Duration of intervention

AI-powered chatbots were used in the reviewed studies for various durations. The usage of chatbots ranges from two weeks (Ericsson et al., 2023) to an entire semester (16 weeks in Korea) (Kim et al., 2021). However, most studies gave 1-3 months (n=12) and more than three months (n=7) for the intervention. In some studies, intervention durations were less than one month (n = 3). Figure 8 shows the distribution of studies based on their intervention durations.

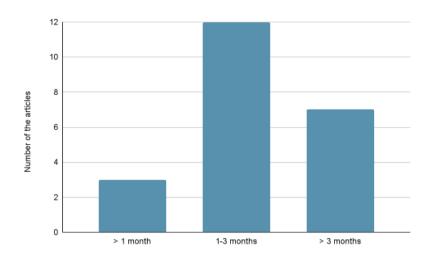
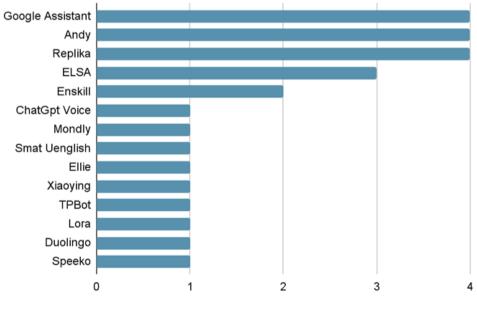


Figure 8. Duration of the interventions in the reviewed studies

4.1.8. The most common AI-powered chatbots

As Figure 9 shows, the reviewed studies utilized various AI-powered chatbots. The most common AI-powered chatbots used in the reviewed studies are Google Assistant, Andy, and Replika.



Frequency of utilized Al-powered chatbots

Figure 9. AI-powered chatbots utilized in the reviewed studies

4.1.9. Frequently studied topics

Most studies examined more than one topic. Table 4 displays the frequency of these topics with the sample articles, while Figure 10 illustrates the topics examined in the reviewed studies. The most studied topic is student perceptions of AI-powered chatbot communication (n=17), which was typically explored in the qualitative phases of mixed-method studies. The second main topic is the overall speaking skills of learners (n=14), including some of the speaking mechanics: pronunciation (n=9), fluency (n=3), intonation and stress (n=2), and grammar accuracy (n=3) in speech. Apart from speaking skills, WTC (n=5) and speaking anxiety (n=3) are other trend topics related to speaking. Only one study examined teacher perceptions toward AI-powered chatbot communication.

Table 4. Studied Topics with Frequencies and Sample Articles

Studied topics	Ν	Sample article
Overall Speaking Proficiency	14	Hwang et al., 2022
Pronunciation		Shafiee Rad & Roohani, 2024
Fluency	3	Duong & Suppasetseree, 2024
Grammatical Accuracy		Fathi et al., 2024
Intonation and stress	2	Kemelbekova et al., 2024
WTC	5	Yuan, 2023
Speaking Anxiety	3	Rahman & Tomy, 2023
Student Perceptions toward chatbot communication		Kim et al., 2021
Teacher perceptions toward chatbot communication		Kemelbekova et al., 2024

4.2. Main findings

The main findings concerning the effects of AI-powered chatbots on EFL speaking skills were analyzed to answer the second research question.

4.2.1. Mechanics of speaking

Table 5 presents the main findings related to the mechanics of speaking in the reviewed studies. Most of the studies examined overall speaking skills; the results of the reviewed studies indicated an improvement in speaking skills (n=12) and students' perceived speaking skills (n=2). In terms of speaking mechanics, the majority of the studies indicated improvement, with a few exceptions. Almost all the studies investigating pronunciation proficiency found that students' pronunciation skills advanced (n=9). Only in one article (Kemelbekova et al., 2024) was it observed that there was no significant difference in pronunciation accuracy. For fluency and grammatical accuracy, the findings demonstrated that students made progress in these areas in all the articles. In two studies examining intonation and stress, while one improved students' skills, the other showed variety in their findings.

Findings regarding the mechanics of speaking	N	Sample Study
Overall speaking skills		
Improvement in speaking skills	12	Hwang et al., 2022
Improvement in perceived speaking skills		Muniandy & Selvanathan, 2024
Pronunciation		
Improvement in pronunciation accuracy	9	Shafiee Rad & Roohani, 2024
No improvement in pronunciation accuracy	1	Kemelbekova et al., 2024
Fluency		
Improvement in fluency	8	Duong & Suppasetseree, 2024
Grammatical accuracy		
Improvement in grammatical accuracy	6	Fathi et al., 2024
Intonation and stress		
Improvement in intonation and stress		Kim et al., 2021
No improvement in intonation and stress		Kemelbekova et al., 2024

Table 5. The main findings regarding the mechanics of speaking

4.2.2. Affective dimensions of speaking

Table 6 presents the main findings related to the affective dimensions of speaking in the reviewed studies. WTC was one of the most studied topics. All the studies related to WTC (n=5) revealed that interaction with an AI-powered chatbot increased WTC among students. One main reason is that communication with AI-powered chatbots reduces speaking anxiety. Thus, with regard to this, the findings of reviewed studies also displayed a decrease (n=4) in speaking anxiety in students. However, in one study, it was quite the opposite: communicating with an AI-powered chatbot increased students' speaking anxiety (Çakmak, 2022).

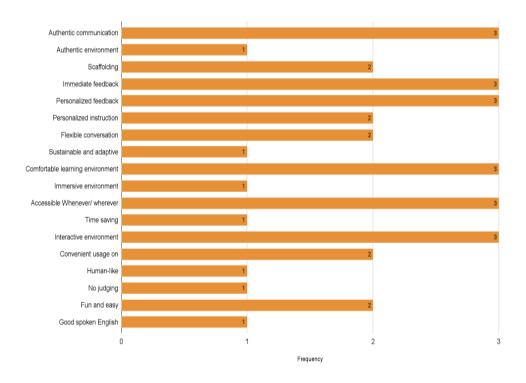
Regarding student perspectives, the results showed that students' attitudes towards interacting with an AI-powered chatbot were positive (n=15), neutral to positive (n=1), and negative (n=1). Teachers also had a positive attitude (n=1) towards AI-powered chatbot communication with students.

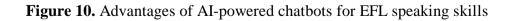
Findings regarding the affective dimension of speaking	N	Sample Study
WTC		
Improvement in WTC		Tai & Chen, 2023
Speaking anxiety		
Decrease in speaking anxiety	4	Rahman & Tomy, 2023
Increase in speaking anxiety		Çakmak, 2022
Student perceptions towards chatbot communication		
Positive	16	Shafiee Rad & Roohani, 2024
Negative		Çakmak, 2022
Teacher perceptions towards chatbot communication		
Positive		Kemelbekova et al., 2024

Table 6. The main findings regarding the affective dimension of speaking

4.2.3. Advantages of AI-powered chatbots

Figure 10 presents the advantages attributed to the use of AI-powered chatbots for EFL speaking skills. Some of the main advantages mentioned in student perceptions were authentic communication, immediate feedback, personalized feedback, a comfortable learning environment, accessibility, and an interactive environment.





4.2.4. Disadvantages of AI-powered chatbots

Despite the numerous advantages reported, some disadvantages are also mentioned in the reviewed studies. Figure 11 reveals the most frequently mentioned disadvantages. Disadvantages include communication breakdowns, issues with speech recognition, and the feeling of having an artificial conversation. While not as prominent as the advantages, these disadvantages highlight some limitations that AI-powered chatbots may pose in creating a seamless and natural language learning experience.

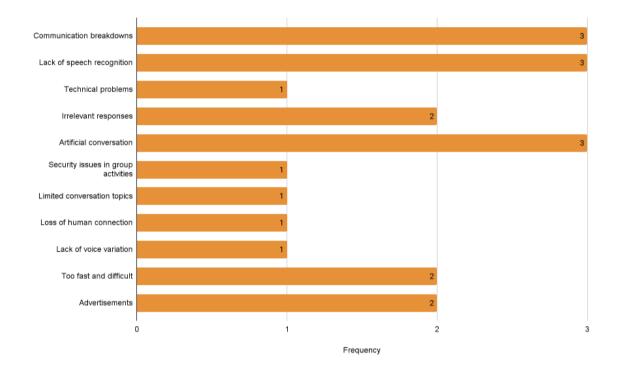


Figure 11. Disadvantages of AI-powered chatbots for speaking

5. Interpretation of state-of-the-art in AI-powered chatbots on EFL speaking skills

This article reviewed 22 articles from the WoS, Scopus, and ERIC databases, with the main purpose of examining the use of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills. The selected articles were examined in terms of descriptives, methodological trends, and main findings.

The analysis revealed an increase in the number of articles from 2020 to 2024. It was seen that there has been a higher interest in the last two years, which could be attributed to the advancements in AI and speech recognition technology and the rising popularity and accessibility of chatbots in language learning. Similarly, in the systematic review by Jeon et al. (2023), the number of articles related to speech recognition chatbots for language learning

increased after 2020 and reached a peak in 2022. The rise could be attributed to the emergence of ChatGPT and voice-based extensions of it (Jeon et al., 2023). Lin and Yu (2023) also support this increasing trend in the number of studies about chatbots' usage in education, especially after 2020. While there are several studies regarding AI-powered chatbots in language learning, the number of studies on their usage in the area of speaking is still scarce in the literature. This review found solely 22 empirical studies from three databases, which examined speaking skills and perceptions through interventions with AI-powered chatbots. Thus, this upward trend in publications may continue due to the growing tendency to integrate technology into language learning.

The countries of the research studies varied, but there is an intensity in the Asian countries, specifically Taiwan (n=4), China (n=3), Korea (n=3), and Iran (n=3). The majority of the studies were based in Asia, a trend similarly noted by Huang et al. (2023) in their systematic review of chatbots for language learning. The higher number of studies in these countries may be linked to governmental initiatives related to AI and education—Taiwan's Ministry of Education provides funding for chatbots designed for K12 students (Chen, 2023), while the Chinese government aims to be a global leader in AI and promotes its integration into education for personalized learning (Bhutoria, 2022). Other countries where studies were conducted include Sweden, Indonesia, Türkiye, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, and Vietnam. Thus, expanding research on AI-powered chatbots for EFL speaking to other regions and cultures could bring more generalizable data and significant insights to the field.

Mixed methods design is prevalent in the reviewed studies concerning the research design. For most articles, a quantitative phase was conducted to assess the impact of AI-powered chatbots on speaking, and an additional qualitative phase was implemented to explore and understand the perceptions of the study groups. As Dornyei (2007) indicates, employing both qualitative and quantitative methods provides the chance to yield the most comprehensive results. A total of 18 studies used a mixed methods design, while only four studies preferred a quantitative research design. None of the articles used qualitative design, which could be attributed to the perceived necessity of measuring the development of skills numerically.

The study group size in the examined articles ranges from 22 to 314, with most studies having groups larger than 60. The rest are between 30 and 60, with less than 30 participants in only two studies. Moreover, the study groups in the reviewed studies were mainly university students. The studies with larger study groups mostly included university students. In the review

by Jeon et al. (2023), higher education was found to be the most favored sample. The number of studies that selected high school and elementary school students as study groups is less than that of university students. University students might have easier access to the necessary technological tools, and as a study group, they may be more accessible and convenient for researchers. Additionally, conducting a study with younger students could be challenging due to privacy issues and ethical considerations. Only two studies included adults. There is a need for further research, including adult and younger students, who are underrepresented in this area of research. Lastly, only one study (Kemelbekova et al., 2024) examined teachers' perceptions on AI-powered chatbot communication of students. Although there are other studies on teachers' perceptions, there still might be a gap in the literature on the speaking aspect of the topic.

Another dimension of methodology is the intervention duration, during which participants were exposed to AI-powered chatbots. Most studies allowed participants to engage with the chatbot for 1-3 months. Of all the reviewed articles, seven studies have a longer interval duration than three months. These studies displayed AI-powered chatbots' effects on EFL speaking skills over the long term, with a tendency for improvement in speaking. In contrast, some studies' intervention time is less than a month, and it might be hard to attribute the difference in participants' speaking skills to the tool utilized.

In the reviewed studies, the use of AI-powered chatbots in educational settings was in-class, outside the class, and both inside and outside the class. The in-class administration of chatbots was the most common. This context might be more convenient for teachers to observe and evaluate students' behavior in addition to monitoring students' advancement in the regular school environment. In addition, in this way, teachers can interfere if any problem occurs with the technological device. Though less than in-class context, outside-the-class context is also used for chatbot communication. When in-class time is not enough, or the use of chatbot is not convenient or officially supported in the school environment, its use outside the classroom may be advantageous. This could also offer flexibility for students to advance at their own pace and promote autonomous learning. One of the most notable aspects of AI applications is their ability to provide students autonomy during training (Shafiee Rad & Roohani, 2024). Moreover, outside the school environment, students might feel more relaxed and less pressured, which could lower speaking anxiety. The rest of the studies used chatbots in class and outside the class contexts. The advantages of both contexts are combined in this design.

In terms of AI-powered chatbots, the results revealed that Google Assistant, Replika, and Andy chatbots were the tools used the most, along with many others. The primary criterion was accessibility for the selection of these tools, except for the ones that were designed for research purposes. Commercial chatbots like Xiaoying from Microsoft (e.g., Ye et al., 2022) are also advantageous for researchers regarding accessibility. For instance, in Lin and Mubarok's study (2021), Replika was used because it has free access and is convenient for students to use on their phones. Also, Intelligent Personal Assistants (IPA) such as Google Assistant are becoming very common, and researchers used this opportunity for investigation purposes in language education because IPAs can act as conversational partners (Jeon et al. (2023). Another study (Yuan, 2023) chose the Mondly application because it is specifically designed for language learning. ELSA is also designed to improve English pronunciation, and Shafiee Rad and Roohani (2024) investigated its effect in their study. Some studies also consider students' preferences for the selection process of chatbots (e.g., Kim et al., 2021). In many studies, utilized chatbots also provided interaction in everyday life scenarios, as in Enskill (e.g., Ericson et al., 2023). Thus, the number of chatbots is still rising today, and there could be many options for investigating their effects on language learning.

In the reviewed studies, students' perceptions were of great interest to researchers. As the most studied topic, students' perceptions and feedback on communication with AI-powered chatbots are crucial to understanding the effect of chatbots. Jeon et al. (2022) also concluded that the most common research focus was learners' perceptions in their systematic review of speech recognition chatbots. This shows researchers' high interest in understanding students' perspectives on the topic. In contrast, only one study investigated teachers' perceptions; even then, it was a minor part of the study. This may be because the study primarily focused on speaking skills rather than teachers' perceptions. Nevertheless, further exploration of teachers' perspectives on using AI-powered chatbots for EFL speaking skills could offer valuable insights into the practical implementation of chatbots in educational settings.

Another focus of the studies is overall speaking skills with speaking mechanics like pronunciation, fluency, grammatical accuracy, intonation, and stress. While some studies evaluate speaking skills as a whole, others delve into detail and assess speaking skills separately. This shows that chatbots may have different effects on specific speaking skills. Although there is a general improvement in speaking skills, the limited number of articles makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions. The importance of pronouncing accurate and precise speech may explain why pronunciation is the most studied skill in the studies. Fluency,

grammatical accuracy, intonation, and stress are under-researched topics related to AI-powered chatbots, the main reason for which might be the difficulty in assessing those skills. Other studies examined some affective factors in speaking, such as WTC and speaking anxiety. Increased WTC and low speaking anxiety would lead to a more comfortable learning environment and ease of speaking. Similarly, Jeon et al. (2023) noted the impact of chatbots on learners' affective variables in their review. This suggests that researchers are increasingly interested in the affective and psychological dimensions of speaking that AI-powered chatbots influence.

The findings reveal significant positive effects of AI-powered chatbots on EFL speaking skills. In the reviewed studies, AI-powered chatbots were found to enhance overall speaking skills. In addition to this, AI-powered chatbots were also shown to enhance students' self-perceived speaking skills. This suggests that AI-powered chatbots promote self-assessment and boost language learners' self-confidence in their speaking skills. Additionally, except for one, all studies showed that AI-powered chatbots improved speaking mechanics. Studies focused on pronunciation accuracy reported improvement, with one exception, which found no significant difference. This finding shows the potential of AI-powered chatbots to develop pronunciation by providing personalized feedback and targeted practice. Improvement in pronunciation by technological tools is supported in the literature. For example, computer-assisted pronunciation instruction with AI has been shown to enhance pronunciation in L2 learners, especially in lowanxiety environments (Wang et al., 2023). However, Kemelbekova et al. (2024) found no significant difference in pronunciation accuracy. This might be due to individual differences or cultural/contextual factors. Additionally, Kim (2016) indicated that AI-powered chatbots might be more effective in improving lower-level students' pronunciation. Moreover, according to the findings, AI-powered chatbots promote fluent and accurate speech by improving fluency and grammatical accuracy. However, the inconsistent results on intonation and stress require more research.

Moreover, conversational AI has been developed as a conversational partner to support language learners by enhancing their WTC (Ayedoun et al., 2015) and reducing speaking anxiety (Bao, 2019). The increase in WTC in studies is another consistent and outstanding finding for the potential of AI-powered chatbots, which could be attributed to lower anxiety levels. Studies related to speaking anxiety also have positive outcomes for students except for one (Çakmak, 2022). Several studies reported students' positive perceptions of AI-powered chatbot communication, which shows that students become more motivated, engaged, and willing to speak. These affective factors are crucial and significant in the language learning journey. Only one research study (Çakmak, 2022) found an increase in speaking anxiety, which is interesting because the negative results about speaking anxiety and student perceptions are from the same study. She attributes the results to the novelty effect of AI technology and communication problems with the AI-powered chatbot. Furthermore, contextual factors might also influence students. The sources of the negative findings may also be the unfamiliarity with technology, technical problems, the design of the utilized chatbot, and individual differences. Thus, more studies in similar contexts are needed to comprehend the real reasons behind the divergent results.

The review also reveals several advantages and disadvantages of using an AI-powered chatbot for EFL speaking skills. Chatbots provide a comfortable, flexible, and advantageous interactive environment. Personalized feedback and instruction are crucial features of chatbots for individualized learning. According to Chen et al. (2023), AI agents provide personalized training and plenty of practice opportunities in stress-free learning settings. Through AIpowered apps, students can determine the weaknesses in their skills and get individualized feedback and instruction to improve them (Shafiee Rad & Roohani, 2024). However, communication breakdowns, lack of speech recognition, and irrelevant responses from chatbots display the disadvantages or deficiencies of chatbots. While some students perceived chatbot communication may be due to the various tools utilized. Therefore, comparative research of different tools will yield valuable findings on the effectiveness of various chatbots.

The examination of the studies reveals the efficacy of AI-powered chatbots on EFL learners' speaking skills. The study's findings can guide teachers, students, researchers, and chatbot designers in developing strategies and ideas for effectively incorporating chatbot communication into language learning practices. Students can use AI-powered chatbots autonomously to improve their speaking skills and reinforce the gains they have gained from school lessons. Teachers can integrate different kinds of chatbots into their lessons as an in class and outside the class tool to enhance speaking proficiency.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study examines the descriptives, methodological trends, and main findings of studies concerning using AI-powered chatbots on EFL speaking skills. It presents an overview of the state-of-the-art. The analysis revealed a significant improvement in EFL speaking skills with the help of AI-powered chatbots. These tools have positive effects on WTC and speaking anxiety as well. The findings emphasize the potential of AI-powered chatbots as effective tools specifically for speaking skills. The study has also aimed to determine the gaps and suggest possible areas for further research to guide researchers. Based on the synthesis of the study's findings, several suggestions for future research are outlined in the following section.

6.1. Recommendations for future research

Further research is necessary on the effects of AI-powered chatbots on speaking mechanics, especially intonation and stress, which are less explored in the reviewed studies. The affective factors, such as WTC and speaking anxiety, should not be ignored. The studies need to broaden demographic diversity, including participants such as adult and younger learners. In future research, comparing the effects of different chatbots on the development of speaking skills and learner perceptions could provide valuable insights into the key features that make these tools effective. These insights could help educators and chatbot designers select the most beneficial tools and refine existing chatbots, addressing deficiencies and improving their effectiveness. Contextual or cultural factors could also be examined to adjust chatbots for specific learner needs to maximize the benefits.

6.2. Limitations

This review only included studies from the WoS, Scopus, and ERIC databases, potentially overlooking valuable research published in other databases. The reviewed studies were published between 2020 and 2024. This time frame excludes earlier relevant studies, which may provide some historical perspective on the development and impact of AIpowered chatbots on EFL speaking skills.

REFERENCES

- Ayedoun, E., Hayashi, Y., & Seta, K. (2015). A conversational agent to encourage willingness to communicate in the context of English as a foreign language. *Procedia Computer Science*, 60, 1433–1442. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2015.08.219</u>
- Bao, M. (2019). Can home use of speech-enabled artificial intelligence mitigate foreign language anxiety? Investigation of a concept. Arab World English Journal, 5, 28–40. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/call5.3
- Belda-Medina, J., & Calvo-Ferrer, J. R. (2022). Using chatbots as AI conversational partners in language learning. *Applied Sciences*, *12*(17), 8427. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/app12178427</u>
- Bhutoria, A. (2022). Personalized education and artificial intelligence in the United States,
 China, and India: A systematic review using a human-in-the-loop model. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence, 3,* 100068.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2022.100068</u>
- Chen, X., Xie, H., & Hwang, G.-J. (2020). A multi-perspective study on artificial intelligence in education: Grants, conferences, journals, software tools, institutions, and researchers. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence, 1,* 100005.
- Chen, Y., Jensen, S., Albert, L. J., & et al. (2023). Artificial intelligence (AI) student assistants in the classroom: Designing chatbots to support student success. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 25, 161–182. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10796-022-10291-4</u>
- Chien, Y.-C., Wu, T.-T., Lai, C.-H., & Huang, Y.-M. (2022). Investigation of the influence of artificial intelligence markup language-based LINE chatbot in contextual English learning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 785752. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.785752</u>

- Çakmak, F. (2022). Chatbot-human interaction and its effects on EFL students' L2 speaking performance and speaking anxiety. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, *16*(2), 113–131.
- Dokukina, I., & Gumanova, J. (2019). The rise of chatbots: New personal assistants in foreign language learning. *Procedia Computer Science*, 00(2019), 000–000. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2020.02.212</u>
- Duong, T., & Suppasetseree, S. (2024). The effects of an artificial intelligence voice chatbot on improving Vietnamese undergraduate students' English speaking skills. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 23(3), 293–321. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.23.3.15
- Ericsson, E., & Johansson, S. (2023). English speaking practice with conversational AI: Lower secondary students' educational experiences over time. *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, 5, 100164. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2023.100164</u>
- Ericsson, E., Hashemi, S. S., & Lundin, J. (2023). Fun and frustrating: Students' perspectives on practicing speaking English with virtual humans. *Cogent Education*, 10(1), Article 2170088. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2023.2170088</u>
- Fathi, J., Rahimi, M., & Derakhshan, A. (2024). Improving EFL learners' speaking skills and willingness to communicate via artificial intelligence-mediated interactions. *System*, *121*, 103254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103254
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. (2000). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Hakim, R., & Rima, R. (2022). Chatting with AI chatbots: Applications to improve English communication skills. *Journal of English Language Studies*, 7(1), 121–130. <u>https://jurnal.untirta.ac.id/index.php/JELS</u>

- Harwood, T. G., & Garry, T. (2003). An overview of content analysis. *The Marketing Review*, *3*(4), 479–498. https://doi.org/10.1362/146934703771910080
- Hedge, T. (2001). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom* (Vol. 106). Oxford University Press.
- Hsu, M.-H., Chen, P.-S., & Yu, C.-S. (2023). Proposing a task-oriented chatbot system for EFL learners' speaking practice. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 31(7), 4297–4308. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2021.1960864
- Huang, W., Hew, K. F., & Fryer, L. K. (2021). Chatbots for language learning—Are they really useful? A systematic review of chatbot-supported language learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.1261
- Huang, X., Zou, D., Cheng, G., Chen, X., & Xie, H. (2023). Trends, research issues, and applications of artificial intelligence in language education. *Educational Technology & Society*, 26(1), 112–131. https://doi.org/10.30191/ETS.202301_26(1).000
- Hwang, W.-Y., Guo, B.-C., Hoang, A., Chang, C.-C., & Wu, N.-T. (2022). Facilitating authentic contextual EFL speaking and conversation with smart mechanisms and investigating its influence on learning achievements. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2022.2095406
- Jeon, J. (2022). Exploring AI chatbot affordances in the EFL classroom: Young learners' experiences and perspectives. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *37*(1–2), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.2021241
- Jeon, J., Lee, S., & Choi, S. (2023). A systematic review of research on speech-recognition chatbots for language learning: Implications for future directions in the era of large

language models. *Interactive Learning Environments*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2204343

- Ji, H., Han, I., & Ko, Y. (2022). A systematic review of conversational AI in language education: Focusing on collaboration with human teachers. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 55(2), 1-16. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/15391523.2022.2142873</u>
- Kang, H. (2022). Effects of artificial intelligence (AI) and native speaker interlocutors on ESL learners' speaking ability and affective aspects. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 25(2), 9-43.
- Kemelbekova, Z., Degtyareva, X., Yessenaman, S., Ismailova, D., & Seidaliyeva, G. (2024).
 AI in teaching English as a foreign language: Effectiveness and prospects in Kazakh higher education. *XLinguae*, 17(1), 5. <u>https://doi.org/10.18355/XL.2024.17.01.05</u>
- Kim, H.-S., Cha, Y., & Kim, N. Y. (2021). Effects of AI chatbots on EFL students' communication skills. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 21, 712– 734.
- Kim, H.-S., Kim, N. Y., & Cha, Y. (2021). Is it beneficial to use AI chatbots to improve learners' speaking performance? *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 18(1), 161–178. https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatef1.2021.18.1.10.161
- Kim, N. Y. (2017). Effects of different types of chatbots on EFL learners' speaking competence and learner perception. *Cross-Cultural Studies*, 48, 223–252.
- Kim, N., Cha, Y., & Kim, H. (2019). Future English learning: Chatbots and artificial intelligence. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 22(3), 32–53.
- Kim, N.-Y. (2016). Effects of voice chat on EFL learners' speaking ability according to proficiency levels. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 19(4), 63–88.

- Kuhail, M. A., Alturki, N., Alramlawi, S., & et al. (2023). Interacting with educational chatbots:
 A systematic review. *Education and Information Technologies*, 28(2), 973–1018.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11177-3
- Lin, C.-J., & Mubarok, H. (2021). Learning analytics for investigating the mind map-guided AI chatbot approach in an EFL flipped speaking classroom. *Educational Technology & Society*, 24(4), 16–35.
- Lin, Y., & Yu, Z. (2023). A bibliometric analysis of artificial intelligence chatbots in educational contexts. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education*, 21(2). <u>https://doi.org/10.1108/ITSE-03-2023-0045</u>
- Madhavi, E., Sivapurapu, L., Koppula, V., Rani, P. B. E., & Sreehari, V. (2023). Developing learners' English speaking skills using ICT and AI tools. *Journal of Advanced Research in Applied Sciences and Engineering Technology*, 32(2), 142-153. https://doi.org/10.37934/araset.32.2.142153
- Mageira, K., Pittou, D., Papasalouros, A., Kotis, K., Zangogianni, P., & Daradoumis, A. (2022).
 Educational AI chatbots for content and language integrated learning. *Applied Sciences*, *12*, 3239. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/app12073239</u>
- Muniandy, J., & Selvanathan, M. (2024). ChatGPT, a partnering tool to improve ESL learners' speaking skills: Case study in a public university, Malaysia. *Teaching Public Administration*. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/01447394241230152</u>
- Nimavat, K., & Champaneria, T. (2017). Chatbots: An overview—Types, architecture, tools, and future possibilities. *International Journal for Scientific Research & Development*, *5*(07), 2321-0613.
- Page, M. J., McKenzie, J. E., Bossuyt, P. M., Boutron, I., Hoffmann, T. C., Mulrow, C. D., Shamseer, L., Tetzlaff, J. M., Aki, E. A., Brennan, S. E., Chou, R., Glanville, J., Grimshaw, J. M., Hróbjartsson, A., Lalu, M. M., Li, T., Loder, E. W., Mayo-Wilson, E.,

McDonald, S., ... Moher, D. (2021). The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *PLOS Medicine*, *18*(3), Article e1003583. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1003583

- Quiroga Pérez, J., Daradoumis, T., & Marquès Puig, J. M. (2020). Rediscovering the use of chatbots in education: A systematic literature review. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 51(6), 1549–1565. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/cae.22326</u>
- Rahman, A., & Tomy, P. (2023). Intelligent personal assistant: An interlocutor to mollify foreign language speaking anxiety. *Interactive Learning Environments*. Advance online publication. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2204324</u>
- Senowarsito, S., & Ardini, S. N. (2023). The use of artificial intelligence to promote autonomous pronunciation learning: Segmental and suprasegmental features perspective. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 133–147. <u>https://doi.org/10.21093/ijeltal.v8i2.1452</u>
- Shafiee Rad, H. (2024). Revolutionizing L2 speaking proficiency, willingness to communicate, and perceptions through artificial intelligence: A case of Speeko application. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 18(4), 364–379. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2024.2309539
- Shafiee Rad, H., & Roohani, A. (2024). Fostering L2 learners' pronunciation and motivation via affordances of artificial intelligence. *Computers in the Schools*, 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1080/07380569.2024.2330427
- Tai, T.-Y., & Chen, H. H.-J. (2023). The impact of Google Assistant on adolescent EFL learners' willingness to communicate. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 31(3), 1485– 1502. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2020.1841801</u>
- Van Doremalen, J., Boves, L., Colpaert, J., Cucchiarini, C., & Strik, H. (2016). Evaluating automatic speech recognition-based language learning systems: A case study. *Computer*

 Assisted
 Language
 Learning,
 29(4),
 833–851.

 https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2016.1167090

- Wang, X., Liu, Q., Pang, H., Tan, S. C., Lei, J., Wallace, M. P., & Li, L. (2023). What matters in AI-supported learning: A study of human-AI interactions in language learning using cluster analysis and epistemic network analysis. *Computers & Education*, 194, 104703. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2022.104703</u>
- Wollny, S., Schneider, J., Di Mitri, D., Weidlich, J., Rittberger, M., & Drachsler, H. (2021).
 Are we there yet? A systematic literature review on chatbots in education. *Frontiers in Artificial Intelligence*, 4, Article 654924. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/frai.2021.654924</u>
- Yang, H., Kim, H., Lee, J. H., & Shin, D. (2022). Implementation of an AI chatbot as an English conversation partner in EFL speaking classes. *ReCALL*, 34(3), 327–343. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344022000039
- Ye, Y., Deng, J., Liang, Q., & Liu, X. (2022). Using a smartphone-based chatbot in EFL learners' oral tasks. *International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning*, 14(1). <u>https://doi.org/10.4018/IJMBL.299405</u>
- Yin, Q., & Satar, M. (2020). English as a foreign language learner interactions with chatbots: Negotiation for meaning. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching* (*IOJET*), 7(2), 390–410. <u>http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/707</u>
- Yuan, Y. (2023). An empirical study of the efficacy of AI chatbots for English as a foreign language learning in primary education. *Interactive Learning Environments*. Advance online publication. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2282112</u>
- Zakos, J., & Capper, L. (2008). CLIVE—An artificially intelligent chat robot for conversational language practice. In SETN 2008: Artificial Intelligence: Theories, Models and Applications (pp. 437–442). Springer.

- Zhang, C., Meng, Y., & Ma, X. (2024). Artificial intelligence in EFL speaking: Impact on enjoyment, anxiety, and willingness to communicate. *System*, 121, 103259. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103259</u>
- Zou, B., Guan, X., Shao, Y., & Chen, P. (2023). Supporting speaking practice by social network-based interaction in artificial intelligence (AI)-assisted language learning. *Sustainability*, 15(4), 2872. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/su15042872</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Elif Nur SARIYILDIZ

ORCID: 0009-0008-9343-6140

yl2330502003@ogr.sdu.edu.tr

Suleyman Demirel University, Department of Foreign Language Education

Elif Nur Sarıyıldız graduated from the Department of Foreign Language Education at Boğaziçi University in 2014 and is currently pursuing her Master's in English Language Teaching at the Institute of Educational Sciences, Süleyman Demirel University. She has been working as an English language teacher in Ministry of National Education for 10 years. Her main research interests include technology in language education and alternative assessment methods.



Prof. Dr. Nazlı BAYKAL

ORCID: 0000-0002-6248-7614

nazlibaykal@sdu.edu.tr

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Nazlı Baykal is a Professor in the Department of English Language Teaching, Suleyman Demirel University, Isparta, Turkey, where she teaches Linguistics, Language Acquisition, Applied Linguistics courses. Her research interests include the relationship between language and ideology with reference to newspaper and political discourse, issues of language and identity and multimodal teaching materials in ELT.



Res. Asst. İdil SAYIN

ORCID: 0000-0001-5546-2673

idilsayin@sdu.edu.tr

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

İdil SAYIN is currently pursuing her PhD in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Hacettepe University and is working as a research assistant at Süleyman Demirel University's ELT Department. She obtained her BA in ELT from Süleyman Demirel University in 2018 and completed her MA in ELT at the same institution in 2020. Additionally, she earned an MS in Measurement and Evaluation in Education from Hacettepe University in 2023. Her research interests include measurement and evaluation in ELT, technology in language education, and language assessment.

To Cite this Chapter

Sarıyıldız, E. N., Baykal, N. & Sayın, İ. (2024). Ai-powered chatbots for developing speaking skills in English language teaching: A systematic review. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 39-72). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 4: A GLIMPSE INTO TEACHING IDIOMS IN THE SECONDARY EFL CLASSROOMS IN TURKISH SCHOOLS

Mehmethan ÇEVİK ២ Ali KARAKAŞ ᅝ

1. Introduction

It is a well-known fact that there is a high demand for the English language worldwide due to its dominance in international trade, business, technology and science (Ababneh & Al-Momani, 2011). Various studies have been carried out in many areas of English language and education in today's increasingly globalized world, but figurative language items such as idioms have often been at the bottom of the priority lists. However, this does not mean that the necessity and importance of idioms in everyday communication should not be emphasized (Hussein et al., 2000). On the contrary, many researchers consider idioms to be an important area of linguistics, and the ability to recognize and use idioms is an indicator of students' sophistication in English (Alhaysony, 2017).

In recent years, vocabulary teaching has witnessed a significant shift from teaching isolated words to focusing on language chunks. These chunks include phrases such as idioms, proverbs, and collocations, collectively referred to as formulaic sequences, multi-word units, or prefabricated units. Formulaic sequences are ubiquitous in language use and make up a large portion of any discourse (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). They are an essential element of language that contributes to fluency (Nation & Meara, 2002) and are regarded as a key feature of natural and figurative language (Irujo, 1986).

Idioms are defined by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) as "complex bits of frozen syntax, whose meanings cannot be derived from the meaning of their constituents, that is, whose meanings are more than simply the sum of their individual parts" (p. 33). This characteristic makes idioms a significant challenge for many second/foreign language learners (Cooper, 1998; Irujo, 1986; Lattey, 1986; Moon, 1998; Sparado, 2013). Glucksberg (2001) emphasizes that mastering idioms is both an important and difficult task for language learners.

Despite the recognized importance of idioms in language learning, idiom teaching is an area that is often overlooked in vocabulary instruction. Lazar (1996) argues that the vital importance of idioms in vocabulary teaching should be taken into consideration. This oversight in idiom

instruction is particularly noteworthy in the context of EFL classrooms, where learners have limited exposure to authentic language use outside the classroom.

In Turkish secondary schools, where English is taught as a foreign language, the state of idiom teaching remains largely unexplored. This chapter aims to examine how idioms are incorporated (or not) into EFL instruction in these settings, focusing on teachers' perspectives, challenges, and practices. By investigating this aspect of language teaching, we hope to shed light on potential areas for improvement in EFL curricula and pedagogy in Turkish secondary education, ultimately contributing to more effective and comprehensive language instruction.

2. Key concepts and issues around teaching idioms

2.1. Conceptualizations of idioms

Before examining the use of idioms in English language teaching, it is important to understand what idioms are and what they are not. Over time, various fields have been identified for idioms and researchers have come up with different definitions. If we examine the definitions of idioms in various dictionaries, TDK Büyük Sözlük (2005) defines idioms as "A stereotyped expression that usually carries an interesting meaning that is more or less separate from its true meaning." The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2006, p. 805) defines idioms as "A group of words that has a special meaning different from the literal meaning of the words that compose it". Similarly, the Oxford English Dictionary (1989) defines it as "A group of words whose meanings cannot be inferred from their individual words when used together". In addition to the dictionary definitions, cognitive science has analyzed idioms from a different perspective independent of language. From a cognitive perspective, idioms are products of conceptualization that shape an individual's thought system (Dobrovol'skij & Piiranen, 2005; Gibbs, 1994; Kövecses & Szabo; 1996; Lakoff, 1980).

On the other hand, many linguists and cultural scientists have provided definitions that take into account the linguistic, structural, semantic, cultural and irregular characteristics of idioms. Structurally and semantically, according to Khan and Daşkın (2014), idioms are figurative, indirect and multi-word expressions. Linguistically and semantically, Joelene and Maureen (2003) argue that idioms are expressions whose meaning is not directly interpreted and whose figurative interpretation cannot be inferred directly from the meaning of the word. From a linguistic, semantic and structural point of view, according to Aksan (2003), idioms are words formed by using two or more words together to express a certain concept, emotion or situation. Culturally, semantically and structurally, according to Akkök (2007), idioms are linguistic units

based on cultural conventions, formed by the combination of words, whose meaning cannot be deduced from their components, and which have syntactic and semantic limitations that cannot be analyzed.

In terms of culture and irregularity, according to Caro (2009), idioms are forms of expression that are unique to a language or dialect and usually do not follow any rules of logic or grammar. Considering the definitions of idioms over time, it is possible to say that idioms are versatile, diverse and unique linguistic elements. The definition that will be used in this study is the most recent one by Caro (2009) because it is important for beginning learners of English idioms to learn that idioms are unique to the English language and should be treated independently of any logic or grammatical framework.

2.2. Classification of idioms

There are different views and distinctions in the classification of idioms, which have been tackled by various fields and disciplines over time. Cain (2005) divides idioms into two as transparent idioms and non-transparent idioms. Transparent idioms are figurative expressions whose meaning is more easily understood than non-transparent idioms (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001). Transparency refers to the degree of conformity between the literal and figurative meaning of an idiom (Cain, 2005). In other words, transparent idioms are idioms that are closer to the literal meaning than the figurative meaning, both as a whole and in terms of the language units they contain. For this reason, transparent idioms are easily understood only by the words in them (Elkılıç, 2008). However, the situation is different when an idiom contains cultural elements beyond the meaning of the words. When an idiom is specific to a culture, the fact that it is transparent does not make it easier to extract its meaning (Elkılıç, 2008). Nontransparent idioms are expressions that contain words that do not help to extract the meaning of the idiom (Elkılıç, 2008). In non-transparent idioms, the literal and figurative meanings of the idiom are completely independent of each other (Elkılıç, 2008).

Another classification was made by Irujo (1986) who categorized idioms into three categories: same, similar and different idioms. The same idioms are expressions that have exact equivalents between two languages; similar idioms are expressions that do not have exact equivalents between two languages but are similar in meaning and/or structure; different idioms are expressions that are found in only one of the two languages and have no equivalent in the other language due to cultural and/or linguistic differences.

2.3. Functions of idioms

A common feature in all types and classifications of idioms is that idioms are linguistic units. In addition, like all linguistic units, they have many functions in spoken and written language. Idioms are used to convey and evaluate thoughts, information and opinions (ideational function), to promote and maintain meaningful and effective communication and to create a sense of solidarity (interpersonal functions), and to organize information and maintain text coherence (textual function) (Carter & McCarthy 1997; Liu, 2008; Nunberg et al., 1994; Souha 2008; O'Keffee et al., 2007). In addition to these functions, Newmark (1988) argues that idioms have two basic functions: referential and pragmatic functions. The referential function is a cognitive function that describes mental processes, situations, concepts, people, objects, structures or actions in a more comprehensive and concise way than is possible in literary or physical language. The pragmatic function is the aesthetic function, which simultaneously appeals to the senses, such as interest, happiness, joy, surprise. Idioms also have an impact on the naturalness and formality of language when they are used. Idioms add color, naturalness and expressive power to people's language, so that a concept or situation can be explained in a shorter time and the expression becomes more attractive (İli, 2015). The English language is rich in idioms, without which English would lose much of the variety and humor of its spoken and written language (Caro, 2009). Thanks to idioms, English can be expressed in a friendly, informal, relaxed, engaging and creative way (Caro, 2009).

2.4. Structural characteristics of idioms

Each language unit has structural features as well as functions, and idioms also have their own structural features. According to Liu (2008), three main features stand out in the structure of idioms. These are:

a) The meaning of idioms cannot be fully deduced from the units contained in them.

b) Idioms have a fixed structure.

c) Idioms are made up of two or more words, and this is no different with compound words.

Some researchers have drawn attention to semantic and figurative features that are not emphasized in these three basic features. According to Hussein et al. (2000), the meaning of an idiom is not the sum of the meanings of its constituent words or the meanings of its parts. In

fact, even if there is a relationship between the meaning of the constituent words and the whole idiom, this relationship is indirect at best (Sprenger et al., 2006). In other words, the meaning of idioms is arbitrary and therefore unpredictable (Chen & Lai, 2013). Jackson (1988) stated that the meaning of idioms is arbitrary because idioms are based on metaphors. Considering that the meaning of an expression is related to language, there are some who argue that idioms are not linguistic. According to Akkök (2007), idioms have a conceptual nature, not a linguistic nature, and the fact that they correspond to certain concepts, express these concepts and activate these concepts in our minds shows that idioms are closer to conceptual nature.

2.5. Difficulties in understanding and learning idioms

The structural features of idioms also pose various challenges for their comprehension and learning. It has long been recognized that idioms pose a problem for second language learners because their meanings and forms are not rule-bound (Chen & Lai, 2013). While learning and understanding idioms is considered difficult even for native speakers, it is much more difficult for target language learners with limited language skills and cultural background (Gibbs, 1994). Many advanced learners of the target language still struggle with idioms even after they have mastered many other aspects of the language system (O'Keeffe et al., 2007). McPartland (1981) believes that the main reason why idioms are difficult to learn is that they are figurative expressions that do not correspond to literal meanings and do not literally express the words in which they occur. Similarly, Saleh and Zakaria (2013) consider the fact that the meaning of idioms is often unpredictable as one of the main challenges of idiom learning. Especially for EFL learners, the unpredictability of idioms can be problematic (Rizq, 2015), and memorizing idioms without logical relationships or systems can be time-consuming and tedious (Chen & Lai, 2013). In addition to being time-consuming to memorize, idioms take longer to understand than texts that need to be understood verbatim (Holsinger & Kaiser, 2013). Irujo (1986) argued that there are three main difficulties in learning idioms. These are:

- a) In conversations with second language learners, idioms are often omitted and replaced by simple, concrete and everyday expressions and words.
- b) Idioms differ from slang in being formal, with connotations that can be used in formal situations.
- c) In many materials for second language learners, idioms are completely ignored or placed in the "Other Phrases" section of vocabulary lists and no learning exercises are provided for them.

Avoiding the use of idioms in conversations with students, omitting idioms from the materials presented to students in class, and the absence of learning exercises all lead to a significant reduction in students' exposure to idioms. Thus, for learners who rarely hear idioms, idioms can hinder their understanding of English and demotivate them (McDevitt, 1993). Moreover, communication errors can occur if learners are not familiar with idioms (Rizq, 2015). Pimenova (2011) elaborated on students' unfamiliarity with idioms and categorized the difficulty of learning idioms into five main categories: unfamiliar vocabulary and foreign idioms, lack of similar idioms in the native language, cultural differences, lack of experience with idioms, and lack of general context for specific idioms. Rizq (2015) further elaborated on the difficulty of cultural differences in learning idioms in his study. According to Rizq (2015), idioms are difficult to understand and use because they are deeply rooted in the culture of the language, and so when the relationship of idioms to culture is combined with the way idioms are taught, this combination is often not a combination that makes it easy for learners to understand and use idioms. In addition, cultural similarities and differences between the first language and the target language can make the transfer of idioms between languages difficult (Chen & Lai, 2013).

In addition, it is quite possible to see pieces of culture in idioms. Idioms reflect the traditions, cultural values, characteristics, social attitudes and norms of a society (Çakır, 2011). Moreover, national archetypes, symbols, myths, religious beliefs, worldviews and cultural values are reflected in idioms (Dohman & Yüce, 2022). Thus, idioms become a mirror of culture that enables the understanding of culture through language (Jiang, 2000). However, idioms not only reflect culture, but also play a role in transmitting culture to future generations. Idioms, which are seen as language units, are considered as cultural carriers and in this respect, idioms reflect the accumulation of national language, culture and human history and are used to express worldviews, linguistic worldviews, national worldviews, historical, social and cultural situations, material and spiritual situations and provide information about people's cultural life (Dohman & Yüce, 2022). The more knowledge students have about the cultural elements behind idioms, the more cultural awareness they have about the characteristics of different cultures will increase.

2.6. The relationship between teaching idioms and culture

Culture is not only a factor that complicates idioms; it is also the only factor that allows idioms to take shape over time. Idioms have been shaped according to experiences, lived experiences, ways of thinking and the laws that have been formed in the language over time since the existence of human beings, and for this reason, idioms have gained a meaning independent of the actual meanings of the words that make up them (İli, 2015). In other words, idioms reflect the culture in which they are produced and are shaped according to the characteristics of the culture to which they belong (Dohman & Yüce, 2022). This shaping process is sometimes not through a single culture. According to Chen (2009), idioms are rooted in different cultures. This means that it is quite possible to find idioms unique to a single culture and similar idioms in different cultures.

2.7. The prevalence of idioms

Given that every culture has idioms and that there are countless cultures, idioms are widespread and are an important part of any language, as well as an indicator of proficiency in that language (McDevitt, 1993). Idioms are so widespread that a person uses about 20 million idioms in a 60-year lifetime (Cooper, 1998) and idioms are used to explain about 50% of language (Erman & Warren, 2000). Idioms frequently appear in both written and spoken language, explaining about half of the language (Alhaysony, 2017). Since examples of written and spoken language in which idioms are frequently used include all kinds of discourse such as conversations, lectures, books and newspapers, students are especially likely to encounter idioms in movies and television series (Cooper, 1999). According to Wright (2002), this probability is so high that it is impossible to speak, read or listen to English without encountering idiomatic language and it is not possible to postpone idiomatic expression learning until advanced levels are reached. The need to teach idioms in English language teaching stems from the high rate of their use in daily communication (Bortfeld, 1997). Because of this inevitability of idioms and the fact that they are encountered by students both in and out of the classroom, they need to be treated and addressed in some way in the classroom (Rizq, 2015).

2.8. The prerequisites for understanding idioms

Although idioms are frequently encountered items, their comprehension is not so common. The main reason for this difference is that idioms have various prerequisites for comprehension. Palmer and Brooks (2004) argue that the process of interpreting figurative language is related to the prior knowledge that learners use to interpret the expressions they encounter in context. The most important of these priors is cultural priors because understanding many idioms requires cultural knowledge (Liu, 2008). In addition, understanding idioms requires students to go beyond word-by-word interpretation and assimilate figurative meanings (Alhaysony, 2017). The closer the figurative meaning of the idiom is to the dictionary meaning of the words that make up the idiom, the higher the comprehension rate of idioms is

(Levorato & Cacciari, 1999; Nippold & Taylor, 2002). Another factor that increases the comprehension rate of idioms is context. Idioms presented in context are easier to understand than idioms presented in isolation (Cain, 2005). Context facilitates the understanding of figurative expressions by providing semantic information that enables the reader or writer to understand the form of expression (Cain, 2005).

2.9. Teaching idioms in the classroom

The extent to which idioms are comprehensible both outside and inside the classroom is the main determinant of why and how idioms are included in English language teaching. When idioms are decided to be taught in English classrooms, they are randomly selected from a list of idioms created by teachers (Hussein et al., 2000). However, idioms often do not receive much attention in English language teaching because teachers try to simplify the English used in the classroom for students and emphasize grammar rules (Asl, 2013; Wray, 2000). Although idioms are not given as much emphasis as other elements taught in the English language classroom, theories and methods have emerged over time to suggest why and how idioms should be taught. Idioms teaching methods fall into two categories: the traditional method, which encourages explicit teaching of idioms in context, and the conceptual metaphor method, which starts teaching English idioms after learning a little about terminology.

Traditional idiom teaching is based on memorization and repetition (Chen & Lai, 2013). However, unlike many traditional language teaching methods, the traditional method performs memorization and repetition activities by presenting idioms in a context. This method supports that through contextual exercises and analysis of figurative expressions, students will broaden their horizons, understand and learn unfamiliar idioms (Adkins, 1968). The traditional method bases this belief on the idea that contexts effectively facilitate the understanding, learning and teaching of idiomatic expressions (Liontas, 2003) because the more contexts surrounding an idiom, the more likely the target language learner is to arrive at its correct meaning (Kainulainen, 2006). However, as with any teaching method, the traditional method has its criticisms and shortcomings. In particular, the memorization technique applied in the traditional method can lead to short-term recall of the learned information and misuse of the remembered information (Chen & Lai, 2013). At the same time, the rigorous learning process of traditional idiom teaching methods can be difficult in terms of time and effort because students learn idioms independently without establishing a relationship between form and meaning (Chen & Lai, 2013). The idea of using conceptual metaphors in teaching idioms in response to the traditional method's inability to establish a relationship between form and meaning aims to

improve the understanding of the meaning of the idiom and the recall of learned expressions over time by promoting awareness of the systematic relationship between the two concepts (Boers, 2000; Kömür & Çimen 2009). With the advances in cognitive linguistics research, idiom teaching methods have moved towards an approach in which students become aware of the conceptual metaphors underlying idioms (the primary motivation of idioms) (Chen & Lai, 2013).

Conceptual metaphor theory was coined by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980. The conceptual metaphor expression refers to the connection between two semantic domains within or outside the idiom at the level of thought (Lakoff, 1987). In other words, many idioms contain concepts that are semantically related to each other and subject to analogy. Conceptual metaphors can contribute to the understanding of idioms because many idioms are based on conceptual metaphor systems (Samani & Hashemian, 2012). One of the major contributions of teaching conceptual metaphors to understand idioms is that it enables language learners to express their inner thoughts, opinions, ideas and feelings in a similar way to native speakers (Çakır, 2011).

In order to understand the semantic relations in idioms, second language teachers and their students should give importance to conceptual metaphors of idioms in the target language (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). To discuss theories other than methods in teaching idioms, Asl (2013) discusses idiom teaching in the context of schema theory. According to this theory, longer contexts such as stories have been found to activate many schemas, while shorter contexts activate fewer schemas. It is argued that involving multiple schemas in contextual processing can help in learning and remembering the meaning of idioms.

If we examine the effect of culture in teaching idioms, idioms containing cultural elements should be taught by comparing the native and target languages (Elkiliç, 2008). Through cross-linguistic comparisons, students can be informed that the items found in the native language may not always be present in the target language (Chen & Lai, 2013). For this reason, idioms that involve possible interactions and relationships in the culture of both native and target languages should be prioritized (Elkiliç, 2008). To overcome the cultural barriers that arise when idioms in the first language do not have equivalents in the target language and vice versa, comparisons between the first language and the target language can be explicit and direct through awareness-raising (Chen & Lai, 2013). In cases where comparisons between native and target languages may be difficult or impossible, idioms should be taught according to their degree of prevalence, with the most common idioms first (Elkiliç, 2008). When teaching

common idioms, these idioms should be taught both in the text (context) and in isolation (Elkılıç, 2008). However, it is not enough just to teach idioms, they should also be practiced and constructed by students (Çakır, 2011). In order to increase the amount of students' application and construction of idioms, teachers should increase their own use of idioms in the classroom and be a model for students (Çakır, 2011). In addition to increasing their own use of idioms, teachers should facilitate this process by teaching students the strategies most frequently used in idiom teaching, such as inferring meaning from context, analyzing and discussing, and using word meaning (Cooper, 1999).

The factor that most facilitates the process of teaching idioms is understanding why idioms are taught, or in other words, why idioms are important. If one of the advanced objectives of English language instruction is to elevate students to a level closest to native English speakers in terms of speaking, listening, reading, and writing, then the knowledge of various idiomatic expressions and the ability to use these expressions appropriately in both written and spoken language is a distinctive feature necessary for using English in a manner similar to a native language (Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, 2006). In other words, knowledge and use of idiomatic expressions are characteristic features of advanced EFL students (Hussein et al., 2000) and are essential for successful communication in listening, writing, reading, and speaking (Dixon, 1994). Through knowledge of idiomatic expressions, students speak more proficiently, and their speech becomes more natural, colloquial, and creative (Beloussova, 2015; Caro, 2009). The ability to interpret and use cultural references and figurative expressions is so crucial that these are integral components and indicators of communicative competence requirements (Bachman, 1990; Ellis, 1997). Learning idioms not only contributes to language learners' enhanced communication but also aids in their acquisition of knowledge about the culture and society of the target language (Samani & Hashemian, 2012). Idiom learning enables students to engage with the real world (Caro, 2009), and to understand a language in the real world, it is necessary to comprehend its idioms (Chen, 2009). For these reasons, it is important to teach idioms in English classes and to incorporate them into teaching materials and textbooks (Khan & Daşkın, 2014).

Another reason for the importance of idioms in language teaching stems from the deficiencies that may arise when idioms are not taught. Neglecting the instruction of English idioms leads to misunderstanding and misuse of idioms by intermediate and advanced EFL students (Hussein et al., 2000) and has a negative impact on students' overall performance (Caro, 2009). Behind the overlooked idioms lie moral values, concepts, and stories (Rizq, 2015), and the lack of this

background knowledge results in students' speech becoming bookish, insipid, unimaginative, artificial, and devoid of innovation (Cooper, 1999).

3. The state of idiom teaching in classes

The sample of the study conducted in the second semester of the 2023-2024 academic year consists of a total of 10 English teachers working in secondary schools in the province of Burdur, as well as Bucak, Gökçebağ, and Askeriye regions. The ages, genders, professional experiences, and schools of the teachers in the sample group are shown in Table 1. The rates at which teachers include English idioms in their instruction were determined through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were used for data collection, and the analysis of the data was conducted through qualitative content analysis. The questions used in the semi-structured interviews are presented in Table 2.

Teacher ID	Age	Gender	Years of	The schools they are based at
			Experience	
Teacher 1	38	F	15	Türkiye Yardım Sevenler Derneği Ortaokulu
Teacher 2	38	F	15	TOBB Ortaokulu
Teacher 3	40	Μ	12	Askeriye Ortaokulu
Teacher 4	37	F	12	Suna Uzal Ortaokulu
Teacher 5	44	F	20	Şeker Ortaokulu
Teacher 6	38	F	14	Bucak Bilim ve Sanat Merkezi
Teacher 7	39	F	18	Recep Tayyip Erdoğan Anadolu İmam Hatip
				Lisesi/Ortaokulu
Teacher 8	39	F	12	Gökçebağ Ortaokulu
Teacher 9	38	F	14	İstiklal Ortaokulu
Teacher 10	41	F	18	Mehmetçik Ortaokulu

Table 1. Ages, genders, professional experiences, and schools of the teachers

Note: In the "Teacher" column, (F) stands for Female and (M) stands for Male.

The questions included in the interview are presented in the table below:

Table 2. Interview questions						
Do You Include Idioms in English Language Teaching?						
A) Yes, I do.	B) No, I don't.					
A.1. How do you think English idioms	B.1. Why don't you include teaching English					
contribute to students' language skills?	idioms?					
A.2. What do you think about the impact of	B.2. Do you think including idioms in your					
English idioms on students' vocabulary	lessons can help your students increase their					
development?	vocabulary?					
A.3. Which resources do you prefer to use to	B.3. Do you think including idioms in your					
teach English idioms?	lessons can help your students better					
	understand situations they may encounter in					
	real life?					

 Table 2. Interview questions

A.4. What methods do you use to increase students' motivation in teaching English idioms?

A.5. What strategies do you use to increase students' language learning motivation in teaching English idioms?

A.6. You are interested in teaching English idioms. Which materials do you use?

A.7. What strategies do you use to improve students' comprehension skills in teaching English idioms?

A.8. What methods do you use to ensure active participation of students in teaching English idioms?

A.9. Which learning styles appropriate methods do you use in teaching English idioms?

A.10. How do you adapt to students' different language levels when teaching English idioms?

A.11. How do you value student feedback during English idiom instruction?

A.12. Do you collaborate with colleagues on teaching English idioms? If so, what kind of collaboration do you engage in?

A.13. What resources do you use to improve yourself in teaching English idioms?

A.14. Do you follow the practices of different teachers in teaching English idioms? If so, what do you learn?

A.15. What strategies do you use to increase students' cultural awareness when teaching English idioms?

A.16. What assessment tools do you use to measure students' ability to use English idioms?

A.17. What methods do you use to increase students' confidence in teaching English idioms?

A.18. How do you identify areas where students may have difficulties in learning English idioms?

A.19. What technological tools do you use to support students' learning process in teaching English idioms?

A.20. What strategies do you use to diversify students' learning process in teaching English idioms?

B.4. Don't you think your students would like to learn more idioms in your lessons?

B.5. Do you think including idioms in your lessons can increase students' cultural awareness?

B.6. Do you think that including idioms in your lessons will help students communicate better in the target language?

B.7 Do you think including idioms in your lessons can help students' learning process?

B.8 Do you think teaching grammar is more important than teaching idioms?

B.9. Do you think including idioms in your lessons can help students learn the target language more deeply?

B.10. Do you think incorporating idioms in your lessons can help students learn the emotional aspect of the language?

4. Teacher practices in teaching idioms

The analysis of the data showed that the majority (f=8) of the 10 teachers involved in the study did not include idioms in their English lessons. Only two teachers stated that they incorporated idiom teaching in their classroom practices.

4.1. Reasons for not teaching idioms

As a result of the content analysis of the interviews, the following findings were obtained regarding teachers who do not include idiom usage and teaching in their instruction.

Teacher	Reason for not including	B.1	B.2	B.3	B.4	B.5	B.6	B.7	B.8	B.9	B.10
	idioms in the curriculum										
Teacher 1 (F)	There is no place for it in	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										
Teacher 2 (F)	The students do not have	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	sufficient Turkish										
	language skills for										
	learning idioms										
Teacher 3 (M)	The students' level of	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Turkish is insufficient										
Teacher 4 (F)	There is no place for it in	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										
Teacher 5 (M)	Insufficient language	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	levels and lack of student										
	proficiency prevent the										
	teaching of idioms										
Teacher 6 (F)	I do not know	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Teacher 7 (M)	There is no place for it in	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										
Teacher 8 (M)	There is no place for it in	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										
Teacher 9 (F)	There is no place for it in	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										
Teacher 10 (F)	There is no place for it in	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	the curriculum										

Table 3. Opinions of teachers not teaching idioms in their courses

4.2. Curriculum-Based Reasons

Several teachers not including idioms in their classes (T1, T2, T4, T8, T9, T10) stated that they do not teach idioms because they do not find any in the curriculum or only encounter a very small number of idioms. Some teachers mentioned that instead of teaching information that is not included in the curriculum, they try to incorporate simple idioms into conversations.

Teacher 4: I don't make an effort to specifically teach idioms because they are not in the curriculum. I just mention simple idioms to students as they come to mind during conversations.

Additionally, one teacher stated that even if idioms were included in the curriculum, teaching English idioms would not be possible because the students do not know idioms in their own native language.

Teacher 2: While we are still just learning our own Turkish idioms and trying to form abstract concepts in our minds, it is almost impossible to make English idioms that are not part of the curriculum come to life in students' minds.

4.3. Reasons Related to Students' Level of English

Some teachers (T3, T7) believe that their students' levels are not sufficient for learning idioms. According to them, while students are struggling to understand basic concepts, it is impossible to teach idioms, which are abstract concepts far beyond their level. One teacher expressed the following about this reasoning:

Teacher 7: I think idioms, which remain abstract and are difficult to understand even in the high school curriculum, are not suitable for 8th-grade students.

4.4. Reasons Related to Exam Preparation

Some teachers (T8, T10) argue that teaching idioms would not benefit 8th-grade students as they are preparing for the high school entrance exam, and idioms are not included in the exam. According to them, students should focus on understanding exam topics and becoming familiar with the multiple-choice exam format instead of learning idioms. One teacher expressed the following about this reasoning:

Teacher 8: Since 8th-grade students are preparing for the exam and the exam curriculum is very intense, there is no time left for teaching idioms.

4.5. Reasons Related to Time Constraints

One teacher (T9) mentioned that due to the limited time allocated for English classes in the schedule, it is not possible to teach idioms. The intensity of the goals that need to be achieved within this limited time restricts the teaching of idioms. One teacher stated the following regarding this reasoning:

Teacher 9: Since the class time allocated to 8th-grade students is limited, and during this time, grammar teaching, solving practice tests, and exam preparation processes are included, there is no time left for teaching idioms.

4.6. Reasons for teaching idioms

The analysis of the data shows that only a small number (f=2) of the teachers included in the study incorporate idioms in their English lessons. The reasons provided by these two teachers have been categorized into the following arguments.

		1		e			
	A.1	A.2	A.3	A.4	A.5		
Teacher 5 (F)	Idioms enhance students' language skills and make the learning process enjoyable. effectively.	Since students find translating the literal meanings of idioms into Turkish amusing, they learn the words that make up the idiom more	Dictionary Supplementary Materials	Smart Board Educational Games Painting Drama and Role Play Coding Computer Games Television Programs/ competitions Rebus puzzles	Learning b doing Imitation Summarizing		
	A.6	A.7	A.8	A.9	A.10		
	Technologic al materials Web 2.0 tools Tests	Fill-in-the- blanks Matching	Instructional games at school yards Video Recording	Kinetic Learning Learning by seeing	By having more successful students guide others, enabling peer learning.		
	A.11	A.12	A.13	A.14	A.15		
	By providing direct positive feedback	No	Dictionary Extracurricular Readings Videos	Yes. I am learning how to teach idioms through film clips.	I don't use idiom		
	A.16	A.17	A.18	A.19	A.20		
	Matching Drama and Role play	I first guide students to individual activities, then to group activities. I pair students with low confidence with those who have high confidence.	I identify them spontaneously during the lesson as they come up	Smart Board Web 2.0 Tools	I create a environment where student have a high leve of interaction with each other. I monitor students' progress through EBA an provide feedbace accordingly.		
	A.1	A.2	A.3	A4	A.5		

Table 4. Practices and opinions of teachers teaching idioms in their lessons

Teacher 6 (F)	Since the meanings of English	Idioms are more beneficial to students'	Supplementary Resources	Reading Aloud Listening to Texts	Relating to Real Life	
	idioms attract students' interest, this interest positively affects their language skills	vocabulary in terms of their literal meanings rather than their figurative meanings			Going from the Known to the Unknown	
	A.6	A.7	A.8	A.9	A.10	
	Supplementa ry Resources	Active Use in Sentences Providing the Turkish Equivalent	Note-taking	Learning by hearing	Reducing the Pace of Lesson Delivery	
	A.11	A.12	A.13	A.14	A.15	
	By providing direct positive feedback.	No, I don't do it.	Social media Extracurricular readings	No.	No, I don't use them.	
	By giving extra points on exams A.16	A.17	A.18	A.19	A.20	
	I give + for correct answers and - for incorrect answers.	I tell students to take notes on important points and give more speaking opportunities to students with lower confidence	I identify idioms whose Turkish and English versions differ from each other	Word wall Listening Texts on the Smartboard	I present idioms to students by combining them with jokes	

The teachers who emphasized the importance of using and teaching idioms in their lessons provided the following reasons:

- Contributions to language skills
- > Making the language learning process fun
- > Capturing students' interest

The teachers made the following statements regarding these reasons.

Teacher 5: Since students already use such expressions in their native language, translating idioms literally reveals humorous meanings, which then lead them to the actual meanings. This brings the students joy and helps them retain idioms more easily.

Teacher 6: Focusing on the meanings of idioms both captures students' interest and contributes to the development of their language skills.

The teachers evaluated the impact of idioms on the development of students' vocabulary and provided the following reasons:

- > Translation of idioms' literal meanings into Turkish
- > Idioms' contribution to vocabulary made up of literal meanings

The teachers expressed the following regarding these reasons:

Teacher 5: Translating the literal meanings of idioms that students encounter outside of class into Turkish increases their vocabulary and improves their ability to use their vocabulary.

Teacher 6: The literal meanings of the words that make up idioms, independent of their figurative meanings, stick in students' minds more, and their vocabulary develops in this direction.

The teachers evaluating the resources they use in classes for teaching idioms provided the following sources:

- Dictionary
- Supplementary Materials

The teachers shared the following views on these resources:

Teacher 5: I ask students to look up the meanings of idioms we encounter in class in their dictionaries. This way, they understand the meanings and usage of idioms better.

Teacher 6: Since textbooks are insufficient in terms of idioms, we use supplementary materials outside of the textbook. The idioms and idiom exercises in these supplementary materials make learning easier.

The teachers who evaluated the methods and tools they use to increase students' motivation in teaching idioms referred to the following ones:

- Smart Board
- Educational Games
- Drawing

- > Drama and Role-Playing
- Coding
- > Computer Games
- > TV Shows/Competitions
- Reading Aloud
- Listening to Texts

The teachers shared the following views on these methods:

Teacher 5: To increase students' motivation, I sometimes ask students to prepare educational games using the smart board, and other times I prepare the games myself. Occasionally, towards the end of the lesson, I ask students to create drawings or use idioms through drama and role-playing, or they participate in TV show-style competitions. Presenting idioms through 'rebus puzzles' also serves as a motivating activity for students. Especially during the pandemic, I used coding activities to teach idioms to students. Additionally, during the pandemic, students worked on incorporating idioms into sandbox games (games where players shape the game world based on their imagination within the mechanics of the game) via Zoom.

Teacher 6: Students really enjoy reading aloud, and it boosts their motivation. Also, listening to texts read by native English speakers increases my students' motivation.

The teachers who evaluated the strategies they use to increase students' motivation in language learning when teaching idioms mentioned the following strategies:

- Learning by doing
- Imitation
- Summarization
- Relating to real life
- > Moving from the known to the unknown

The teachers then shared the following views on these strategies:

Teacher 5: I want students to learn idioms by using them in sentences, even if it's just with a single word. I also encourage students to imitate others or people they hear using idioms outside of class. Especially in situations where students feel shy or hesitant to

speak in class, I send them videos containing idioms and ask for a voice recording summarizing the video.

Teacher 6: I never present idioms on their own outside of sentences. I always present them in context and relate them to real-life situations. During this process, I start with words and idioms that students already know and move towards words and idioms they are unfamiliar with.

Two teachers who evaluated the materials they use in teaching idioms provided the following materials:

- > Supplementary Materials
- > Technological Materials
- > Web 2.0 Tools
- > Tests

The teachers shared the following views on these materials:

Teacher 5: Since I turned to computer-based activities and Web 2.0 tools during the pandemic and found them to be effective, I continue to prioritize the use of such technological materials after the pandemic as well. Although I don't believe teaching English through tests is ideal, I present idioms to students through tests with multiple-choice questions to help them prepare for exams and get used to the exam format.

Teacher 6: It is especially convenient to use the idioms or the sections where idioms' meanings are given in the tests found in supplementary materials as teaching tools.

The teachers who evaluated the strategies they use to improve students' comprehension skills in teaching idioms provided the following strategies:

- ➢ Fill in the Blanks
- Matching
- > Active Use in Sentences
- > Providing Turkish Equivalents

The teachers shared the following views on these strategies:

Teacher 5: Traditional methods like fill-in-the-blanks and matching idioms with their meanings, especially in the context of tests, improve students' ability to understand idioms.

Teacher 6: Having students actively use idioms in sentences and providing their Turkish equivalents help students learn idioms more effectively.

Two teachers evaluating the methods they use to ensure students' active participation in teaching idioms have presented the following methods:

- > Teaching games in the schoolyard
- Video recording
- > Note taking

The teachers described the methods as follows:

Teacher 5: Since the number of English classes is high, to maintain active participation during times when engagement drops, I go to the schoolyard and incorporate idioms into games like hopscotch to conduct educational games. Because it is not possible to conduct educational games in the schoolyard every week, I ask students to actively use idioms in video recordings at other times.

Teacher 6: By using the classic method of notetaking, even when students do not actively participate, they have sections they can refer to later, which can help ensure their active participation when the same idiom comes up in subsequent lessons.

Two teachers evaluating which learning styles their methods are suitable for in teaching idioms have presented the following learning styles:

- Kinetic learning
- Visual learning
- > Auditory learning

The teachers described the learning styles as follows:

Teacher 5: By using the Total Physical Response method, I ensure students' kinetic learning. It is very important for students to use body language, especially in drama and

role-play. At the same time, by supporting idiom teaching with visuals and using visual materials through the smart board, students also engage in visual learning.

Teacher 6: I believe that the listening texts included in the supplementary resources I use address auditory learning more effectively for students.

Two teachers evaluating how they adapt to students' different language levels in teaching idioms have described the following methods:

- > Peer learning
- Reducing the pace of instruction

The teachers described the methods as follows:

Teacher 5: I target students who are ahead with those who are one level below them. Since not every student is equally successful, especially for those at lower levels who do not know basic concepts, it is a logical solution for these students to be guided by "locomotive" students who are ahead through peer learning.

Teacher 6: In classrooms, an average of 5 or 6 students progress at a constant pace, but the same cannot be said for other students. Therefore, I reduce the pace of the lesson, and the intensity of the information conveyed in the lesson to help other students catch up.

Two teachers evaluating the methods they use to provide feedback to students during idiom instruction identified the following types of feedback:

- Direct positive feedback
- > Adding extra points to exams

The teachers described the feedback types as follows:

Teacher 5: I provide direct positive feedback to students using examples like, "Well done", I liked how you used it this way. I had not used it myself for a long time. Your friend made a great sentence. A sentence of the quality you would use in your native language.

Teacher 6: By using phrases like "Congratulations, you remembered correctly," I motivate students and then add extra points to their exams after noting their names in my notebook.

Both teachers reported not engaing in any collaboration with their colleagues regarding idiom instruction.

The teachers elaborating on the resources they have used to develop themselves in idiom instruction referred to the following resources:

- Dictionaries
- > Extracurricular reading activities
- Videos
- Social Media

The teachers described how they benefited from these resources as follows:

Teacher 5: I am more of a teacher who progresses through dictionary reading and my own extracurricular reading. I can learn by noting down what I read and reviewing my notes later. Although rarely, listening to English videos that come my way also enhances my personal development.

Teacher 6: Following the educational posts of teachers I follow on social media helps me improve myself.

A teacher who follows the practices of other teachers regarding idiom instruction noted the following learning points:

> How to implement idiom teaching

The teacher described the learning points as follows:

Teacher 5: Thanks to the notes I took from the shares of the teacher I follow about idioms in film clips, I gain new insights into how idiom instruction can be conducted.

Neither teacher uses any strategies to increase students' cultural awareness in idiom instruction.

Two teachers evaluating the tools they use to measure students' ability to use English idioms identified the following tools:

- > Matching
- > Drama and role play
- ➢ Giving + for correct answers and − for incorrect answers

The teachers described the tools as follows:

Teacher 5: I have students play a matching game on the board, where they match the English idioms with their Turkish counterparts. Occasionally, I ask students to create a dialogue containing idioms and then have them act out this dialogue in class. Since I do not want students to rely on grades, I do not assign any scores based on this assessment.

Teacher 6: I give + if students know the words forming the idioms and their meanings, and - if they do not, and I record this in my notebook. However, I do not transfer these pluses and minuses to any grading system.

Two teachers evaluating the methods they use to increase students' self-confidence in idiom instruction identified the following methods:

- > Moving from individual to group activities
- > Pairing low self-confidence students with high self-confidence students
- > Giving more speaking opportunities to low self-confidence students
- > Telling students to take notes on important parts

The teachers described the methods as follows:

Teacher 5: When I say we will start with a group activity to students with low selfconfidence, it becomes an overwhelming burden for them. Therefore, I first have these students do individual activities, which I check myself, and then I include them in group activities. Within group activities, I pair low self-confidence students with high selfconfidence students to help them become more familiar with group activities. This way, both students in the pair feel more comfortable and secure.

Teacher 6: I tell low self-confidence students to take notes on important parts directly without pressuring or threatening them. This way, these students are aware that they are not ignored or invisible during the lesson. Additionally, I give them priority when they request to speak during the lesson to prevent their motivation from decreasing.

For supporting students' learning process in idiom instruction, the two teachers identified the following technological resources:

- > Smart board and listening texts on the Smart Board
- > Web 2.0 tools

> Word wall

The teachers described the technological resources as follows:

Teacher 5: I use the smart board for teaching idioms in most of my lessons. Access to many resources through the smart board makes idiom instruction easier. Additionally, the Web 2.0 tools that I have recently started using are very important for providing variety in idiom instruction.

Teacher 6: Listening texts read by native English speakers, myself, or students on the smart board make it easier for students to pronounce idioms. The Word Wall application, which I use frequently, can be adjusted according to students' levels and makes idiom learning more enjoyable.

To diversify the learning process in idiom instruction, the two teachers identified the following strategies:

- > Always creating interactive learning environment
- > Monitoring and feedback on the learning process via EBA
- Presentation of idioms with jokes

The teachers described the strategies as follows:

Teacher 5: Viewing students' progress through EBA outside of class and providing feedback based on their progress, along with involving parents in the process, makes the learning process more varied. In class, creating an environment where students are constantly interacting with each other or with the teacher makes the process more efficient.

Teacher 6: Combining idioms with jokes and presenting them as questions creates fun moments when students provide answers, offering a different variety compared to traditional presentation methods.

In summary, the use of idioms in EFL classes reveals a notable disparity in instructional practices among teachers. The data indicates that while most teachers (8 out of 10) do not incorporate idioms into their lessons, primarily due to curriculum constraints, perceived lack of student readiness, and time limitations, a minority (2 out of 10) actively integrate idiom teaching into their practices. The latter group highlights the benefits of idioms in enhancing language

skills, making learning engaging, and broadening vocabulary through literal and figurative meanings. They employ a variety of resources and methods, such as supplementary materials, educational games, and technology, to facilitate idiom instruction. Conversely, the reluctance to teach idioms among the larger group of teachers is rooted in curriculum rigidity, concerns over students' language proficiency, and preparation for standardized exams. This divergence underscores the need for a more flexible curriculum that accommodates idiom instruction and for professional development opportunities that emphasize the value of idioms in language learning. Addressing these gaps could enhance the overall effectiveness of EFL instruction and better support students in achieving a more nuanced understanding of the language.

5. Conclusion

This study emerged from the need to investigate the extent to which idioms are incorporated into middle school English lessons in Turkey. The response to the first research question reveals through interviews with teachers that more than half (f=8) of the teachers do not include the use of English idioms in their 8th-grade English classes. Among those who do not incorporate idioms into their English lessons, a common belief is that English idioms are not included in the curriculum; thus, they do not address idioms in their classes. The lack of idioms in the curriculum, combined with students' insufficient level for learning idioms, the focus on exam preparation for 8th graders, and the prioritization of other curriculum topics, collectively prevent idiom teaching from being a focal point or even occasionally addressed in middle school English lessons.

The main factor influencing teachers who wish to include idioms in their lessons but are unable to achieve this goal is the rigidity of the curriculum and the school's approach to it. Despite teachers' desires to incorporate idioms into their lessons, the curriculum's inflexibility and its linear progression, which does not allow for external intervention or interpretation, shape their perspectives on idiom instruction. Additionally, teachers' negative attitudes towards idiom teaching are often rooted in the belief that grammar instruction is more important than teaching idiomatic and communicative language use. In reality, an analysis of teachers' comments about English idioms suggests that their approaches to lesson delivery are neither strictly rigid nor flexible. Consequently, points of instruction like idioms, perceived as "foreign" elements, are seen as disrupting the cohesion of the lesson.

Nevertheless, teachers who believe they have overcome the obstacles to teaching idioms (f=2) express more positive attitudes toward idioms, noting their importance in both literal and

figurative communication within a language class. They also indicated that, with sufficient resources and creativity, teaching idioms could enhance language skills and be more successful compared to the often perceived as simple and monotonous grammar instruction in 8th-grade secondary school English classes.

Certainly, the differences of opinion regarding the teaching of idioms in English classes reveal several implications for school administration and curriculum design. First, based on the research results, it is evident that those responsible for designing the curriculum and the school administration implementing it have not included English idioms in any way. Incorporating idioms into the curriculum could be a step toward making language teaching in schools more communicative. Second, adding questions that involve idioms and require idiom knowledge for successful responses to official exams could encourage both teachers to teach idioms and students to learn them. Third, integrating idiom teaching as part of language skills instruction within the English curriculum would make idiom instruction more accessible in terms of time and workload.

However, this research has some limitations that should be noted. Firstly, the limitation of the sample group to the Burdur province means that the findings are not broadly representative of the entire country. Nonetheless, this does not imply that the results are irrelevant or unrelated to other research contexts. In qualitative research, an in-depth exploration of the topic and its guidance for future studies is often more significant than generalizing. The rich descriptions and findings presented throughout the research could serve as a guide for addressing similar issues in teaching and learning contexts. Secondly, the study's limitation to teachers excluded student perspectives from the evaluation. Thirdly, since the findings were derived from interviews with teachers, they reflect the teachers' own evaluations and interpretations of their behaviors. Using different methods, such as classroom observations, might have yielded different results. Considering all the limitations, it is evident that there are many aspects to be addressed and investigated in future research. Future studies should include not only teachers' opinions but also students' perspectives, potentially through classroom observations or video recordings of lessons if feasible. Additionally, exploring various approaches and methods for teaching idioms could provide a rich area for future research.

REFERENCES

- Ababneh, S., & Al-Momani, M. (2011). The effect of a vocational instructional program on vocational students' English language proficiency. *International Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, 19, 53-66.
- Adkins, P. (1968). Teaching idioms and figures of speech to non-native speakers of English. *The Modern Language Journal*, 52(3), 148-152.
- Akkök, A. E. (2007). Deyimlerin anlambilimsel ve bilişsel özelliklerine göre tahmin edilebilirliği: Yabancı dilde bir uygulama. *Dil Dergisi*, *138*, 18-33.

Aksan, D. (2003). Her yönüyle dil anaçizgileriyle dilbilim. TDK.

- Alhaysony, M. H. (2017). Strategies and difficulties of understanding English idioms: A case study of Saudi University EFL students. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7(3), 70-84.
- Asl, F. M. (2013). The impact of context on learning idioms in EFL classes. *TESOL Journal*, 37(1), 1-12.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). Fundamental considerations in language testing. Oxford University Press.
- Beloussova, V. (2015). *Idiom learning materials for Estonian Secondary School students* [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Tartu.
- Boers, F. (2000). Metaphor awareness and vocabulary retention. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), 553-571.
- Boers, F., & Demecheleer, M. (2001). Measuring the impacts of cross-cultural differences on learners' comprehension of imageable idioms. *ELT Journal*, 55(3), 255-262.
- Bortfeld, H. (1997). *A cross-linguistic analysis of idiom comprehension by native and nonnative speakers* [Doctoral dissertation]. State University of New York at Stony Brook.

- Cain, K., Oakhill, J., & Lemmon, K. (2005). The relation between children's reading comprehension level and their comprehension of idioms. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 90, 65-87.
- Çakır, I. (2011). How do learners perceive idioms in EFL classes? *Ekev Akademi Dergisi*, 15(47), 371-381.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1997). Exploring spoken English. Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, Y. (2009). On literal translation of English idioms. *English Language Teaching*, 2(2), 164-166.
- Chen, Y., & Lai, H. (2013). Teaching English idioms as metaphors through cognitive-oriented methods: A case in an EFL writing class. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 6(6), 13-20.
- Cooper, C. (1998). Teaching idioms. *Foreign Language Annals*, 31(2), 255-266. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1998.tb00572.x
- Cooper, C. (1999). Processing of idioms by L2 learners of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 233-262.
- Dixon, R. (1994). Essential idioms in English. Prentice Hall Regents.
- Dobrovol'skij, D., & Piiranen, E. (2005). Figurative language: Cross-cultural and crosslinguistic perspectives. Elsevier.
- Dohman, Ü., & Yüce, H. K. (2022). Türkçe, Rusça ve İngilizce deyimlerde "zaman" konsepti. *Iğdır Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 11(31), 244-254.
- Elkılıç, G. (2008). Turkish students' understanding of transparent and opaque idioms in English in reading as well as in speaking. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 4(2), 28-40.
- Ellis, R. (1997). Second language acquisition. Oxford University Press.

- Erman, B., & Warren, B. (2000). The idiom principle and the open choice principle. *Text* & *Talk*, 20(1), 29-62.
- Gibbs, R. W. (1994). *The poetics of mind: Figurative thought, language and understanding*. Cambridge University Press.

Glucksberg, S. (2001). Understanding figurative language. Oxford University Press.

- Holsinger, E., & Kaiser, E. (2013). Processing (non) compositional expressions: Mistakes and recovery. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 39(3), 866-878.
- Hussein, R. F., Khanji, R., & Makhzoomy, K. F. (2000). The acquisition of idioms: Transfer or what? *J. King Saud University*, 12, 23-34.
- İli, M. (2015). İngilizce deyimlerin Türkçeye çevirisinde karşılaşılan sorunlar ve çözüm yolları. Dicle Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 7(14), 112-127.
- Irujo, S. (1986). Don't put your leg in your mouth: Transfer in the acquisition of idioms in a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), 287-304. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3586545</u>

Jackson, H. (1988). Words and their meaning. Pergamon.

- Jiang, W. (2000). The relationship between culture and language. *ELT Journal*, 54(4), 328-334.
- Joelene, H. O., & Maureen, D. (2003). Idiom comprehension in childhood: An assessment tool and age norms. *Brain and Language*, 87, 188-191.
- Kainulainen, T. (2006). Understanding idioms: A comparison of Finnish third grade students of national senior secondary school and IB diploma programme [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Jyvaskyla.
- Khan, Ö., & Daşkın, N. C. (2014). "You reap what you sow" idioms in materials designed by EFL teacher-trainees. *Research on Youth and Language*, 8(2), 97-118.
- Kömür, S., & Çimen, S. S. (2009). Using conceptual metaphors in teaching idioms in a foreign language context. *Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi (İLKE)*, 23, 205-222.

- Kövecses, Z., & Szabo, P. (1996). Idioms: A view from cognitive semantics. Applied Linguistics, 17(3), 345-348.
- Lakoff, G. (1987). Women, fire, and dangerous things: What categories reveal about the mind. University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphors we live by. University of Chicago Press.
- Lattey, E. (1986). Pragmatic classification of idioms as an aid for the language learner. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24(3), 217-233. <u>https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1986.24.1-4.217</u>
- Lazar, G. (1996). Using figurative language to expand students' vocabulary. *ELT Journal*, 50, 43-51. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/50.1.43</u>
- Levorato, M. C., & Cacciari, C. (1999). Idiom comprehension in children: Are the effects of semantic analysability and context separable? *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 11, 51-66.
- Liontas, J. I. (2003). Killing two birds with one stone: Understanding Spanish VP idioms in and out of context. *Hispania*, 86(2), 289-301.
- Liu, D. (2008). Idioms: Description, comprehension, acquisition, and pedagogy. Routledge.
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. (2006). Pearson Education Limited.
- McDevitt, E. (1993). What does that mean? An introduction to American idioms. Department of Education.
- McPartland, P. (1981). Take it Easy: American Idioms. Language Learning, 33(4), 5-10.
- Moon, R. (1998). *Fixed expressions and idioms in English: A corpus-based approach*. Oxford University Press.
- Nation, P., & Meara, P. (2002). Vocabulary. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), An introduction to applied linguistics (pp. 35-54). Arnold.

- Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). Lexical phrases and language teaching. Oxford University Press.
- Newmark, P. (1988). A textbook of translation. Prentice Hall International.
- Nippold, M. A., & Taylor, C. L. (2002). Judgements of idiom familiarity and transparency: A comparison of children and adolescents. *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research*, 45, 384-391.
- Nunberg, G., Sag, I. A., & Wasow, T. (1994). Idioms. Language, 70(3), 491-538.
- O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2007). From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching. Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford English Dictionary. (1989). Oxford English Dictionary (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Oxford University Press. (2006). Oxford Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs. Oxford University Press.
- Palmer, B., & Brooks, M. (2004). Reading until the cows come home: Figurative language and reading comprehension. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 47, 370-379.
- Sparado, K. (2013). Maturational constraints on lexical acquisition in a second language. In G.
 Granena & M. Long (Eds.), *Sensitive periods, language aptitude, and ultimate L2 attainment* (pp. 43-68). John Benjamins.
- Pimenova, N. (2011). *Idioms comprehension strategies used by English and Russian language learners in a think-aloud study* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Purdue University.
- Rizq, W. M. (2015). Teaching English idioms to L2 learners: ESL teachers' perspective. Culminating Projects in English, 19.
- Roberto De Caro, E. E. (2009). The advantages and importance of learning and using idioms in English. *Cuadernos de Lingüística Hispánica*, 14, 121-136.

- Saleh, N., & Zakaria, N. (2013). Investigating the difficulties faced in understanding, and strategies used in processing English idiom by the Libyan students. *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies*, 1(2), 69-90.
- Samani, E. R., & Hashemian, M. (2012). The effect of conceptual metaphors on learning idioms by L2 learners. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(1), 249.
- Souha, A. (2008). *Avoidance of idioms: An ethnic group identity issue?* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Concordia University.
- Sprenger, S. A., Levelt, W. J. M., & Kempen, G. (2006). Lexical access during the production of idiomatic phrases. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 54, 161-184.
- TDK. (2005). Türkçe Sözlük (10th ed.). Türk Dil Kurumu.
- Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic sequences in second language teaching: Principle and practice. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), 463-489.
- Wright, J. (2002). *Idioms organizer: Organized by metaphor, topic and keyword*. Thomson & Heinle.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Mehmethan ÇEVİK

ORCID: 0009-0008-0564-6413

2430461012@ogr.mehmetakif.edu.tr

Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education

Mehmethan Çevik is currently pursuing his Master's Degree in English Language Teaching in Mehmet Akif Ersoy University in Burdur. He graduated from the English Language Teaching department at Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur. His main research interests are technology in education, teacher beliefs, assessment, and evaluation.



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali KARAKAŞ

ORCID: 0000-0002-9790-8562

akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Faculty of Education, Deptartment of Foreign Language Education

Ali Karakaş is currently working as an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language Teaching, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Burdur. He graduated from the English Language Teaching Department at Uludağ University, Bursa. He earned his PhD in Applied Linguistics from Southampton University, UK. He is also a postdoctoral member of the Centre for Global Englishes, Southampton University, UK. His main research interests include Global Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, Language Policy and Planning, Englishmedium Instruction and Teacher Education. He has currently co-edited a book entitled English as the Medium of Instruction in Turkish Higher Education: Policy, Practice and Progress published by Springer.

To Cite this Chapter

Çevik, M. & Karakaş, A. (2024). A glimpse into teaching idioms in the secondary EFL classrooms in Turkish schools. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 73-106). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 5: THE PRACTICE-ORIENTED MODEL OF TRAINING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE PHILOLOGIST AT THE UKRAINIAN UNIVERSITY

Iryna KHALYMON D Valentyna SLYVKA D Svitlana TEZIKOVA

1. Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the practice-oriented experience of training students in a specialized bachelor's degree program in Philology with a specialization in *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation) - English and German Languages* at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University in Ukraine.

Embracing the competency approach, which focuses on the practical application of knowledge and skills, our training of specialists is designed to increase the time dedicated to fulfilling professionally aimed tasks grounded in fundamental knowledge, practical skills, and values. In the face of rapid changes in the language industry, including the rise of artificial intelligence and machine translation, the need to train specialists in environments mirroring actual work conditions has never been more pertinent. The competency approach ensures that our students acquire theoretical knowledge and develop the practical skills and professional values necessary for success in the industry.

Our educational program, *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation)* - *English and German Languages* at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University significantly emphasises practical training. A total of 24 credits are dedicated to field experience, spread across all four years of study. This practical approach, from introductory practice in the first year to translation work placement practice in the fourth year, ensures our students are well-prepared for the real-world challenges of their chosen profession.

The article also introduces the sequential program of practical training for philology students, describing the tasks and contents and the means to ensure continuity and sequence in forming professional competencies in class and extracurricular activities. This includes participation in

translation contests, translation societies, and meetings with specialists in this field, who provide real-world insights and feedback on students' work.

Having analyzed the surveys answered by the students, practice supervisors, representatives of the organizations and businesses providing translation work placement, we have outlined the organizational and pedagogical grounds for providing all kinds of practical training. This includes the crucial collaboration between the university, businesses, and bodies, ensuring the professional training of specialists in foreign languages. We also outline the perspectives in developing the *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation) - English and German Languages* educational program, a collective effort that we believe will benefit all involved.

The training of specialists in *Philology, Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation)*, with English as the major at Nizhyn Gogol State University, has been a journey of continuous evolution. Since its inception in 2016 for the second (master's) and in 2017 for the first (bachelor's) levels of higher education, the program has undergone significant changes. While maintaining a strong focus on philological training, we have recognized the need to enhance the program with more practice-oriented tasks. We have also established partnerships with business representatives, alumni and colleagues from other educational institutions, all of whom contribute to the program's growth and development.

The content and structure of the educational program *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation)* are regulated by the state standard, which we have already written about (Tezikova, et al, 2023). This article aims to describe practice-oriented tasks in *the Practice of Oral and Written Translation* course, which is taught during 3-8 semesters, the content of which is coordinated with theoretical translation studies and linguistic courses, as well as with students' practices.

Our educational programs are not only shaped by our internal processes but also by the influence of international organizations. The annual studies of ELIS (European Language Industry Service) are particularly significant, as they provide us with insights into the global trends in the professional field. This connection to international organizations ensures that our educational programs are not just locally relevant, but also in tune with the latest developments in the field, fostering a sense of global awareness among our students and faculty.

As we reflect on our journey of implementing the educational program in *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation)*, we recognize the pivotal role of our stakeholders – the students, educators, business representatives, and professionals in the field. From the emphasis on learning one foreign language (2016-2023) to the recent shift to two languages (2024), our collective efforts have allowed us to present our vision of the challenges facing the language industry. It is through our combined expertise and dedication that we can formulate the tasks to be performed by educational institutions that train specialists in this area, empowering us all to shape the future of the field.

2. Language Industry: New Challenges and Tasks for Educational Institutions

Integration processes in modern society, which have led to an increase in contacts and the need to establish mutual understanding between speakers of different languages, the development of information and communication technologies, machine translation tools, and artificial intelligence, which have influenced changes in the professional field of translators/interpreters, have put forward new challenges for educational institutions that train specialists for the language industry. Let us emphasize some of the challenges that need to be considered when developing the academic program's content in the speciality of *Philology*. *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation) – English and German Languages* (http://surl.li/qaxrcz).

Automation and competition with artificial intelligence: The rise of automated translation tools and AI has intensified competition in the translation industry. While machine translation makes work more accessible, it cannot convey cultural context, emotion, and subtlety like human translators. Clients often prefer cheap or fast automatic translation options, affecting translators' working conditions. Therefore, future translators need philological training and preparation to use technological tools.

Low remuneration: Many translators, particularly freelancers, need help with low rates due to increased competition from non-professional translators and automated tools. Customers want quick and high-quality results at low costs, putting translators in a challenging position. To address this, educational institutions should provide students with philological training and cultivate a conscious attitude towards using technological tools that speed up the translation process without compromising quality.

Specialization Challenges: Translators need deep industry knowledge in legal, medical, or technical translation. Acquiring this expertise takes time and resources. The demand for

specialized translators is high, but so is the competition. To address this, future translators should receive proper training through partnerships with educational institutions or industry representatives.

Quality Issues with Automated Translation: While automated translation systems improve, they still need help with complex texts. Manual checking and correction are often necessary, requiring students to develop critical analysis, editing, and correction skills.

Cultural and Linguistic Barriers: Translators must understand cultural and social nuances to avoid errors. This knowledge should be integrated into translation training programs through various activities and experiences inside and outside the classroom.

Evolving Customer Needs: Modern clients require textual and multimedia translations, such as subtitling and voice-over. This demands that translators master new technologies and skills, which should be included in their training programs.

Legal and ethical challenges: Translators often encounter confidentiality issues, especially when working with legal or medical texts. Ensuring high data security and confidentiality levels is crucial, which can be challenging in today's digital environment. Consequently, the issues of professional ethics and legal support for translators' work become relevant. However, university professors training translators are often unaware of the nuances of legal and ethical challenges. One way to address this is to foster close cooperation between university professors and industry representatives.

Urgent projects and a large workload: Many translators handle urgent orders, which can lead to overwork and stress. Additionally, translation agencies may overload specialists with large volumes of work and tight deadlines. Students may not fully grasp this situation while studying at university. During on-the-job training, such real-time situations provide opportunities to assess future translators for stress resistance, readiness to find optimal working and leisure conditions, and the ability to work in a team and share responsibility for quality results with other project members. Involvement in university projects is considered the initial step in developing readiness to work under tight deadlines, with large amounts of information, and in collaboration with other task performers.

Language Evolution: Languages are constantly evolving, with new terms emerging and grammar and syntax rules changing. Translators must continuously update their knowledge to remain competent and prepared to work in varying conditions.

3. Practice of Written and Oral Translation Course

Bridging the gap between theoretical and practical courses in university education and the gap between university education and professional practice cannot be overemphasised. In further discussion, we will illustrate how this is being achieved through translation-related courses within the program.

Students begin their translation training in their second year with the *Introduction to Translation Studies* course. This one-semester course introduces fundamental concepts such as the definition and types of translation, various translation approaches, and basic translation techniques and transformations. Over the following two semesters, students deepen their understanding by taking the *Theory of Translation* course, which covers additional theoretical topics. Students are able to put the theoretical knowledge gained in these courses into practice almost immediately as in their third semester, alongside the *Introduction to Translation Studies*, they simultaneously begin the *Practice of Oral and Written Translation* course. This parallel structure is perhaps the most effective way to implement a practice-oriented model for training foreign language philologists.

We want to provide a detailed overview of the *Practice of Oral and Written Translation course*. The fact that the course spans six semesters and accounts for 19 credits – more than 10% of the total required credits – underscores its significance within the bachelor's program. The course title alone indicates its focus on practical application. When studied in conjunction with other components of the educational program *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including translation)*–*English and German Languages*, this course helps students acquire the necessary professional competencies. Specifically, it contributes to developing integral competence – solving complex, specialised tasks and practical problems in philology (linguistics, literary studies, and Translation) during professional activities or training. This competence involves applying theories and methods of philological science in situations characterized by complexity and uncertainty.

By the end of the course, students are expected to achieve several learning objectives, which are aligned with those of the entire educational program:

- to communicate freely on professional topics with specialists and nonspecialists orally and in writing in the state (Ukrainian) and foreign (English and German) languages, using them for effective intercultural communication;
- to manage their process of studies and self-education;

- to use information and communication technologies for solving complex, specialised tasks and problems in professional activities;
- to characterise the dialects and social variants of the studied English and German languages and to describe a socio-lingual situation;
- to know the norms of the literary language and use them in professional activities;
- to know principles, techniques, and methods of text arrangement in various genres and styles in the state and English and German languages;
- to analyse language units, define their coordination, and characterise linguistic phenomena and processes predetermining them;
- to use the English and German languages in both oral and written forms in various genres and styles of communication (official, non-official, neutral) for solving communicative tasks in an everyday, social, educational, professional, and scientific sphere of life;
- to collect, analyse, systematise, and interpret the samples of the language and speech and use them for solving tasks and problems in professional activities and studies;
- to translate, edit, abstract and annotate texts of various genres in Ukrainian and English.

To meet the objectives outlined in the latest 2024 educational program, designing the course content to reflect the best global practices and job market demands was crucial. The most recent European Language Industry Survey Report (2024) influenced the introduction of a module on Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) tools into the course syllabus. Additionally, a recent Ukrainian study revealed that the primary translation services offered by top Ukrainian companies are technical and industry-specific translation (68% of total translations), followed by website and software localisation (20%), oral translation (7%), and translation of audio and video materials (5%) (Pylypchuk, 2020). These findings prompted us to focus on specialized translation in the fourth-year modules.

The course syllabus is designed on the principles of continuity and progression, aiming to equip students with the knowledge and practical skills needed for various types of translation. The course begins with simpler tasks and gradually advances to more complex topics and activities that mirror the real-life functions of translation professionals. This progression is reflected across the modules and semesters presented below.

In their second year, in the 3rd and 4th semesters, students are introduced to translation at the levels of phonemes, words, word combinations, and grammatical forms. In Module 1, students learn to translate various proper names (anthroponyms, geographical names, company names, etc.), i.e., context-independent lexical units, using phonetic translation transformations such as

transliteration, transcription, and historically established conventions. Module 2 focuses on the lexical aspects of translation. Students learn to apply various translation techniques (calque, concretization, generalization, addition, omission, modulation, compensation) when translating polysemous words, internationalisms, culturally specific and socially marked vocabulary, idioms, dialectal expressions, abbreviations, neologisms, archaisms, historicisms, technical terms, politically correct language, desemanticized words, and noun clusters. Module 3 addresses the grammatical aspects of translation, where students focus on translating challenging grammatical phenomena (definite and indefinite articles, infinite forms of the English verb (infinitive, gerund, participle) and complexes with them, modal verbs, passive constructions) and learn to use grammatical translation transformations such as replacement, transposition, addition, omission, and antonymic translation.

The fifth semester in the third year begins with a module on the syntactic aspects of translation. Students learn to identify theme and rheme in a sentence and practice translating simple and complex, as well as emphatic and elliptical sentences and comparative and negative constructions. Students learn to apply translation transformations such as integration and partitioning at this stage. The next module (recently added to the syllabus) covers modern translation technologies and CAT tools. In this module, students are introduced to the general features of CAT tools and the basics of their use. They gain hands-on experience with CAT tools like OmegaT, translating texts in various formats, creating and managing glossaries, building translation memory databases from previously translated documents (alignment), and implementing translation projects.

The rest of the course modules are dedicated to teaching students to translate various types of texts. Thus, Modules 6 and 7 deal with mass media news reports (on society, climate and environmental issues, culture, and sports) and reference texts (like biographical materials, encyclopedic entries, consumer manuals, and audio sequences of documentary films). As mentioned above, the texts become more specialized in the fourth year. Module 8 covers translating journalistic texts, such as analytical articles, essays, and speeches. Students also learn to translate stylistic devices commonly found in these texts, such as metaphors, similes, metonymy, and irony. The next module introduces students to translating official documents, including business correspondence, personal documents, employment contracts, official speeches, and international agreements. In Module 10, students translate economic texts, and materials from company websites. The final module is dedicated to translating scientific and

technical texts, including scientific articles, lectures, conference speeches, technical product descriptions, and patent applications.

Although most course modules focus on linguistic aspects of translation or specific text types, nearly every module also incorporates other essential components to ensure the development of translators' professional competence. For example, in Module 1, students are introduced to the basics of editing and post-editing, which is crucial given the widespread use of AI and machine translation. In Module 2, while dealing with the linguistic aspect of translation, they explore various electronic dictionaries and terminological databases. Module 3 introduces sight translation, while Module 4 covers the basics of the interpreter's notation, further practised in Module 6 during consecutive interpreting exercises. Modules 7 and 8 teach students to translate for gist and produce annotated translations. Each of these specific translation areas of focus is not just introduced once but integrated into the content of subsequent modules.

Additionally, the course is designed to develop a system of skills and abilities that, while not explicitly mentioned as learning outcomes in the syllabus, are essential for mastering the specified types of translation. These include techniques for transferring a message between English and Ukrainian, the ability to react quickly and choose appropriate equivalents to accurately convey the original message, thinking figuratively and associatively, retaining text for subsequent translation, and summarising received information. The course also fosters skills necessary to overcome challenges in oral and written translation, such as dealing with stylistic features of the original message, noise interference, speech flow pace, sudden topic shifts, and conveying content, connotations, stylistics, and genre features.

To equip students with these essential skills, the course includes various activities:

- mnemonic exercises (e.g., reproducing thematic lists of words, series of numbers, dates, and proper names presented by the teacher; the "snowball" activity where students remember and reproduce a message with an increasing number of details);
- exercises for perceiving, noting down and reproducing/translating precise information (e.g., numbers, proper names);
- pronunciation training exercises (in both English and Ukrainian), such as practising tongue twisters;
- vocabulary expansion exercises, like compiling glossaries and writing vocabulary dictations;
- exercises for summarising and compressing information;
- > exercises for anticipating missing elements in the original text;
- exercises for the perception and reproduction of the original text ('shadowing' and repetition in pauses);

- > exercises for mastering interpreter notation;
- translation analysis of the original text and parallel texts;
- > assessment of translation quality.

These activities prepare students for various types of translation and interpretation tasks they are likely to encounter in real-life professional situations: sight translation, consecutive interpreting (with and without interpreter notation), two-way translation of interviews, adequate translation of texts in various functional styles (using CAT tools), translation for gist, editing translated texts (both their own and those done by peers), and post-editing machine-translated texts according to the rules and norms of the Ukrainian and English languages.

These are only possible with the strong foundation provided by theoretical courses such as *Introduction to Linguistics*, *Introduction to Translation Studies*, *Theory of Translation*, *Lexicology*, *Theoretical Grammar*, *Stylistics*, and others. Here are just a few examples which illustrate the connection with the theoretical courses: the course of *Introduction to Linguistics* provides insights into language structure, aiding students in accurately translating complex syntactic and semantic elements, such as specialised terminology in technical texts; *Introduction to Translation Studies* introduces essential concepts like equivalence and translation transformations, which help students navigate cultural and idiomatic challenges in translation; *Theory of Translation* offers frameworks like Skopos theory, guiding students in making strategic decisions, such as adapting legal terms to the target culture; *Lexicology* helps students understand word meanings and relationships, crucial for translating neologisms or idiomatic phrases effectively; *Theoretical Grammar* equips students with the knowledge to handle grammatical challenges, such as translating passive constructions or modal verbs; *Stylistics* teaches the importance of tone and style, enabling students to maintain in the translation the impact of the original text depending on the functional style it belongs to.

While discussing the course content, we cannot help mentioning the course materials. Given the shortage of modern Ukrainian textbooks that meet the course objectives, translation teachers often have to select text materials for classroom and independent work. As researchers note, any text can be the object of translation, but not every text can be considered a unit of study (Kavytska, 2013). A well-chosen text serves as a pedagogical tool that supports students' studies. Using self-created texts tailored to students' needs can be appropriate at the initial stage of translator training. However, since professionals deal with the translation of original, unprepared texts, we believe students should learn by working with such authentic materials.

When selecting texts, care is taken to follow specific principles based on their linguistic, functional, and methodological features. Linguistically, texts should be complete, coherent, and rich in terminology and represent a variety of styles and genres. Methodologically, texts should be authentic – created by native speakers for real communication – and accessible regarding length, language complexity, and content specificity. However, the most important factor is professional significance: texts must reflect real professional needs, including relevant subject matter, genre, and discourse type (Kavytska, 2012).

Selecting the right texts is just the beginning. The next step involves adapting them to meet students' linguistic and cultural needs. Complex structures, nuanced vocabulary, and confusing syntax may need to be simplified without compromising the text's essence. Cultural relevance is crucial, with annotations helping to explain nuances and promote cultural awareness – an essential translation skill. A glossary can further aid understanding by providing translations or explanations of terms that lack direct equivalents in the target language.

Additionally, texts are accompanied by tasks designed to meet specific educational goals. These tasks include translating sections of the text, working with particular vocabulary or grammar, identifying and solving translation problems, or participating in collaborative translation projects. The goal is to create a dynamic learning environment where students can apply theoretical knowledge to practical scenarios.

Another effective way to bridge theory and practice in the *Practice of Oral and Written Translation* course and link professional training at the university with real-life activities is by involving industry professionals in teaching. In the academic year 2023/2024, students had the opportunity to meet practising translators and interpreters. Ms. N. Kyivska, a translator and interpreter at the university, answered numerous questions about her professional activities, job search strategies, cooperation with employers, the relevance of literary translation, preparation for written and oral translation, and the use of translation software. Similarly, Mr. P. Kostenetskyi, a translator for an agricultural company, shared insights from his professional experience, discussing the differences between working in-house at an enterprise and as a freelance translator. He emphasised the importance of specialised text translators, and his experience with CAT tools. These meetings highly motivated students, offering them a glimpse into the profession and helping them make informed career decisions. They received first-hand insights into the realities of the translation field.

To summarise, the course content aligns with the objectives of the 2024 educational program, reflecting best global practices and addressing current industry demands. The syllabus ensures continuity and progression, guiding students from basic tasks to complex real-world translation scenarios, including journalistic, scientific and technical texts. Essential components such as editing, post-editing, and CAT tools are integrated throughout the modules. The course also emphasises developing practical skills through various activities while maintaining solid connections to theoretical foundations. Text selection and adaptation follow principles that ensure linguistic, cultural, and professional relevance, creating a comprehensive and dynamic learning environment that prepares students for professional practice.

4. Extracurricular activities

In addition to the required coursework, the program strongly emphasises extracurricular activities related to translation and interpreting, such as informal education, translation contests, and a literary translation studio. First and foremost, it is important to highlight that students are encouraged to gain hands-on experience in interpreting or translation whenever such opportunities arise. For example, several students recently volunteered as interpreters during online meetings between the university teaching staff and international experts Irine Darchia from Georgia and Francisco Guillen Grima from Spain. As a recognition of their contributions, these students received certificates that officially confirmed their work. These certificates validate their practical experience and serve as valuable additions to their professional portfolios, enhancing their employability and demonstrating their readiness for real-world translation and interpreting challenges.

Students are advised to participate in informal education opportunities such as online courses, training sessions, webinars, and lectures on translation and interpreting topics. They can earn extra credit points for these activities or, in the case of online courses, receive credits. Students who attend such events are required to submit a report reflecting on their learning experience. A recent example is an online seminar on CAT tools led by O. Deikun, Associate Professor at the Department of Theory and Practice of Translation from English at Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. The seminar covered the translation memory software *Wordfast*, and positive feedback was received from the attendees.

Another form of extracurricular activity is the translation studio, designed for those interested in literary translation – an area not covered in the compulsory syllabus due to time constraints and the specialised skills required. The studio meets monthly on Friday evenings via Zoom.

Also, studio members communicate through social media, sharing interesting translationrelated content, discussing meeting details, proposing discussion topics, and voting on them.

The studio's work mode varies. In some meetings, all participants work on the same text, such as passages from selected literary works. In other meetings, students choose their texts to translate, often opting for modern fiction like fantasy or sci-fi or poetry from classical Ukrainian poets like T. Shevchenko and Lesia Ukrainka. Allowing students to translate texts of their choice aligns with a student-centred approach, boosts motivation, and develops literary taste.

Feedback is a crucial component of the studio's work. Before each meeting, the participants post their translations in a shared Google document, enabling peers to review and comment on their work. During meetings, students discuss translation challenges, compare approaches, and critique each other's work. Each session concludes with the teacher summarising the discussion, providing feedback, and addressing any issues.

Working in the translation studio enhances students' literary translation skills and fosters critical thinking, creativity, and a deeper appreciation for the nuances of language. By offering a collaborative and supportive environment, the studio plays a vital role in preparing students for the complexities of real-world translation, equipping them with the specialised skills that are essential for success in this field.

Translation contests are another traditional way to support students' interest in the profession, stimulate their engagement, and uncover their creative potential. They are typically organised by leading Ukrainian universities such as Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, V. N. Karazin Kharkiv National University, Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, and National Aviation University, among others. These institutions have established traditions in translator training and experienced judges among their teaching staff. Contests usually involve translating a passage from fiction, a journalistic article, or a piece of poetry. Some contests may also include consecutive interpreting of a recorded speech by a prominent figure. Competitions may consist of one or two rounds. To advance to the second round, students must first succeed at their university level, where internal contests are organised among third- and fourth-year students, who present their translations to a jury of translation faculty.

Although our translation program started in 2017, we have already achieved notable success in translation competitions, proving the program's quality. For example, in 2023, two third-year students, S. Kovalchuk and K. Skachok, competed against 48 participants from eleven

universities and won second and third prizes in the yearly Interuniversity Contest of Young Translators arranged by the National Aviation University. In 2024, a third-year student, D. Miahka, won second prize in the same contest, competing against 32 participants from eight universities.

Another notable contest was organised in March 2023 by our University and the Charitable Foundation for the Development of Territorial Communities, "In Memory of Franziska Zeitler." The contest aimed to select talented students to translate passages from the novel "In the Shade of an Earthly Woman" by a modern Ukrainian writer, Olena Pechorna, into English and German. Six students volunteered, and after a thorough review by the university teachers, their translations were evaluated by native speakers. N. Puhach, a third-year student, won the contest and was offered a contract to translate the entire novel, with potential future opportunities and monetary reward. The winner's name will appear on the book's cover, and she will represent the author at English-speaking events abroad. This experience highlights the real-world value of the education provided by the program and the importance of promoting Ukrainian culture abroad.

Participating in translation contests helps students familiarise themselves with literary works from their own and target cultures, develop their translation skills, and gain practical experience. They learn to balance originality with accuracy, ensure content fidelity, and address stylistic and cultural nuances. In poetry translation, they also work on rhyming and rhythm, striving for aesthetic equivalence.

In conclusion, the course content and extracurricular activities are designed to develop students' practical translation, interpreting, and soft skills necessary for professional success. These experiences prepare students for future careers in translation and interpreting, aligning with market demands.

5. Practical Training

The educational program, *Germanic Languages and Literatures (including Translation)* – *English and German Languages*, at Nizhyn Gogol State University significantly emphasises practical training. As is shown in Table 1, a total of 24 credits are dedicated to field experience, spread across all four years of study more or less evenly about necessary prerequisites (Table 1).

nal nt		ECTS credits	Assessment
Educational component	Practical Training		
EC 21	Introductory Practice	1.5	credit
EC 22	Language Practice	9	credit
EC 23	Instructional Translation Practice	1.5	credit
EC 24	Work Placement Translation Practice	12	credit

Table 1. Practical training in bachelor's program (2024)

All this field experience is spread over the years of study in the following way (Table 2):

		ECTS credits	Assessment
Year of Study	Practical Training		
1	Introductory Practice	1.5	credit
1	Language Practice	3	credit
2	Language Practice	3	credit
2	Language Practice	3	credit
3	Instructional Translation Practice	1.5	credit
3	Work Placement Practice	6	credit
4	Work Placement Practice	6	credit

Table 2. Distribution of practical training by years of study

During the first year of study, our students have *Introductory practice* (1.5 credits) at the end of the first term after completing the course *Introduction into Specialty*. In this course, they get acquainted and develop the basic skills necessary for successful studies and future professional activity. Usually, they prepare individual projects on one of the topics offered by the lecturer. At the end of the second term of the first year and at the end of the third and fourth terms of the second year, students have *Language practice* (3 credits each, 9 credits total). This kind of practice follows educational components such as the *Practical Course of English*, which students take in each year of their studies. Language practice aims at the practical application of knowledge on the learned topics, employing all the complex abilities and skills developed by the students during their studies. It also aims to hone their communicative competency in a

foreign language as an essential tool for future professional activity. There are the following requirements that students should meet:

- use their knowledge and skills in phonetics when producing their utterances on definite topics,
- > use vocabulary according to the purpose of utterance and situation of communication,
- > use correct Grammar in oral and written speech,
- > build logically connected utterances into discourse or sentences into a text,
- > be aware of cultural diversity and the culture of English-speaking countries in particular,
- choose and use various strategies for intercultural communication with representatives of other cultures.

The topics to learn in the first year are: Personal Identification: Dream Team, Houses/ Flats: A Man's House Is His Castle, Students' Life: My Learning Curve, Food and Meals: We Are What We Eat, and Relations: Together Forever (Taran et al, 2021, 2022). We need to note that a significant amount of time in the first year (one-third at the beginning of the first term) is dedicated to the Introductory Phonetic Course integrated with Basic Grammar (Taran et al, 2016). The topics learned during the second year of studies are: Shopping: Go on a Shopping Spree, Seasons and Weather: In All Weathers, Places: My Old Stomping Ground (Taran et al, 2022), Sports and Interests, and Travelling (Hrytsai & Kolesnyk, 2019). It must be noted that all the instruction in the Practical Course of English at the initial stage of studies (the first and the second years) is grounded on the communicative approach, which implies much language practice which might seem very similar to what we usually do at language practice as a kind of field experience. Still, the main difference is that students work much more autonomously during this period, as they have only 28 hours of classroom activities and 68 hours of individual work per 10 days, in comparison to 290 hours of classroom activities and 280 hours of individual work (19 credits totally) in the first year at Practical Course of English. For the second year, the number of hours is 218 and 202, consequently making a total of 14 credits.

We clearly understand that the best option to arrange *language practice* as a field experience is to allow our students to communicate with native speakers of the language they study and participate in various summer schools and courses. So we take every opportunity possible nowadays. Our students take *ReallyEnglish*, *FutureLearn*, *MOOCs*, or any other online courses at the end of terms, which can fit for field experience under the condition that students get certificates for completing the course of the definite level and the time assigned for it meets the requirements for field experience.

Instructional translation practice is after the fifth term in the third year of studying after the theoretical course *Theory of Translation* is completed and students have enough knowledge in *the Practice of Oral and Written Translation* course. It lasts for five days and takes 1.5 credits. Students are given several tasks to complete, directly connected with real-life challenges of their chosen profession, but this time, they observe and reflect much. They attend webinars where employers, experienced interpreters, editors, or others in this sphere share their ideas and knowledge. Students also observe interpreters' work to analyze it, edit texts translated by AI, and write a reflexive essay at the end of practice. It is a new kind of practice for our students, as it has been in the curriculum for several years only, but the reflexive feedback given by students proves its benefit to them.

Translation work placement practices are scheduled at the end of the sixth term in the third year and at the beginning of the eighth term in the fourth year of study. Each of them lasts for a month and is 6 credits ECTS. These practices aim to form professional competencies and personal qualities necessary for future professional activity in the chosen sphere. Students can apply their theoretical knowledge and practical skills in real-life working conditions in various types of translation: oral and written, consecutive and simultaneous, and to make sure that they are well-prepared for real-life challenges and can cope with them. The main tasks of translation work placement practice are:

- adaptation of students to real-life working environments to perform professional functions,
- formation of personal and professional qualities and values necessary for performing the duties of a translator/ interpreter,
- deepening theoretical knowledge of English as a foreign language and translation methods and tools,
- honing communication skills in authentic situations,
- developing skills in defining problems in translation activity and choosing strategies for solving them,
- managing time appropriately, making decisions when solving translation problems in limited time,
- developing the habit of the final verification and editing of the text in the target language,
- using modern technologies and CATs in translation,
- > using all kinds and types of dictionaries in professional activity,
- following professional ethics (<u>http://surl.li/qaxrcz</u>).

One student's workload during translation work placement practices is limited to 5 pages A14 (with 44-46 lines on the page) of written translation per week, or about 20 pages for the whole practice period.

There is a definite procedure for arranging all kinds of practices at our university; that is, they are planned, and necessary paperwork is done at the beginning of the studying year to follow all the formalities outlined in the methodological and informational recommendations worked out by the Department of Practice (Filonenko et al, 2023). Regulations for all kinds of practices are outlined there. On the first day of any practice, an introductory conference must be held to familiarise students with the place for practice, the requirements, and the assessment criteria. The assessment of students in introductory and language practices takes place during classroom activities and/or after giving a project presentation. Instructional translation practice and translation work placement practice are assessed a week after students complete them and submit all the required materials on the page of the subsequent course in UNICOM (our university's electronic educational platform). After the completion of instructional translation practice, students are to submit the tasks they have done and reflexive essays with their feedback on the practice. After translation work placement practice, more documents are required, such as a daybook with a description of all the daily tasks, one's reflection, and the review of the student's performance given by the official translator of the company/ organization where the practice took place. They also have to submit a text (about two pages A4) for assessment by the university supervisor and a thesaurus with at least 100 terms so the final mark includes the following aspects and is quite balanced.

N⁰	Tasks to be assessed	points
1	Translation of specialized texts (checked by a translator at the site)	60
2	Thesaurus (checked by a university lecturer)	10
3	Keeping a daybook (checked by a university lecturer)	15
4	Text (checked by a university lecturer)	15
	Totally	100

Table 3. Distribution of points for completed tasks

Introductory, language, and instructional translation practices are usually held at the university premises. Numerous places (companies/ organizations) can provide our students with the possibility of translating work placement practices as our university signs agreements with such organizations. Still, because of the current situation with safety (a full-scale war), our choice is quite limited. We arrange practice for our students at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol University (the Department of Academic Integrity, the Department of Germanic Philology and Methods in Teaching Foreign Languages) and Department of International Cooperation and Investment activity of the Executive Committee of Nizhyn Town's Council.

6. Conclusions

Training a philologist in modern conditions is not a static process, but a dynamic one that necessitates rapid changes in the content, forms, and methods of teaching and learning. This dynamism, driven by a multitude of factors, keeps the field of philology engaging and exciting, and it is what makes it a constantly evolving field.

The preparation process is a collaborative effort, and its success hinges on the combined contributions of various stakeholders: representatives of business and the language industry, researchers, alumni, students, and professors. Each stakeholder's role is crucial, and their efforts are integral to the success of the training.

Students play a pivotal role in the training process. Their involvement in actual practice, the use of practice-oriented tasks, and the coordination of theoretical content and practical problems are all key to forming their generic and subject-specific competencies. This empowerment and responsibility are crucial for their development as future translators.

REFERENCES

- European Language Industry Survey. (2024, March 21). Repository. https://elissurvey.org/repository/
- Hrytsai, A. M. & Kolesnyk, I. V. (2019). Anhliiska mova: navch. posib. Dlia studentiv II kursu dennoho viddilennia fakultetu inozemnykh mov [English: study guide for the 2nd year full-time students of the foreign languages faculty]. NMGSU. [in Ukrainian]
- Kavytska, T. I. (2013). Pryntsypy vidboru ta orhanizatsii tekstovoho materialu dlia navchannia pysmovoho perekladu z ukrainskoi movy na anhliisku. [Principles of selecting texts for teaching translation from Ukrainian into English] Visnyk Natsionalnoi akademii Derzhavnoi prykordonnoi sluzhby Ukrainy: elektronne naukove fakhove vydannia. 3, 47-49, <u>http://surl.li/cfkzvf</u> [in Ukrainian].
- Filonenko O. S., Khomynets T. I. (2023). Organizatsiia praktyky zdobuvachiv vyshchoi osvity v Nizhynskomu derzhavnomu universyteti imeni Mykoly Gogolia: metodychnoinformatsiini materialy [Organization of Student Practical Training at Nizhyn Gogol State University: methodological and information materials]. NMGSU. [in Ukrainian].
- Pylypchuk, M. (2020) Analiz rynku perekladatskykh posluh yak osnova profesiinoi pidhotovky studentiv-perekladchiv v umovakh innovatsiinoi profesiinoi diialnosti [Analysis of the market of translation services as a basis for the professional training of translation students in the conditions of innovative professional activity], Visnyk Natsionalnoho aviatsiinoho universytetu. Seriia: Pedahohika. Psykholohiia, 2(17), 54-61. http://surl.li/tkfmkv [in Ukrainian]
- Taran, O.M. (Ed.) (2016). Vstup do practychnoho kursu anhliiskoi movy: navch. posib. [Introduction to Practical Course of English: study guide]. NMGSU. [in Ukrainian].

- Taran, O.M. (Ed.) (2021). Practychnyi kurs anhliiskoi movy: navchalnyi posibnyk dlia studentiv 1 kursu fakultety inozemnykh mov. Chastyna 1 [Practical Course of English: study guide for the 1st year students of the foreign languages faculty. Part 1]. NMGSU. <u>http://surl.li/saixlj</u> [in Ukrainian].
- Taran, O.M. (Ed.) (2022). Practychnyi kurs anhliiskoi movy: navchalnyi posibnyk dlia studentiv 1 kursu fakultety inozemnykh mov. Chastyna 2 [Practical Course of English: study guide for the 1st year students of the foreign languages faculty. Part 2]. NMGSU. <u>http://surl.li/rignkf</u> [in Ukrainian].
- Tezikova S.V., Khalymon I.I., Mishchenko T.V., Nahach M.V., Andrushchenko L.B., Slyvka V.P., & Miahka D.M. (2024). Osvitnia prohrama "Hermaski movy ta literatury (pereklad vkliuchno) anhliiska ta nimetska movy (2024)" [Study Program "Germanic Languages and Literatures (including translation) English and German Languages (2024)"]. <u>http://surl.li/qaxrcz</u> [in Ukrainian].
- Tezikova, S., Slyvka, V., Nahach, M. & Mishchenko, T. (2023). The bachelor's degree programme in philology and translation: an in-depth analysis of educational services. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), Current studies in foreign language education, pp. 34-58. ISRES Publishing.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Assoc. Prof. Iryna KHALYMON ORCID 0000-0003-4815-751X khalymon.iy@ndu.edu.ua

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

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



Senior Lect. Valentyna SLYVKA

ORCID 0009-0007-7013-0993

slival@ukr.net

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

Long-time experience in teaching Practical English to junior and senior students,

Phonology, and Theory of Translation to students majoring in Philology (including translation) at the first (Bachelor's) level of higher education. The scientific interests lie in the sphere of students assessment and professional training of pre-service translators. A co-author of coursebooks and a reference-book for the students of the 1-st and 2-nd years of studying majoring in English Philology and Secondary Education.



Prof. Svitlana TEZIKOVA

ORCID 0000-0001-7094-7505

tezikova@ndu.edu.ua

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

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

To Cite this Chapter

Khalymon, I., Slyvka, V. & Tezikova, S. (2024). The practice-oriented model of training a foreign language philologist at the Ukrainian University. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 107-128). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 6: COLLABORATIVE ONLINE UNIVERSITY LEARNING: CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES

Olha PONOMARENKO (D) Viktoriia SMELİANSKA (D) Nataliia SHCHERBA (D) Iryna SHKOLA (D)

1. Introduction

Advancements in information and communication technology along with the Covid-19 pandemic have significantly boosted the spread of educational practices that enable students to explore various international dimensions of their chosen courses in a meaningful way and develop essential competencies for the future, including intercultural skills. One of the trends in the 21st century is COIL, which stands for Collaborative Online International Learning. This approach to virtual exchange (VE) owes its appearance to Jon Rubin who has been practicing it since 2002 (Rubin & Guth, 2022). Haug and Jacobs (2023) define virtual exchange as "sustained, technology-enabled, people-to-people" practice involving "activities in which constructive communication and interaction take place between individuals or groups who are geographically separated and/or from different cultural backgrounds, with the support of educators or facilitators" (pp. 144-145). In 2006 a center for this new format of online exchange was established at the State University of New York (https://coil.suny.edu/). Hans de Wit (2013) outlines four main features of COIL: "it is a collaborative exercise of teachers and students; it makes use of online technology and interaction; it has potential international dimensions; and it is integrated into the learning process" (para. 9).

This shared-syllabus teaching approach falls under the social-constructivist educational theory of collaborative learning and is used to enhance internationalization at home (IaH) as it has "a strong focus on the internationalization of the curriculum and of teaching and learning" and is "the non-commercial, cooperative, international dimension of higher education" (de Wit, 2013, para. 4, 5). Beelen and Jones (2015) refer to internalization at home as "...the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (p. 69). This definition emphasizes "international and intercultural learning from diversity, both from diverse cultures in the local student and wider population as well as from working with students from other

nations" (Beelen, 2023, p. 103). Rubin and Guth (2022) define the key attributes of COIL virtual exchange: it is integrated into academic courses or modules that last between five and eight weeks; it is co-developed and co-taught by two professors from two different cultures and/or locations; it centers around collaborative project work involving diverse student cohorts. Additionally, it can link courses across a wide range of disciplines and promotes equity and active participation from all enrolled students. Digitalization has an important role to play in COIL "through interactive synchronous and asynchronous international teaching and learning, as well as support services such as mentoring and counselling" (de Wit et al., 2023, p. 56). Depending so much on information and communication technologies "COIL is not a technology or a technology platform but rather a new teaching and learning paradigm that develops cross-cultural awareness across shared multicultural learning environments" (Rubin, 2017, pp. 33-34).

As the Covid-19 pandemic seems to be slowly diminishing, Europe is now facing a new significant crisis with the Russian invasion of Ukraine. This conflict, in addition to causing immense suffering for the people, is profoundly impacting the higher education sector in Ukraine. The war is prompting a substantial brain drain, affecting both 'local and international students and academics' who are fleeing the region (de Wit et al., 2023, p. 51). The implications extend beyond immediate humanitarian concerns, disrupting academic pursuits, research initiatives, and educational collaborations on a broad scale. Virtual exchange initiatives like COIL and other online formats of collective learning can help mitigate the challenges posed by the war on the higher education sector allowing students not only to continue their education without being physically present at their home institutions but also to experience diverse perspectives and approaches as well as fostering a sense of community and shared purpose.

2. COIL Methodology

Collaborative Online International Learning brings together students and professors from different countries to engage in joint projects and discussions as an integral part of their academic coursework (https://coil.suny.edu). Typically, COIL projects last between five and eight weeks and are divided into four phases: Introduction, Engagement, Collaboration, and Conclusion (COIL Connect). Classes may be entirely online or, more commonly, delivered in a hybrid format that includes traditional in-person sessions at both institutions, with collaborative student work conducted online. The format is called "a COIL-enhanced module" (Rubin, 2017, p. 34).

The Introduction phase, lasting 1-2 weeks, may involve a student needs analysis, an introduction to digital tools and plans, ice-breaking activities, and the sharing of links, templates, and guidelines. The week-long Engagement phase focuses on grouping participants, modeling exchanges across groups, networking activities, reading, annotating, brainstorming, and comparison and analysis exercises. The Collaboration phase, lasting two or three weeks, incorporates structured group activities, problem-solving, and joint project work. During the Conclusion phase (1-2 weeks), students co-present or share their projects, reflect on their collaboration, and receive feedback on their joint work (COIL Connect).

The first COIL cooperation is always between professors whose students are going to participate in the collaborative work on the project. They have to meet to negotiate and design the program logic model. The latter provides a visual representation of how a project's purpose is expected to be achieved. It links outcomes with activities, materials and resources. The Basic Logic Model (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, p.1) can be used to develop COIL projects.



Figure 1. The basic logic model

Collaboration of COIL teaching partners in the design and execution of the project work

is essential as:

COIL is based upon developing team-taught learning environments where teachers from two cultures work together to develop a shared syllabus, emphasizing experiential and collaborative student learning. The courses give new contextual meaning to the ideas and texts they explore, while providing students new venues in which to develop their cross-cultural awareness. (Rubin, 2017, p. 34).

Haub and Jacobs (2023) find it vital "to connect COIL to learning outcomes" (p. 145) and the long-term impact of collaboration on the student, otherwise collaboration itself can become the focus of virtual exchange. In COIL, learning outcomes must be internationalized or interculturalized, shifting the focus from disciplinary content towards the students and the transferable skills they develop while collaborating on the project. Prioritizing cross-field skills will make it easier to manage interdisciplinary/transdisciplinary learning outcomes (Haub & Jacobs, 2023). Rubin (2017) posits that one of the main tasks is to prepare "students for transferable and employability skills ... and COIL projects enable us to better prepare students for their global careers" (p. 35).

Once learning outcomes have been established, COIL teaching partners can work on other

elements of their project logic model, including inputs, activities, and outputs. For inputs, it is essential to consider what resources and materials you need to provide to your students to enable their participation and successful completion of the project. Since the primary mode of communication is through online tools, it is crucial to select the appropriate tools for each specific purpose. Technology should not be used as an end in itself, but as a means to enhance the quality of the project. While choosing digital tools it is advisable to consider factors such as user-friendliness and functionality. Selecting tools that are intuitive and easy to use and that offer the specific features needed for the project, such as collaborative document editing, video conferencing, or project management capabilities can support and enhance the quality of the COIL project.

The selection of materials and technology is crucial and varies based on the planned activities for collaborative learning. COIL teaching partners design tailored ice-breakers, networking opportunities, and teamwork activities to achieve the intended learning outcomes. The project's outputs are collaboratively negotiated, specifying the deliverables of the collaboration, which may include presentations, posters, lists of recommendations, online portfolios or other agreed-upon products. This process ensures that all participants contribute meaningfully and that the final outputs align with the project's objectives.

Another critical element of the project design is incorporating reflection into the learning process (Haub & Jacobs, 2023, p. 52). During the project logic model development stage, COIL teaching partners determine the types of reflection and tools to use to enhance learning from the collaborative experience. Various models can structure reflection on experience, such as the "What? So What? Now What?" framework or more free-form methods. Reflection techniques might include journaling, critical incident analysis, discovery charts, and more (FIU). Integrating these reflective practices is crucial, as they allow participants to deeply analyze their experiences and insights. Ensuring that reflection is a part of the assessment process emphasizes its importance and encourages meaningful engagement with the activities.

Pre- and post-COIL surveys are invaluable tools for both students and educators. The 'pre' surveys prompt students to self-assess their initial levels of cultural competence and establish a baseline for their starting point. The 'post' surveys enable students to reflect on their learning experiences, evaluate the outcomes, and determine their gains in cultural competency as well as other soft skills. These surveys provide critical feedback for teachers, helping them to assess whether the COIL initiative successfully met its intended learning outcomes. Multiple aspects

of collaborative learning can be evaluated through these surveys, including the achievement of learning objectives, group work on the project, the depth and quality of intercultural experiences, and the effectiveness of facilitation. Utilizing these surveys ensures a comprehensive assessment of both student development and the overall impact of the COIL program.

Assessing student work in COIL should be integrated into the planning stage of the collaboration. Allocating time and space for self and peer assessments encourages students to reflect on their contributions, evaluate each other's work, and foster a sense of accountability. Implementing these student-centered assessments necessitates specific criteria, detailed rubrics, and clear guidelines for providing peer feedback. Summative assessments are employed to evaluate the overall learning outcomes, emphasizing both individual and collaborative achievements. These assessments can be cumulative, encompassing various aspects such as collaboration, communication skills, cultural competency, and content quality. Evaluation of student progress and the effectiveness of the COIL program requires thorough and well-structured assessment strategies.

3. COUL Projects in EFL Teacher Training

COIL virtual exchange methodology was used on the Ukrainian level to develop two COUL (Collaborative Online University Learning) projects which were implemented by four professors from three universities in Ukraine in the groups of pre-service TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) student teachers whose English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology Course follows the same Core Curriculum for ELT Methodology at Bachelor's Level (2020).

The first COUL project was developed involving two cohorts of fourth year students from Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University and Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University doing Module 6 Professional Development, Unit 6.2 Planning for Continuing Professional Development (CPD). Sessions on CPD are delivered after 6-week teaching practice and involve students reflecting on their teaching experience. COUL-enriched classes were conducted in a hybrid format including face-to-face sessions at both universities, an interactive online session involving both cohorts of COULearners and individual and collaborative online synchronous and asynchronous student work.

The project logic model was elaborated a month prior to its implementation giving COUL teaching partners enough time to adjust their teaching and scaffolding strategies in accordance

with project requirements. During the Introduction phase project outline, aims and learning outcomes, duration, assessment specifications, criteria and rubric were agreed upon by the instructors to be shared with student teachers during the first synchronous online session. Project participants were also provided with project presentation guidelines meant to direct and support them along the COUL journey.

Having considered the educational needs of students and following the Core Curriculum the teaching team elaborated a series of session plans by building a consensus on activities, teaching strategies and models of interaction to be chosen.

Resources/ Inputs	 project outline, learning outcomes, assessment specifications, criteria and rubrics technology (Padlet, Zoom, Google slides, Jamboard, LearningApps) face-to-face sessions TEFL self-assessment tools tools and resources for CPD presentation guidelines reflection guidelines
Activities	 Week 1. Ice-breaker: Prior to their first online meeting participants present themselves through their vision of teaching English. They choose a metaphor that best explains their beliefs, values and attitudes. Pictures of their chosen metaphors along with their interpretations are shared on Padlet for other students to contemplate and give feedback. Week 2. Students participate in an interactive online workshop sharing insights on professional development based on their teaching experience. Week 3. Students are suggested two self-assessment tools to identify areas (teaching competences) which need improvement and development. Lists of three areas for professional development are shared on Padlet. Students are allocated in teams according to the areas they have identified for professional development. Week 4. Teams work on their collaborative professional development plans and presentations. Week 5. Teams share their CPD presentations on the curation wall for peer revision and feedback. Week 6. Students and teachers reflect on their COUL experience in an agreed format. COUL project work is assessed.
Outputs	 ELT metaphors self-assessment reports collaborative CPD plan presentations individual reflections

Table 1.	COUL	project 1	logic	model
I UNIC II	COCL	project 1	10510	model

Outcomes	 improved reflection skills improved CPD goal setting skills improved communication and teamwork skills improved problem-solving skills improved presentation skills improved digital literacy skills
Impact	 professional empathy and understanding soft skills for success in interconnected and diverse world sustainable improvement through communities of practice enhanced teaching quality

Student engagement started in Week 1 by sharing their understanding of the essence of "teaching English as a foreign language" on the project Padlet board. Using metaphors as an ice-breaker activity created a special rapport of sharing and appreciation, emotional involvement and interaction. Students associated "teaching English" with sculpting, traveling, planting seeds, opening doors, conducting an orchestra and even with opening a treasure chest. The activity played a self-presentation role by means of visual and verbal imagery, which motivated COULearners to react. Being encouraged to leave comments, students wrote, "I see eye to eye with you!", "I think this idea is very interesting and accurate!" etc. The activity prepared students for building individual and collective knowledge in teams.

From Week 2 on both cohorts of students started participating in interactive online and face-toface sessions, first of which was organized as a synchronous Zoom workshop. The students were engaged in a range of activities, like negotiating meanings of key CPD concepts on the basis of suggested materials, acquainting themselves with such interactive digital tools as Jamboard and LearningApps, sharing internship impressions, reflecting on their emotional state etc. At the end of the session, students were informed of the Inputs, Resources, Outputs and Outcomes of the project. The rest of Module content was presented at face-to-face sessions.

To individualize learning, participants were suggested to independently investigate their strengths and weaknesses in EFL teaching by utilizing a tool of their choice: European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages or the European Profiling Grid Self-Assessment Tool - both provided on the shared Padlet board. The same venue was to be used to inform instructors of 3 development areas (individual weaknesses) that students had discovered. Accordingly, 16 partly homogeneous intercohort groups of 2-3 were formed in which at least 1 area was characteristic of everyone.

In contrast to Rubin's 4-phase COIL structure (COIL Connect), grouping was conducted in

Week 3 as the Engagement phase was extended. Still, academic activities connected to the project started in both universities already in Week 2.

During the Collaboration phase (Weeks 4-5) the cross-institutional teams engaged themselves in project work activities meant to contribute to their professional development focusing on individual shortcomings typical for participants of every group. At this stage, students communicated and compared experiences, shared resources and weighed ideas to select the most effective trajectories of professional growth; chose collaboration and presentation strategies, made use of imagery and digital tools, refined their presentations, practiced speeches, and made friends. That is why it was definitely the most creative and interactive stage at which teachers-to-be were given opportunities to develop: goal setting, communication, teamwork, problem-solving, presentation and digital literacy skills - the main project outcomes.

The Conclusion phase (Week 6) included collaborative CPD plan presentations and individual reflections published on the Padlet board. Their analysis enabled the instructors to estimate the effect that the COUL project had on students' professional development and to conclude what key takeaways they had. At Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University and Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University students were suggested to use a 3-step "What? So what? Now what?" framework. The first (What?) question elicited a range of highly enthusiastic judgments. Students shared emotions, "From the very beginning, my participation in the project was marked by a sense of excitement and discovery;" immediate benefits, "Cooperation on this project allowed us to exchange experience and knowledge in the field of English language teaching methods and other interesting fields relevant to our profession;" prospects, "I loved this experience and look forward to its positive impact in my future efforts;" gratitude, "I'm really thankful for such a chance to cooperate with students from another university, especially when they have the same problems as yours." Many participants mentioned collaboration strategies or interaction algorithms that they chose to solve the problem.

The second (So what?) question generated numerous insights and interpretations of the experiences gained by the COULearners, e.g.:

"Our project made us curious about several thought-provoking questions, which led us to do a lot of research and reading."

"We all had different ideas and feelings. Sometimes it was hard, but we learned a lot. Listening and being flexible were important. We realized how valuable it is to understand each other's

perspectives."

"The most valuable learning moment was realizing the power of collaboration in overcoming individual limitations and fostering growth."

"The whole experience was very eye-opening for every participant involved. It showed us how powerful it can be when we work together with people from different backgrounds and viewpoints."

While answering the third (Now what?) question, participants tended to single out the most important assets they had formed and to comment on the lessons they had learnt in the COUL project. Ranging such experiences from the most to the least frequent in reflections, the first positions were confidently taken by: teamwork, problem-solving and collaboration skill development. These were followed by: upgrading communication skills, forming professionally significant qualities (open-mindedness, digital literacy, adaptability and learning to learn), and a possibility to exchange resources and insights.

The second COUL project involved two groups of second year students from Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University and Berdyansk State Pedagogical University studying ELT Methodology Course Module 4 Preparing to teach 2, Unit 3.2 Language Skills – Teaching Speaking at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University and Module 4 Teaching language skills Unit 2 Teaching Speaking at Berdyansk State Pedagogical University. As the participants of the project were Ukrainian universities, no international collaboration was expected.

The first COUL step was between the professors of both universities whose students were to participate in the collaborative work on the project. They created a guiding coalition and a common vision of the project, set common aims and outcomes, negotiated and designed the COUL Unit Outline while planning the project which made it "doable", flexible, and simple.

Week	Assignment: analysis, comparison or reflection	% of the COUL mark	COUL element overview/ description	Tool
Week 1	Zoom meeting: Session 1 of Unit Teaching speaking: Unit introduction. Speaking as a skill. Professors introduce	15	On XX.XX.20XX at XX professors from both universities introduce Unit Teaching speaking and the COUL experience through a synchronous Zoom meeting.	Padlet Zoom Voki/ D-ID, Google forms

	COULaboration Ice-breaker: Students introduce themselves through Voki/ D-ID etc on Padlet in order to know each other		They must share the Padlet. Each student posts an introductory video on Padlet (deadline XX.XX.20XX) and during the following week they must comment on at least one of the videos posted by students from the other university. At the same time, they must answer the questionnaire posted on Padlet on expectations of the Unit and COULaboration (deadline XX.XX.20XX).	
Week 2-3	Sharing resources	10	Students add the resources shared in their methodology classes on Padlet.	Padlet
	Organizing teams		Students will be allocated in teams.	Padlet
	Group collaboration: students create a shared Google slide presentation in teams. They present it in the final Session on Teaching Speaking		Student teams meet regularly during the Module Teaching Speaking in the agreed way (Zoom conference, telegram, etc.).	Google slides
	Collaborative session	5	Professors conduct an interactive session aiming at Digital tools to teach speaking.	Zoom
Week 4	Sharing Collaborative Group Google slide presentation	50 + 10	Students continue working with the same team from the previous activity. Once the presentation is finished, they must share it on Padlet and present their findings in the last session. The final day to post them is the last but one session on Teaching speaking.	Google slides, Padlet
			During the following weekend, each one of the students must look at a minimum of 3 presentations and comment about them on Padlet (deadline	

			XX.XX.20XX).	
Week 5	Padlet reflection: students and professors reflect on the COUL experience.	10	Students and professors post their reflection on the COUL experience on Padlet and do the survey (deadline XX.XX.20XX).	Padlet, Google forms

The integral part of the planning stage was assessment development. Assessment specifications and criteria were announced and discussed with the students in the first synchronous online session. The assessments were cumulative, encompassing collaboration, sharing resources, activities, digital literacy, and the team's project presentation quality. According to the agreed assessment specifications in groups of 3-6 students were to select 4 activities or a sequence of at least four activities targeted at spoken production (e.g. storytelling, story completion) or spoken interaction (e.g. role play, simulation, discussion) from a lesson or lessons they observed or taught during their school experience or university experience; present their activities in a Google Slide presentation, etc. in class; deal with any comments and questions. Each group member played a part in both preparation and presentation. They had 10 minutes for their presentation and discussion.

Implementing the COIL Connect with some adjustments due to the teaching context and participants' location the four phrases were followed. Besides, being a collaborative online Ukrainian university learning, the emphasis was shifted from cross-cultural communication to the transferable skill development and disciplinary content while collaborating on the project. Classes were delivered in a hybrid format that included traditional in-person sessions at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol University and online sessions at Berdyansk State Pedagogical University, with collaborative student work conducted online synchronously and asynchronously.

During the Introduction phase, students engaged in a variety of activities designed to familiarize them with the project and their peers. They completed a needs analysis questionnaire to establish a baseline for their skills and expectations. Using digital tools such as Voki or D-ID, students created introductory videos which they then posted on a shared Padlet board. This activity not only served as an icebreaker but also introduced students to the digital platforms they would be using throughout the project. Students were encouraged to comment on each other's videos, particularly those from partner universities, fostering initial connections across institutions. Additionally, the two groups participated in synchronous sessions that included ice-breakers and interactive activities designed to develop both prepared and spontaneous speaking skills. These activities provided an opportunity for professors and students to get to know each other better, develop team-building skills, and understand how to work together effectively in the given online format. This comprehensive introduction phase helped create a collaborative atmosphere and set the foundation for the project's success.

The Engagement phase focused on team formation and resource sharing. Students were allocated into cross-institutional teams, promoting collaboration beyond their immediate peer groups. They were tasked with sharing resources related to their ELT Methodology classes on the shared Padlet board, creating a collective repository of teaching materials and ideas. Going beyond the provided materials, students conducted their research and drew upon their practical experience gained during their teaching practicum at schools. They shared their favorite effective activities for developing speaking skills, as well as online tools that could be applied in both online and offline classrooms. This approach not only enriched the collective knowledge base but also allowed students to contribute meaningful, tried-and-tested resources based on their real-world teaching experiences. The sharing of these practical, student-vetted activities and tools added significant value to the project, making the resources more relevant and immediately applicable for the participants.

The Collaboration phase formed the core of the COUL project. Students were organized into mixed random groups, bringing together diverse perspectives and experiences. Teams worked together to create shared Google Slide presentations, necessitating regular online meetings via platforms such as Zoom, Telegram, etc. This phase also included an interactive session on digital tools for teaching speaking, providing students with practical knowledge they could incorporate into their projects. Students explored a variety of cutting-edge tools including collaborative boards like Zoom's whiteboard feature, vocabulary games using Genially, storytelling exercises with Google Docs, and innovative AI-generated art platforms such as Lexica, Bing Image Creator, Playground.AI, Ideogram, Night Cafe, and Leonardo.AI for creating engaging speaking prompts.

Moreover, each cross-institutional team was to develop the idea for their team's project presentation from scratch, considering its overall development and structure. They were tasked with formulating tips and advice that would be effective in an EFL classroom, as well as creating activities appropriate to their chosen grade level and student proficiency. This required careful consideration of pedagogical principles and adaptation to specific learning contexts. The teams were supposed to develop their own collaborative strategies, deciding how to divide

tasks, communicate effectively, and meet deadlines. Their final presentations needed to showcase practical activities and incorporate these digital tools, demonstrating their ability to blend traditional teaching methods with modern technology. The collaborative nature of this phase encouraged the development of teamwork skills, digital literacy, and creative problem-solving in the context of language teaching, while also fostering adaptability and decision-making skills crucial for future educators.

In the Conclusion phase, teams presented their final projects, showcasing the culmination of their collaborative efforts. These presentations were conducted synchronously via Zoom, allowing for real-time interaction and immediate feedback. Each team had the opportunity to demonstrate their innovative approaches to teaching speaking, incorporating the digital tools they had explored throughout the project. The presentations not only highlighted the students' creativity and technical skills but also their ability to adapt pedagogical strategies for online environments.

Peer learning was further reinforced as students were required to provide constructive feedback on at least three presentations from other groups. This peer review process was structured using a rubric that encouraged critical analysis of content, delivery, and technological integration. Students were asked to comment on the effectiveness of the proposed speaking activities, the appropriate use of digital tools, and the overall applicability of the presented ideas in real EFL classrooms.

The project concluded with a comprehensive reflective component. Participants shared their COUL experience through detailed Padlet posts, discussing their learning journey, challenges faced, and key takeaways. These reflections included insights on teamwork dynamics, the process of adapting to new technologies, and how the project influenced their perspectives on EFL teaching methodologies.

Additionally, students completed a final survey that gathered quantitative and qualitative data on various aspects of the project. The survey included questions about the effectiveness of the collaborative process, the usefulness of the digital tools explored, the quality of peer interactions, and the overall impact on their professional development as future EFL teachers. This multi-faceted conclusion allowed for a thorough evaluation of the project's success and provided valuable feedback for future iterations of similar collaborative online learning initiatives in EFL teacher training.

4. Findings: Post-project survey analysis

Analysis of the post-project survey revealed several significant achievements and outcomes. In the frameworks of the first project, the prevailing majority of students found COUL framework effective while only 4% thought otherwise. As for the most valuable aspect of the collaborative learning experience, participants highlighted the possibility of sharing (responsibilities, project management, ideas, useful resources), collaboration, communication, consensus building, problem solving skills development, and diversity of perspectives.

All student teachers found the online platform (Padlet) suitable for exchanging information, collaboration, and communication. Additionally, users pointed out its organization and self-monitoring potential as they could access all project materials in one place at any time and trace their progress. Besides, the participants found it user-friendly, enabling them to actively participate and seamlessly engage with the content. They also expressed satisfaction of having the ability to post their ideas and react to publications. At the same time, learners mentioned the necessity of using additional digital tools: social networks (e.g. Telegram), Zoom, Canva to organize independent project work in groups and digital books and webinars - to acquire the Module content.

Having been asked about strategies for handling potential conflicts, most project participants stated that it was trust, tolerance and democracy. One of the students noted, "Our group approached challenges and conflicts by fostering open communication and collaboration. Whenever issues arose, we encouraged all members to voice their concerns and perspectives openly and respectfully".

96% of the project participants agreed that the project helped them develop important skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and teamwork, while 92% were highly satisfied with the distribution of workload and responsibilities among group members.

In the second project, students consistently rated the overall effectiveness of the project highly in enhancing their understanding of teaching speaking. One student noted, "It was a useful experience for me. I had the opportunity to interact with other people and learn something new from them." Another student emphasized, "For me, the most valuable aspect of collaborative learning is the diversity of perspectives and ideas that it brings. This diversity fosters creativity, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills".

Many reported positive experiences in teamwork, noting improved abilities in handling

challenges and conflicts within their groups. As one participant stated, "We had no conflicts, we worked in pairs and it was easy to do it with my partner." Another student shared, "Our group did not have any conflicts during the preparation of the project. We discussed each member's ideas. We used the brainstorming method and the discussion method during the preparation."

The project was also credited with developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills, with most participants rating this aspect 4 or 5 out of 5. One student reflected, "This project taught me how to work in a team."

A key outcome was the marked improvement in students' proficiency with digital tools. Participants became adept at using various platforms for communication and project work. As one student commented, "We used Telegram to communicate, and Canva to create our project." Another noted, "Padlet was very useful for finding information for assignments and knowing who you would be working with."

Students were particularly excited about creating speaking activities using innovative digital tools. They enthusiastically engaged with Genially to design interactive speaking exercises, explored various storytelling apps to enhance narrative skills, and utilized ZOOM collaborative boards for real-time, interactive speaking tasks. Notably, students reported in the survey that they learned how to use these online tools during offline EFL classes, enhancing their ability to integrate technology in traditional classroom settings. One student remarked, "Learning to use these online tools in our regular classes was incredibly helpful. It gave us the confidence to apply them in various teaching contexts." This hands-on experience with cutting-edge educational technology not only enhanced their digital literacy but also expanded their repertoire of engaging teaching strategies for future EFL classrooms, both online and offline.

Practical application of teaching methods was a core benefit of the project. One student remarked, "It was very useful for me, because I developed my speech and also practiced various exercises for future students."

Overall satisfaction levels with the COUL project were high. Most participants expressed greater satisfaction with this learning experience compared to traditional classroom settings and indicated interest in participating in similar projects in the future. As one student put it, "I would like to see more group projects." Another student suggested, "For the future, I would like to have more meetings with students from other universities," indicating enthusiasm for such

collaborative experiences.

The effectiveness of the instructors' support was also noted, with one student saying, "Yes, our instructor was happy to help us and she explained to us what we didn't understand." Another mentioned, "Throughout the project, the instructor provided support and advice as needed."

However, some areas for improvement were also identified. One student suggested, "More participation would be more interesting in my opinion. It would be better if everyone from my team took part in the project with the same level of engagement!" Another recommended, "I would suggest improving teamwork because a lot of people couldn't work effectively in a team."

In conclusion, the COUL project successfully integrated collaborative online learning into EFL teacher training, providing students with valuable experience in using digital tools for language teaching and fostering important skills for their future careers. The project's success in developing collaboration skills, enhancing digital literacy, and providing practical teaching experience underscores the potential of such initiatives in preparing the next generation of EFL teachers for the increasingly digital and interconnected educational landscape. While most participants expressed high satisfaction, as one student succinctly stated, "I liked everything, I didn't want to change anything," the feedback for improvement highlights the need for continued focus on ensuring equal participation and enhancing teamwork skills in future iterations of the project.

5. Problems and Challenges: Adapting COIL to a Single-Country Context

The implementation of Collaborative Online University Learning (COUL) projects in Ukrainian universities, while successful in many aspects, presented unique challenges and problems that deviated from the traditional Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) model. These challenges primarily stemmed from adapting an internationally-focused framework to a single-country context, as well as dealing with the ongoing impacts of war on Ukrainian higher education.

One significant challenge was the lack of cross-cultural experience typically central to COIL projects. As all participating universities were from Ukraine, students missed out on the opportunity to engage with peers from different cultural backgrounds. This absence of international diversity limited the scope of intercultural learning, which is a key component of the COIL framework. To compensate for this, the COUL projects shifted focus towards

developing soft skills, boosting motivation, and fostering creativity among participants. While this adaptation allowed for valuable learning outcomes, it represented a departure from the core intercultural objectives of COIL.

The emergency context, caused by the ongoing war in Ukraine posed significant logistical challenges. For instance, Berdyansk State Pedagogical University had been relocated due to the conflict, necessitating a fully online mode of operation. This situation created difficulties in synchronous meetings, as students from this university were dispersed across different countries and time zones. A certain proportion of students at Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University and Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University who had fled the country with their families at the beginning of the war were supposed to acquire the content digitally while the rest of the participants of the first project studied offline beginning from the second session. Coordinating activities and ensuring equal participation became more complex, requiring additional flexibility and planning from both instructors and students.

The psychological aspect of collaborating with unfamiliar peers presented another challenge. Students had to overcome initial hesitations and build trust with team members they had never met in person. Besides, some of the students noted that building a consensus with their group mates was time consuming, which is explained by the necessity to develop relevant soft skills. This situation required careful facilitation from instructors to create a supportive online environment that encouraged open communication and collaboration.

Despite these challenges, the COUL projects demonstrated adaptability in the face of adversity. By focusing on developing transferable skills, enhancing digital literacy, and promoting creative problem-solving in the context of language teaching, the projects provided valuable learning experiences. The emphasis on the practical application of teaching methods and the use of innovative digital tools helped to maintain student engagement and achieve meaningful outcomes.

A significant and pervasive challenge that underpinned the entire COUL experience was the ongoing stress and anxiety caused by the war in Ukraine. Students and instructors alike were grappling with the psychological toll of conflict, which affected their ability to fully engage in academic pursuits. Many participants were dealing with personal losses, displacement, and constant uncertainty about their safety and future. The COUL projects, however, inadvertently served as a coping mechanism for many participants. Engaging in collaborative learning provided a sense of normalcy and purpose amidst chaos. It offered a productive distraction from

the daily stressors of war and created a supportive community where students could share their experiences and concerns.

Instructors had to be particularly sensitive to the emotional state of their students, often adapting project timelines and expectations to accommodate the psychological challenges faced by participants. This required a delicate balance between maintaining academic rigor and showing empathy for the extraordinary circumstances. The projects also incorporated elements of resilience-building and stress management into their structure. For instance, some of the speaking activities developed by students focused on themes of hope, resilience, and community support, reflecting their own needs and experiences during this difficult time.

Despite these efforts, the impact of war-related stress and anxiety on the learning process remained a significant challenge. Concentration issues, sudden absences due to air raid sirens or power outages, and general emotional fatigue were common occurrences that affected the smooth running of the projects. Nevertheless, many students reported that participating in the COUL projects helped them maintain a sense of progress and connection during a time of great upheaval. The collaborative nature of the work provided mutual support and a shared sense of purpose, which proved valuable in managing stress and anxiety.

In conclusion, while the war presented enormous challenges to the implementation of COUL projects, it also highlighted the resilience and adaptability of both students and educators. The projects not only served their educational purpose but also provided an unexpected source of psychological support and community building during a time of national crisis.

Our work has led us to conclude that, while the absence of international collaboration presented a significant deviation from the COIL model, the COUL projects successfully adapted to create valuable learning experiences within the constraints of a single-country, war-affected context. Future iterations of such projects could potentially explore partnerships with universities from other countries to reintroduce the cross-cultural element, while maintaining the successful aspects of skill development and digital innovation achieved in these initial COUL experiences.

REFERENCES

- Beelen, J. (2023). Internationalisation at home and virtual exchange: Addressing old and erroneous approaches. In F. Hunter, R. Ammigan, H. de Wit, J. Gregersen-Hermans, E. Jones, & A.C. Murphy (Eds.), *Internationalisation in higher education: Responding to new opportunities and challenges. Ten years of research by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)* (pp. 101-112). EDUCatt.
- Beelen, J., & Jones, E. (2015). Redefining Internationalization at Home. In A. Curaj, L. Matei,
 R. Pricopie, J. Salmi, & P. Scott (Eds.), *The European higher education area: between critical reflections and future policies* (pp. 59-72). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-20877-0_5
- Bevz, O., Gembaruk, A., Honcharova, O., Zabolotna, O., Zmiievska, O., Kalinina, L., Kamynin, I., Konovalenko, T., Romanyshyn, I., Samoilukevych, I., Taran, O., Tuchyna, N. & Khudyk, K. (2020). Typova prohrama "Metodyka navchannia anhliiskoii movy" Osvitnii stupin bakalavra. [Core Curriculum: English Language Teaching Methodology. Bachelor's Level]. NAIR. 126 p. (in Ukrainian)
- COIL
 Connect.
 (n.d.).
 Course
 structure.
 COIL
 Connect.

 https://www.coilconnect.org/course_structure
- de Wit, H. (2013, June 1). COIL Virtual mobility without commercialization. *University World News*.

https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20130528145914517

- de Wit, H., Hunter, F., Egron-Polak, E., Howard, L., & Coelen, R. (2023). Internationalisation of higher education shifts in response to new opportunities and challenges. In F. Hunter, R. Ammigan, H. de Wit, J. Gregersen-Hermans, E. Jones, & A.C. Murphy (Eds.), *Internationalisation in higher education: Responding to new opportunities and challenges. Ten years of research by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)* (pp. 43-60). EDUCatt.
- Florida International University. (n.d.). *Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) reflection ideas*. <u>https://goglobal.fiu.edu/_assets/docs/coil-reflection-ideas.pdf</u>
- Haug, E., & Jacobs, L. (2023). The design of collaborative online internationalised learning (COIL). In F. Hunter, R. Ammigan, H. de Wit, J. Gregersen-Hermans, E. Jones, & A.C. Murphy (Eds.), *Internationalisation in higher education: Responding to new opportunities and challenges. Ten years of research by the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI)* (pp. 143-145). EDUCatt.
- Rubin, J. (2017). Embedding collaborative online international learning (COIL) at higher education institutions. *Internationalisation of Higher Education*, *2*, 27-44.
- Rubin, J., & Guth, S. (Eds.). (2022). The Guide to COIL Virtual Exchange: Implementing,
 Growing, and Sustaining Collaborative Online International Learning (1st ed.).
 Routledge. <u>https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003447832</u>
- State University of New York. (n.d.). *COIL Collaborative Online International Learning*. State University of New York. <u>https://coil.suny.edu/</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Assoc. Prof. Olha PONOMARENKO

ORCID: 0000-0003-3874-7460

ponomarenko.ov@ndu.edu.ua

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

The author holds a PhD in Education. Currently she is a MA Secondary Education: English Language and Literature Study Programme director at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University, Ukraine. Her areas of interest are EFL teacher training, teacher leadership and CPD. Participant of a number of projects. For example, in 2016-2019 she participated in the New Generation School Teacher project launched by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council and developed demo materials for the new methodology course. Currently, she is involved in the Exploring and Enacting Holistic Language Pedagogies project (Childhood Education International).



Assoc. Prof. Viktoriia SMELİANSKA

ORCID: 0000-0002-3421-7473

smelianska.victoria@ndu.edu.ua

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

The author holds a PhD in Education. Currently she is a BA TESOL Programme Director at Nizhyn Mykola Gogol State University. Her research interests include ELT Methodology for pre-service EFL teachers, SEL, curriculum design, distance/ blended learning via LMS. She published a number of research articles on online learning activities and tools, teaching grammar and EFL skills to pre-service EFL teachers. Participant of a number of projects. For example, the New Generation School Teacher project launched by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine and British Council (2016-2019), Exchange program Professional Development for Instructors of Pre-Service EFL Teachers (2023, New York, USA, Childhood Education International).



Prof. Nataliia SHCHERBA

ORCID:0000-0002-5467-4292

scherbanatasha@gmail.com

Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University, Department of Intercultural Communication and Foreign Language Education

The author holds an Education Doctor Degree. Currently she is a MA Secondary Education: English and German Languages and Foreign Literature Study Programme director at Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University. Her research interests include: EFL teacher training methodology, CPD, digitalization, catering for SEND, and UDL. She has published numerous articles in the frameworks of the areas mentioned and participated in a number of projects (e.g. the New Generation School Teacher). Currently, she is a member of the DigiFLEd Erasmus+ CBHE project.



Assoc. Prof. Iryna SHKOLA

ORCID: 0000-0002-1455-6371

<u>iv_shkola@bdpu.org.ua</u>

Berdyansk State Pedagogical University, Associate professor at the Department of Foreign Languages and Teaching Methods.

The author holds a PhD in Philology, but her research interests are including digital tools in teaching English, SEL in EFL classes, teaching English as a foreign language, and comparative literature. Participant of a number of projects. For example, Ukraine Teaching Excellence Programme 2021-2022 (British Council, Institute of Higher Education NAES of Ukraine), Exchange program Professional Development for Instructors of Pre-Service EFL Teachers (2023, New York, USA, Childhood Education International). Since 2018 she has been working as an Access teacher within Access Microscholarship Program.

To Cite this Chapter

Ponomarenko, O., Smelianska, V., Shcherba, N. & Shkola, I. (2024). Collaborative online university learning: Challenges and perspectives. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 129-150). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 7: FOREIGN/SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER IDENTITY IN THE DIGITAL TRANSFORMATIONAL MODES OF INSTRUCTION

Ayfer SU-BERGİL 匝

1. Introduction

The digital transformation of education is accelerating at present. The swift progress of technology has brought about significant transformations in the field of education, resulting in the restructuring of pedagogical approaches. Teaching languages is one of the fields most impacted by these developments. Language instructors must keep their conventional teaching identities while developing digital abilities in this new digital era.

Language teachers foster communication skills and cultural awareness in addition to teaching grammar and vocabulary. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), the traditional definition of a language teacher's responsibility is to assist learners in developing their language abilities and to teach them proper pronunciation and grammar. But as the world has gone digital, this role has expanded to include teaching children digital literacy skills and becoming proficient with digital technologies (Kessler, 2018).

Digital transformation involves the integration of educational technologies and the use of digital tools in teaching processes. The widespread use of the internet, mobile applications, virtual classrooms and online education platforms has brought revolutionary innovations to language teaching. In this context, language teachers must learn how to use technology effectively and integrate these skills into their teaching processes (Chapelle, 2003). One of the most obvious effects of digital transformation is that it can provide learners with learning opportunities outside the classroom. For example, online language learning platforms and applications provide students with 24/7 access (Godwin-Jones, 2014).

In addition to conventional teaching techniques, language education in the digital era has embraced novel teaching methodologies. Language instruction commonly makes use of blended learning, which is described as the blending of online and in-person instruction (Graham, 2006). This approach gives students freedom and enhances the participatory nature of the learning experience. Additionally, cutting-edge techniques like simulations and gamebased learning are applied in language instruction to boost motivation and improve language proficiency in a more enjoyable way (Reinders & Wattana, 2014).

Language teachers must adapt to the changes brought about by digital transformation and adopt teaching styles that are appropriate for the requirements of this new era. The integration of technology into education requires teachers to increase their digital competencies and use innovative methods in teaching processes. In this context, language teachers' adaptation to digital transformation while preserving their teacher identities will enrich students' language learning experiences and contribute to them becoming more effective individuals in the digital world.

2. The Role and Identity of the Language Teacher

The role and identity of foreign language teachers are of great importance in the field of education. These teachers should be seen not only as people who transfer language knowledge and skills but also as guides who develop students' cultural understanding and provide them with a sense of global citizenship. These roles and identities of teachers have a profound effect on the educational process and students' language learning experiences.

First of all, the most obvious role of foreign language teachers is to teach students the four basic skills of language - listening, speaking, reading and writing (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). However, this role is not limited to teaching grammar rules only. Teachers also integrate cultural content into their lessons to help students understand the cultural context of the language (Kramsch, 1993). This allows students to see language not only as a technical skill but also as a social and cultural tool.

The identities of foreign language teachers are often shaped by their educational philosophies, personal experiences, and professional development. Norton (2000) states that teacher identity is a continuous negotiation process regarding who teachers are and how they see themselves. This identity directly affects teachers' behavior in and out of the classroom, their attitudes toward students, and their teaching methods. How teachers define themselves is also reflected in the relationships they establish with students and their motivation to learn.

In addition, the identities of foreign language teachers are closely related to their professional development. Teachers' participation in continuous professional development programs contributes to both the updating of their pedagogical knowledge and the strengthening of their teaching identities (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Foreign language teachers, in particular, have

to constantly renew themselves in order to follow the ever-changing nature of language and to provide their students with the most up-to-date information.

The role and identity of foreign language teachers also include social and emotional dimensions. Teachers help students cope with the difficulties they encounter in the language learning process and provide them with motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). This shows that teachers are not only knowledge transmitters but also supportive guides. This aspect of teachers helps students overcome the emotional and psychological barriers they encounter in the language learning process.

The pandemic process has brought about profound changes in the education system, with a particular emphasis on the function and identity of foreign language teachers. Teachers have had to quickly adjust to online learning environments since the epidemic started, which has changed their pedagogical identities and methods of instruction (Jandrić et al., 2022).

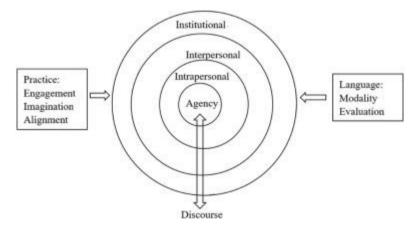
First of all, foreign language teachers' skills in using technology have increased significantly. Teachers who have had to move away from the traditional classroom environment and use digital tools effectively have learned to use platforms such as Zoom, Google Classroom and various language learning applications or management systems. This change has caused teachers to gain a new identity by increasing their digital literacy (Phoon et al., 2021). In addition to technological adaptation, teachers have also had to adapt their pedagogical strategies. For example, they have started to use more visual and interactive materials to encourage online interaction (Wahid et al., 2020).

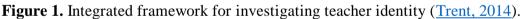
The pandemic has also transformed teachers' relationships with students. With the decrease in face-to-face interaction, teachers have developed new methods to increase student engagement and motivation. More personal feedback and one-on-one online meetings have led to greater student participation in the language learning process (Bidari, 2021). This has led teachers to become mentors who not only impart knowledge but also closely monitor students' learning processes.

On the other hand, there have been significant changes in teachers' identities. Teachers, who were traditionally the authority figures in the classroom, had to take on a more accessible and supportive role in the online environment. This situation required more flexibility and understanding in teacher-student relationships (Ally, 2019). This new identity of teachers has also highlighted their emotional intelligence and empathy.

Furthermore, there have been modifications to the professional development procedures for foreign language teachers. Many teachers have enhanced their professional abilities and expertise by attending numerous trainings on digital pedagogical technologies and online education throughout the pandemic (Leary et al., 2020). In order to keep up with the ever-changing nature of education, teachers must be lifelong learners.

In light of the multiple, dynamic, and contradictory nature of language teacher identity (Varghese et al., 2005), Zhang and Hwang (2023) declare that the following image employs a post-structural viewpoint. This viewpoint sees language teacher identity as built and reconstructed through practice and discourse within a specific context. In intrapersonal, interpersonal, and institutional contexts, this figure illustrates how language teachers' identities were reconstructed through synchronous online education during the outbreak from the perspectives of practice, discourse, and agency. Trent's (2014) integrated structure serves as its foundation.





As a result, the role and identity of foreign language teachers go far beyond language teaching. In addition to developing students' language skills, they also shape their cultural understanding and global perspectives. Teachers' own identities and professional development directly affect their teaching approaches and the relationships they establish with students. Therefore, the roles and identities of foreign language teachers are of critical importance for the success of language education. When the pandemic period is taken into account, it is seen that it has led to radical changes in the role and identity of foreign language teachers. Technological adaptation, reshaping of pedagogical strategies and transformation in teacher-student relationships have caused significant changes in both the professional and personal identities of teachers. This process has highlighted teachers' skills such as flexibility, innovation and emotional intelligence, making them dynamic and adaptable individuals of the modern educational environment (Meishar-Tal et al., 2023). These changes have offered important implications for future educational practices and teacher development.

3. The Digital Transformation in Education

Digital transformation in education causes radical changes in learning and teaching approaches by integrating information technologies into educational processes. This transformation increases accessibility in education, offers individualized learning opportunities and encourages the evolution of pedagogical methods (Selwyn, 2021).

Digital transformation refers to the integration of technological innovations into education and this process occurs when educational institutions adopt digital tools and platforms (Aoun, 2017). This transformation includes elements such as the digitization of teaching materials, the use of online learning platforms and the conduct of big data analyses in education (Anderson, 2008).

Digital transformation in education offers significant advantages in terms of access to educational resources. Thanks to the internet and digital tools, geographical barriers are eliminated and learning materials are becoming accessible worldwide. For example, online courses and open educational resources play a critical role in providing equal opportunities in education (Siemens, 2005).

Digital transformation increases individualized learning opportunities. Customized learning experiences can be offered according to students' learning speed, interests and needs. This is especially possible with adaptive learning technologies and artificial intelligence-supported educational tools (Johnson et al., 2016). These tools analyze students' performance data and offer them the most appropriate learning materials and activities.

Digital transformation also enables pedagogical methods and teaching strategies to evolve. Traditional teaching methods are giving way to more interactive and student-centered approaches. For example, the flipped classroom model allows students to learn course materials online in advance and engage in more practice and discussion in class (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). This model increases student participation and learning effectiveness.

However, there are also various difficulties and obstacles in the digital transformation process. Inequalities in access to technology can deepen the digital divide. In addition, teachers' inadequate digital skills can prevent the effective use of digital tools (Kozma & Voogt, 2003). Therefore, in order for digital transformation in education to be successful, continuous training programs and technological infrastructure for teachers must be developed.

Digital transformation in education will become even more important in the future. Especially during the pandemic, online and distance education applications have gained great momentum, and the potential of digital education has become even more evident (Hodges et al., 2020). In the future, advanced technologies such as artificial intelligence, virtual reality and augmented reality are expected to be used more widely in education.

Thus, digital transformation in education is radically changing teaching and learning processes and creating a more accessible, individualized and interactive environment in education. However, for this transformation to be successful, technological infrastructure must be developed, teachers' digital skills must be increased, and the digital gap must be closed.

4. The Digital Transformation in English Language Teaching and Learning

Today, digital technologies are bringing about radical changes in the field of education. English language learning and teaching has also been greatly affected by this digital transformation. Digital tools and platforms offer new methods and opportunities for language teaching and learning, while also expanding access to language education. In this chapter, the effects, advantages, challenges and potential future developments of digital transformation on English language learning and teaching will be summarized.

Digital transformation is supported by various tools and platforms that make English language learning and teaching more accessible and effective. For example, language learning applications (Duolingo, Babbel, Memrise) allow students to learn at their own pace. These applications increase student motivation and make the learning process more fun by using gamification techniques (Li & Lan, 2022). In addition, online course platforms (Coursera, edX) and digital textbooks offer students a rich learning experience and provide teachers with a wide range of resources.

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) democratize English language learning and teaching by reaching a wide audience worldwide. MOOCs allow students to progress at their own pace and are supported by a variety of multimedia content. Such courses have great potential to provide quality language education, especially to students in developing countries (Barger, 2020). Virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) technologies make English language learning more interactive and realistic. Students can practice language in virtual environments using VR glasses and AR applications. Such technologies offer great advantages, especially in terms of speaking practice and developing cultural understanding (Wang & Vásquez, 2012).

Digital resources offer a number of advantages in English language learning. First of all, these resources provide flexibility; students can study whenever and wherever they want. In addition, digital resources offer personalized learning experiences. Students can choose materials that suit their needs and learning styles (Pegrum et al., 2018). In addition, digital platforms allow students to monitor their progress and receive feedback.

Digital transformation also redefines the role of teachers. Teachers must integrate digital tools and resources beyond traditional lecture methods. This requires teachers to develop digital literacy skills (Schrum et al., 2008). In addition, monitoring student performance and providing personalized feedback through digital platforms allows teachers to guide more effectively.

Despite the advantages of digital transformation, there are also some challenges and obstacles. First, the digital divide problem can lead to inequalities in access to technology. Especially in low-income areas, students and schools may have difficulty accessing digital tools and the internet (Warschauer, 2004). In addition, excessive use of digital resources can lead to a decrease in face-to-face interaction and socialization. Therefore, it is important to use digital and traditional teaching methods in a balanced way.

Digital transformation in English language learning and teaching will continue in the future and will be supported by more advanced technologies. Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning have the potential to provide students with more personalized and adaptive learning experiences (Lesia Viktorivna et al., 2022). AI-based language teaching applications can detect students' weaknesses, provide targeted feedback, and optimize the language learning process.

Digital transformation has brought about major changes in English language learning and teaching. Digital tools, platforms and technologies have made language learning more accessible, interactive and personalized. Teachers can provide their students with a richer learning experience by effectively using digital resources. However, challenges such as the digital divide and the decrease in face-to-face interaction should also be considered. In the future, artificial intelligence and other advanced technologies will continue this transformation by providing even more innovative solutions in English language learning and teaching.

5. The Platforms of Instruction in English Language Teaching

English as a foreign language (EFL) learning has become increasingly important in the globalizing world. English has become a widely used language in international communication, business, academic studies and cultural interactions. Therefore, improving individuals' English language skills has become a critical necessity to increase career opportunities and to be able to communicate effectively with various communities around the world.

Various teaching modes and digital platforms used in language learning allow both learners and teachers to have a more effective and efficient learning experience. In addition to traditional classroom-based teaching, innovative methods such as online courses, mobile applications, language learning software and hybrid learning models offer a wide range in language education. These technological developments provide learners with flexibility, accessibility and personalized learning opportunities, while also providing teachers with the opportunity to develop more dynamic and interactive teaching methods.

A detailed examination of the main teaching modes used for learning and teaching English as a foreign language platform and the advantages, disadvantages and application methods of each mode have become a common need for teachers and teacher educators. In addition, it is very important for stakeholders to evaluate the role of digital platforms in language teaching, their impact on student success and potential future developments. Therefore, the teaching modes that can be used for EFL students, teachers and teacher educators are given below as a guide and in the form of brief explanations, and it is aimed to contribute to the identity formation processes of English as a foreign language teacher in order to determine and implement the most effective methods in language education.

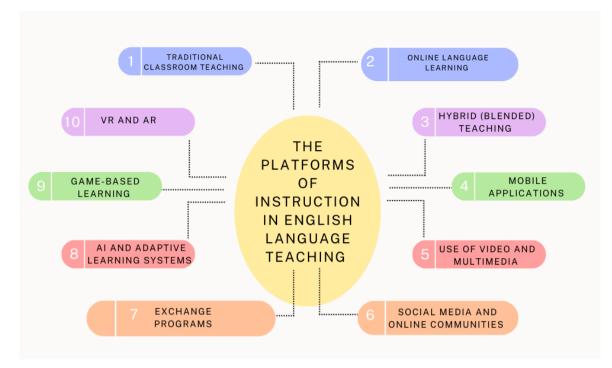


Figure 2. The platforms of instruction in English language teaching

Traditional classroom teaching is a teaching method that involves face-to-face interaction and is usually directed by a teacher. This mode provides direct communication between the teacher and students, and the feedback process is fast (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In-class activities, group work and individual presentations make language learning more interactive.

As a result of the digital age, *online language learning platforms* have gained great popularity. Platforms such as Duolingo, Rosetta Stone and Babbel offer flexible and personalized learning experiences where students can progress at their own pace. These platforms make language learning fun with features such as gamification, interactive exercises and instant feedback (Godwin-Jones, 2014).

Hybrid teaching combines traditional classroom teaching with online learning modes. This approach allows students to benefit from both face-to-face interaction and online resources. Hybrid teaching allows students to use different methods to improve their language skills and provides flexibility (Graham, 2006).

Mobile applications offer portable solutions that make language learning possible anytime, anywhere. Applications such as Memrise, Anki, and HelloTalk stand out with their user-friendly interfaces and content that targets various language skills. Mobile applications facilitate language learning with short-term and frequently repeated learning sessions (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008).

Video platforms such as YouTube, Netflix, and TED Talks offer a rich resource for English language learners. These platforms offer real-life conversations, subtitles, and the opportunity to recognize various accents. Videos help students improve their listening and comprehension skills (Berk, 2009).

Social media platforms and online language learning communities provide an interactive and supportive environment for language learners. Platforms such as Facebook groups, Reddit forums, and Discord channels allow students to communicate with other language learners and native speakers. Such interactions provide opportunities for language practice and cultural awareness (Blattner & Fiori, 2009).

Language exchange programs and tandem learning provide language learners with direct contact with native speakers. These programs provide students with the opportunity to practice their language skills in the real world and receive immediate feedback. Language exchange fosters cultural exchange and strengthens the sociocultural aspects of language learning (O'Rourke, 2007).

Artificial intelligence (AI) and adaptive learning systems provide personalized language learning experiences. These systems provide content and feedback based on students' individual learning needs. For example, AI-based platforms analyze the student's language level, offer exercises of appropriate difficulty, and continuously monitor progress (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001).

Game-based learning is a teaching mode that makes language learning fun and motivating. Language learning games offer a variety of interactive activities to develop vocabulary, grammar, and speaking skills. Game-based learning helps students consolidate their language skills and increase motivation (Gee, 2003).

Virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) offer innovative approaches to language learning. While VR allows students to practice their language skills in virtual environments, AR makes learning more interactive by combining the real world with digital information. These technologies allow language learners to immerse themselves in language environments that they will use in real life (Liu et al., 2018).

English as a foreign language learning and teaching platforms are enriched with various teaching modes. Offered in a wide range from traditional classroom methods to digital solutions, these modes offer flexible and effective learning experiences that suit the needs of

students and teachers. These platforms can include many different elements such as audio and video lessons, interactive exercises, game-based learning tools and virtual reality applications.

The continuous development of technology also ensures that language learning and teaching methods are constantly renewed. In particular, advanced technologies such as artificial intelligence and machine learning provide personalized learning experiences, allowing students to develop their language skills more quickly and effectively. Thanks to online platforms, mobile applications and distance education programs, the language learning process has become independent of geographical restrictions and has reached a wider audience.

Following the developments in this field is important for the future of language learning. Teachers' continuous learning of new technologies and teaching strategies helps students develop their language skills in the best way possible. In addition, the integration of digital tools can increase students' motivation and greater engagement in the learning process. The importance of innovation in education not only increases the efficiency of language learning but also promotes cultural and social interaction.

6. The Process of Digital Transformation in ELT(E)

The rapid development of technology has led to radical changes in the education sector and has made the digital transformation process mandatory for foreign language teachers. This transformation has brought innovations in many areas, from teaching methods to the role of teachers. Digital tools and platforms have enabled the development of more effective methods in language teaching and have also required teachers' digital skills to increase significantly (Prensky, 2009). This part examines the digital transformation processes of foreign language teachers and examines the effects of these processes on teachers' professional development and teaching quality.

Digital transformation has reshaped the educational approach of foreign language teachers. Traditional classroom teaching methods have given way to interactive learning processes using digital tools and platforms (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). The rapid transition to the distance education system, especially during the pandemic, has further increased the importance of having digital skills. Teachers' ability to use digital tools effectively has become critical in supporting students' language learning processes.

Teachers have begun to gain competence in issues such as digital content production, online course management, and the creation of virtual classroom environments (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-

Leftwich, 2010). The development of these skills has also contributed to the professional development of teachers and made them suitable for the requirements of the age. However, in cases where the level of digital literacy is low, the time it takes for teachers to adapt to these processes may be longer and may lead to a loss of motivation (Selwyn, 2021).

Digital tools have enabled the adoption of a student-centered approach in foreign language teaching. The provision of content appropriate to the individual needs of students contributes to a more efficient language learning process (Chapelle, 2009). For example, language learning applications, gamification methods, and online language platforms help students develop their language skills while also increasing their motivation (Godwin-Jones, 2014). Teachers' ability to use these tools effectively also depends on their attitudes towards technology. Some teachers may be more willing and innovative in integrating technology into educational processes (Rogers et al., 2014). However, if technology is not used correctly, the teaching process may be negatively affected, and students' learning performance may decrease (Bebell & O'Dwyer, 2010).

Digital transformation has also redefined the roles of teachers in the classroom. While the traditional teacher role is defined as a figure who transfers information, in the digital age this role has evolved into a role that guides, directs learning processes and develops students' independent learning skills (Collins & Halverson, 2018). This change has required teachers to reconsider their pedagogical approaches.

The integration of digital tools into teaching processes has required teachers to restructure their lesson plans and prepare materials that are suitable for students' individual learning styles (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). This process requires teachers to exhibit more flexibility and creativity. In addition, digital tools have made it necessary for teachers to constantly keep their professional development up-to-date (Tondeur et al., 2012).

The digital transformation process of foreign language teachers has significantly affected their professional development and the quality of their education. The widespread use of digital tools in language teaching has enabled the adoption of a student-centered approach and redefined the role of teachers. However, the successful management of this process is possible by increasing teachers' digital literacy levels and developing a positive attitude towards technology. It is anticipated that in the future, digital transformation will take more place in foreign language teaching and teachers will adapt better to this process.

7. The Strategies for Digital Identity Creation and Transformation Processes

Today, the rapid increase in digitalization has led to radical changes in the field of education. Foreign language teachers, in particular, have been faced with the necessity of creating and transforming their digital identities in order to be able to be present on digital platforms and to communicate more effectively with their students through these platforms. This process does not consist of just opening a social media account; on the contrary, it has a planned and sustainable structure that requires a strategic approach.

Creating a digital identity is the process of representing a teacher's professional presence on online platforms. The first step to consider in this process is to create a personal brand. A personal brand determines how a teacher is perceived online, and a positive perception helps them to be seen as a reliable source by both students and colleagues (Johnson, 2017). In order to create a personal brand, teachers should choose a specific theme or area of expertise and produce content in this area. For example, a teacher who specializes in innovative methods in language teaching can provide valuable information to their followers by sharing developments and their own experiences in this field.

After the creation of a digital identity, it needs to be constantly updated and developed. Professional development is one of the key components of this process (Oliveira & De Souza, 2022). In order to keep up with the rapid changes in the digital world, teachers need to be open to new technologies and pedagogical approaches and constantly improve themselves in these areas. Furthermore, foreign language teachers can contribute to students' language learning processes by effectively using digital game-based learning tools or social media platforms.

In addition, networking and collaboration strategies are also important in the process of transforming a digital identity. Sharing information, creating professional networks, and developing joint projects on digital platforms by collaborating with other teachers and experts in the field can strengthen teachers' digital identities (Fischer et al., 2020). Such collaborations allow teachers to gain different perspectives and present their digital assets in a richer way.

Ethical and security issues should not be overlooked in the processes of creating and transforming a digital identity. Teachers should ensure that the information they share in online environments is accurate and take care to protect the privacy of their students. In addition, they should manage their personal information securely by being aware of their digital footprint and be protected against possible cyber threats (Gu & Lai, 2019).

The digital identity creation and transformation processes of foreign language teachers have become one of the basic requirements for being an effective teacher in the digital age. In this process, it is necessary to create a personal brand, continue professional development, adopt networking and collaboration strategies, and pay attention to ethical and security issues. In this way, teachers can create a strong digital presence both professionally and pedagogically.

8. The Importance and Necessity of Digital Identity Transformation for English Language Teacher Educators

In the rapidly evolving digital landscape of the 21st century, the roles and responsibilities of English teacher educators have expanded significantly. The traditional methods of teacher education, which primarily focused on face-to-face interactions and print-based resources, are being challenged by the integration of digital technologies in education. This shift necessitates the development and transformation of digital identities among English teacher educators to remain relevant and effective in their roles. Thus, discussing the importance and necessity of digital identity transformation for English language teacher educators, considering the changing educational environment, the needs of the learners, and the professional demands placed on educators, attracts vital importance.

The global education landscape is undergoing a significant transformation due to the advent of digital technologies. Online learning platforms, virtual classrooms, and digital resources have become integral components of modern education (Phoon et al., 2021). For English teacher educators, this means that traditional pedagogical methods need to be supplemented, or even replaced, by digital tools and resources that facilitate remote learning and online interactions (Mirra, 2019). This shift requires educators to not only be proficient in the use of these technologies but also to develop a digital identity that reflects their adaptability and competence in the digital realm.

Digital identity, in this context, refers to the way educators present themselves and interact in online spaces. It encompasses their online presence, the tools they use, the digital resources they create or curate, and their ability to engage with learners in virtual environments (Selwyn, 2014). The transformation of digital identity is essential for English teacher educators because it directly impacts their ability to connect with students, deliver content effectively, and maintain professional credibility in an increasingly digital world.

Today's learners are digital natives who have grown up with technology at their fingertips. They are accustomed to accessing information online, communicating through social media, and

learning via digital platforms (Prensky, 2009). English teacher educators must recognize that these learners have different expectations and learning styles compared to previous generations. To meet these needs, educators must transform their digital identities to align with the preferences and behaviors of modern learners.

One of the key aspects of this transformation is the ability to create and deliver digital content that is engaging, interactive, and accessible. Digital tools such as video tutorials, interactive quizzes, and online discussion forums can enhance the learning experience and cater to the diverse needs of learners (Dabbagh & Kitsantas, 2012). Moreover, English teacher educators must be proficient in using social media and other online platforms to communicate with students, provide feedback, and create a sense of community in the virtual classroom (Greenhow & Lewin, 2019). By doing so, they not only enhance the learning experience but also demonstrate their digital literacy and adaptability.

The transformation of digital identity is not a one-time event but an ongoing process that requires continuous professional development and lifelong learning. As digital technologies continue to evolve, English teacher educators must stay updated with the latest trends, tools, and pedagogical approaches. This requires a commitment to professional development through online courses, webinars, workshops, and other learning opportunities that focus on digital literacy and pedagogy (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

Furthermore, English teacher educators must be reflective practitioners who critically evaluate their digital identity and its impact on their teaching practice. This involves regularly assessing their online presence, the effectiveness of the digital tools they use, and their ability to engage with learners in virtual environments. By doing so, they can identify areas for improvement and make the necessary adjustments to ensure that their digital identity remains relevant and effective in the context of modern education.

While the transformation of digital identity is essential for English teacher educators, it is not without challenges. One of the main challenges is the digital divide, which refers to the gap between individuals who have access to digital technologies and those who do not (Selwyn, 2004). This divide can affect both educators and learners, particularly in regions with limited access to technology and internet connectivity. English teacher educators must be aware of these disparities and take steps to ensure that their digital transformation does not exclude or disadvantage certain groups of learners.

Another challenge is the issue of digital privacy and security. As educators increase their online presence and engage with learners in virtual spaces, they must be vigilant about protecting their personal information and maintaining professional boundaries (Livingstone et al., 2012). This includes understanding the risks associated with digital technologies, such as data breaches and cyberbullying, and taking appropriate measures to mitigate these risks.

Finally, the transformation of digital identity requires a shift in mindset among English teacher educators. Some educators may be resistant to change or lack confidence in their digital skills. It is crucial to provide support and encouragement to these educators, helping them to develop their digital competencies and embrace the opportunities that digital technologies offer for teaching and learning.

In conclusion, the transformation of digital identity is a critical process for English language teacher educators in the 21st century. As the educational landscape continues to evolve, educators must adapt to the changing needs of learners and the demands of the digital age. This requires a commitment to ongoing professional development, a willingness to embrace new technologies, and a reflective approach to teaching practice. By transforming their digital identities, English language teacher educators can enhance their effectiveness, maintain professional credibility, and contribute to the success of their learners in the digital era.

9. The Competencies of English Language Teachers and Teacher Educators with Digital Identity Transformation

Digitalization has led to radical changes in the field of education and has made it necessary for teachers to redefine their digital identities. English teachers and the teacher educators who train these teachers must have certain competencies in order to be effective and competent in the digital transformation process.

One of the most critical components in digital identity transformation is the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) competency. This competency requires teachers to be both proficient in technology and to know how to use this technology for pedagogical purposes (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). It is important, especially for English teachers, to have a deep knowledge of how to integrate digital tools into language teaching. For example, digital storytelling, online language learning platforms, and mobile applications can be effective in improving students' language skills (Moradi & Chen, 2019).

Digital transformation requires teachers to develop not only their skills in using technology but also their digital literacy. Digital literacy includes the ability to critically evaluate, create, and share digital content (Belshaw, 2012). English teachers should be careful when choosing digital resources to improve students' digital literacy and use these resources in line with pedagogical goals (Bilki et al., 2023).

In the process of digital identity transformation, it is critical for English teachers to have effective communication and interaction skills in online environments. Teachers should have strong communication skills to increase student motivation, provide meaningful feedback, and encourage student participation in online courses (Hampel, 2015). In this context, English teachers can interact with students by effectively using tools such as online forums, discussion boards, and social media (Arnold & Ducate, 2011).

While digital transformation makes it easier for English teachers to address a global audience, it also increases the need for cultural awareness and sensitivity. Teachers should observe cultural sensitivity when interacting with students from different cultures in the digital environment and reflect this awareness in their course content (Byram, 1997). When selecting and using digital materials, content that supports cultural diversity and is free from prejudice should be preferred (Canagarajah, 2012).

Digital identity transformation requires teachers to continuously invest in their professional development. English teachers and teacher educators should regularly attend trainings and be involved in professional networks to stay up-to-date on digital tools and pedagogical approaches (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). This is an important factor that will ensure that both teachers and students are successful in the digital transformation process.

Therefore, English teachers and teacher educators need to have a wide range of competencies in order to be effective in the digital identity transformation process. These competencies include not only the ability to use technology, but also areas such as pedagogical knowledge, digital literacy, communication, cultural awareness, and continuous professional development. Accordingly, it is essential for teachers to continuously develop these competencies in order to be successful in the digital transformation process.

10. Conclusion

Digital transformation has had a major impact on the field of education and has led to radical changes in the identity of foreign/second language teachers. Technological tools and digital platforms have expanded and transformed the roles of language teachers by reshaping teaching methods. This transformation has required teachers to become digital content designers, technology integrators and guides who guide the learning process, rather than simply transmitters of information.

First of all, digital transformation has enabled teachers to rethink their pedagogical approaches and use digital tools effectively to develop students' language skills. Digital tools offer teachers the opportunity to enrich their in-class and out-of-class learning experiences. For instance, online language applications, video conferencing tools and virtual classrooms allow language teaching to continue regardless of time and space constraints. This allows teachers to provide a flexible learning environment. Thus, language learning is not limited to the classroom environment; students have the chance to interact with different cultures and apply their language skills in real-world contexts.

Digital transformation also supports teachers' professional development. Online education programs, webinars, and online communities help teachers learn about new pedagogical approaches, digital tools, and best practices. In this way, teachers have the opportunity to continuously improve themselves by sharing knowledge and experience with their colleagues. This helps teachers keep their identities dynamic and current.

However, it is also true that digital transformation creates some challenges for teacher identity. Effective use of digital tools requires teachers to constantly update their technological skills. Some teachers may experience adaptation difficulties due to the complexity of digital tools or rapidly changing technological trends. This situation may cause teachers to experience anxiety and stress in keeping up with the digital transformation. In addition, digital transformation may change teacher-student interaction and virtual communication may replace traditional face-to-face interactions, which may lead to a decrease in emotional connection during the teaching process for some teachers.

Correspondingly, digital transformation has significantly affected the identity of foreign/second language teachers. Teachers must redefine themselves in accordance with the requirements of the digital age. In this process, teachers who can effectively use the opportunities offered by technology, who are flexible, innovative, and open to continuous learning will benefit the most

from digital transformation. Educational institutions and policymakers can facilitate this transformation process by providing resources and training to support teachers in developing their digital skills. Thus, digital transformation has the potential to strengthen teachers' professional identities while opening new horizons in language teaching.

REFERENCES

Ally, M. (2019). Competency profile of the digital and online teacher in future education. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 20(2).

Anderson, T. (2008). The theory and practice of online learning. Athabasca University Press.

- Aoun, J. E. (2017). Robot-proof: Higher education in the age of artificial intelligence. MIT Press.
- Arnold, N., & Ducate, L. (Eds.). (2011). Present and future promises of CALL: From theory and research to new directions in language teaching. Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium.
- Barger, R. P. (2020). Democratization of education through massive open online courses in Asia. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 8(2), 29-46.
- Bebell, D., & O'Dwyer, L. (2010). Educational outcomes and research from 1: 1 computing settings. *The journal of technology, learning and assessment*, 9(1).
- Belshaw, D. (2012). *What is 'digital literacy'? A Pragmatic investigation* (Doctoral dissertation, Durham University).
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2012). *Flip your classroom: Reach every student in every class every day*. International Society for Technology in Education.
- Berk, R. A. (2009). Multimedia teaching with video clips: TV, movies, YouTube, and mtvU in the college classroom. *International Journal of Technology in Teaching and Learning*, 5(1), 1-21.
- Bidari, S. (2021). Engaging learners in online classrooms: A case study from Nepal. Journal of World Englishes and Educational Practices, 3(7), 01-06.
- Bilki, Z., Satar, M., & Sak, M. (2023). Critical digital literacy in virtual exchange for ELT teacher education: An interpretivist methodology. *ReCALL*, 35(1), 58-73.

- Blattner, G., & Fiori, M. (2009). Facebook in the language classroom: Promises and possibilities. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 6(1), 17-28.
- Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. Multilingual Matters.
- Canagarajah, S. (2012). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. Routledge.
- Chapelle, C. A. (2003). English Language Learning and Technology. John Benjamins Publishing.
- Chapelle, C. A. (2009). The relationship between second language acquisition theory and computer-assisted language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(S1), 741-753.
- Collins, A., & Halverson, R. (2018). *Rethinking education in the age of technology: The digital revolution and schooling in America*. Teachers College Press.
- Dabbagh, N., & Kitsantas, A. (2012). Personal learning environments, social media, and selfregulated learning: A natural formula for connecting formal and informal learning. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *15*(1), 3-8.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M. E., & Gardner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development. *Learning policy institute*.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Ertmer, P. A., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T. (2010). Teacher technology change: How knowledge, confidence, beliefs, and culture intersect. *Journal of research on Technology in Education*, 42(3), 255-284.

- Fischer, G., Lundin, J., & Lindberg, J. O. (2020). Rethinking and reinventing learning, education and collaboration in the digital age—from creating technologies to transforming cultures. *The International Journal of Information and Learning Technology*, 37(5), 241-252.
- Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL quarterly*, *32*(3), 397-417.
- Gee, J. P. (2003). What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy. *Computers in entertainment (CIE)*, *1*(1), 20-20.
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2014). Emerging technologies. Int. J. Comput. Sci. Bus. Inform, 9(1), 66-79.
- Graham, C. R. (2006). Blended learning systems. *The handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs, 1,* 3-21.
- Greenhow, C., & Lewin, C. (2019). Social media and education: Reconceptualizing the boundaries of formal and informal learning. In *social media and education* (pp. 6-30). Routledge.
- Gu, M. M., & Lai, C. (2019). An ethical analysis of how ESL teachers construct their professional identities through the use of information technology in teaching. *British Educational Research Journal*, 45(5), 918-937.
- Hampel, R. (2015). *Developing online language teaching: Research-based pedagogies and reflective practices*. Springer.
- Hodges, C. B., Moore, S., Lockee, B. B., Trust, T., & Bond, M. A. (2020). The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning.

- Jandrić, P., Martinez, A. F., Reitz, C., Jackson, L., Grauslund, D., Hayes, D., ... & Hayes, S. (2022). Teaching in the age of Covid-19—The new normal. *Postdigital Science and Education*, 4(3), 877-1015.
- Johnson, L., Becker, S. A., Cummins, M., Estrada, V., Freeman, A., & Hall, C. (2016). *NMC horizon report: 2016 higher education edition* (pp. 1-50). The New Media Consortium.
- Johnson, K. M. (2017). The importance of personal branding in social media: educating students to create and manage their personal brand. *International journal of education and social science*, *4*(1), 21-27.
- Kessler, G. (2018). Technology and the future of language teaching. *Foreign language annals*, *51*(1), 205-218.
- Koehler, M., & Mishra, P. (2009). What is technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK)?. *Contemporary issues in technology and teacher education*, 9(1), 60-70.
- Kozma, R. B., & Voogt, J. (2003). Technology, innovation, and educational change: a global perspective: a report of the Second Information Technology in Education Study, Module 2. (*No Title*).
- Kramsch, C. (1993). Context and culture in language teaching. Oxford University Press.
- Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2008). An overview of mobile assisted language learning:
 From content delivery to supported collaboration and interaction. *ReCALL*, 20(3), 271-289.
- Leary, H., Dopp, C., Turley, C., Cheney, M., Simmons, Z., Graham, C. R., & Hatch, R. (2020).
 Professional development for online teaching: A literature review. *Online Learning*, 24(4), 254-275.
- Lesia Viktorivna, K., Andrii Oleksandrovych, V., Iryna Oleksandrivna, K., & Nadia Oleksandrivna, K. (2022). Artificial intelligence in language learning: What are we afraid of. *Arab World English Journal*.

- Li, P., & Lan, Y. J. (2022). Digital language learning (DLL): Insights from behavior, cognition, and the brain. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *25*(3), 361-378.
- Livingstone, S. M., Haddon, L., & Gorzig, A. (Eds.). (2012). *Children, risk and safety on the internet: Research and policy challenges in comparative perspective*. Policy Press.
- Meishar-Tal, H., Levenberg, A., & Rabin, E. (2023). Empathy or students' activation? Factors affecting students' remote learning experience during the COVID-19 period. *International Journal of Technology Enhanced Learning*, 15(3), 311-328.
- Mirra, N. (2019). From connected learning to connected teaching: Reimagining digital literacy pedagogy in English teacher education. *English Education*, *51*(3), 261-291.
- Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for teacher knowledge. *Teachers college record*, *108*(6), 1017-1054.
- Moradi, H., & Chen, H. (2019). Digital storytelling in language education. *Behavioral* sciences, 9(12), 147.
- Norton, B. (2000). Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity, and educational change.
- Oliveira, K. K. D. S., & De Souza, R. A. (2022). Digital transformation towards education 4.0. *Informatics in Education*, *21*(2), 283-309.
- Pegrum, M., Dudeney, G., & Hockly, N. (2018). Digital literacies revisited. *European Journal* of Applied Linguistics and TEFL, 7(2), 3-24.
- Phoon, G. C., Idris, M. Z., & Nugrahani, R. (2021). Virtual reality (VR) in 21st century education: The opportunities and challenges of digital learning in classroom. *Asian Pendidikan*, 1(2), 105-110.
- Prensky, M. (2009). H. sapiens digital: From digital immigrants and digital natives to digital wisdom. *Innovate: journal of online education*, *5*(3).
- Reinders, H., & Wattana, S. (2014). Can I say something? The effects of digital game play on willingness to communicate.

- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rogers, E. M., Singhal, A., & Quinlan, M. M. (2014). Diffusion of innovations. In An integrated approach to communication theory and research (pp. 432-448). Routledge.
- Schrum, L., Shelley, G., & Miller, R. (2008). Understanding tech-savvy teachers: Identifying their characteristics, motivation and challenges. *International Journal of Technology in Teaching and Learning*, 4(1), 1-20.
- Selwyn, N. (2004). Reconsidering political and popular understandings of the digital divide. *New media & society*, 6(3), 341-362.
- Selwyn, N. (2021). Education and technology: Key issues and debates. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Selwyn, N. (2014). Digital technology and the contemporary university: Degrees of digitization. Routledge.
- Siemens, G. E. O. R. G. E. (2005). Connectivism: A learning theory for the digital age. International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning. *Online] retrieved from: http://www. idtl. org/Journal/Jam _05/article01. html.*
- Tondeur, J., Van Braak, J., Sang, G., Voogt, J., Fisser, P., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. (2012). Preparing pre-service teachers to integrate technology in education: A synthesis of qualitative evidence. *Computers & education*, 59(1), 134-144.
- Trent, J. (2014). Towards a multifaceted, multidimensional framework for understanding teacher identity. In *Advances and current trends in language teacher identity research* (pp. 44-58). Routledge.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1), 21-44.

- Wahid, H. S. A., Rahmat, N. H., Dzuradeen, N. S., & Kadir, N. A. (2020). Are students engaging in online classrooms?. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 7(12).
- Wang, S., & Vásquez, C. (2012). Web 2.0 and second language learning: What does the research tell us?. *CALICO journal*, 29(3), 412-430.
- Warschauer, M. (2004). Technology and social inclusion: Rethinking the digital divide. *MIT Press.*
- Zhang, L., & Hwang, Y. (2023). "Should I change myself or not?": Examining (Re) constructed language teacher identity during the COVID-19 pandemic through textmining. *Teaching and teacher education*, 127, 104092.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayfer SU-BERGİL ORCID: 0000-0002-9277-2862

ayfersubergil@amasya.edu.tr

Amasya University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education

Ayfer Su-Bergil is currently working as an Associate Professor in Amasya University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education, Division of English Language Teaching. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree from Gazi University, English Language Teaching in 2004 and got Master of Arts degree from Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, Curriculum and Instruction, in 2010. She completed her doctoral studies at the English Language Teaching Department, Hacettepe University in 2015. Su-Bergil teaches English language courses at the undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. EFL/ESL Teacher education, curriculum and instruction, English language teaching & learning are among the fields of her interest.

Cite this Chapter

Su-Bergil, A. (2024). Foreign/second language teacher identity in the digital transformational modes of instruction. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 151-177). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 8: ENHANCING COLLABORATIVE WRITING OF GRADUATE STUDENTS THROUGH WHATSAPP AND GOOGLE DOCS: AN ACADEMIC WRITING COURSE

Nihan ERDEMİR 🐌 Derya COŞKUN 🕩 İdil SAYIN 🗊

1. Introduction

The proliferation of mobile technologies available today has revolutionized teaching and learning practices in language classes. These technologies afford convenient and beneficial platforms for developing language skills, particularly writing skills, by providing collaborative, interactive, and ubiquitous environments. Through various accessible, synchronous, and asynchronous communication channels, mobile technologies can create more inclusive and flexible writing practices and accommodate diverse schedules and disciplinary backgrounds (Abrams, 2016; Akman Yeşilel, 2022; Castelló et al., 2023; Haythornthwaite, 2005). Accordingly, these technologies not only enhance the accessibility of writing tasks but also promote more collaborative and interactive writing practices. As a result of the increasing use and diversity of mobile technologies, effective pedagogical practices such as collaborative writing (CW) have gained recognition.

Mobile technologies noticeably improve CW, which is a socially, cognitively, emotionally, and academically valued practice and is frequently utilized in language classrooms (Elola & Oskoz, 2010; Fernández Dobao, 2012; Storch, 2011; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Recent studies highlight the effectiveness of mobile technologies, like social media platforms, wikis, and cloud-based tools, in enhancing CW. For instance, tools such as Google Docs and Facebook Messenger provide freedom in terms of time and place, facilitate real-time collaboration, allow multiple users to edit at the same time, share feedback, and build on each other's ideas synchronously or asynchronously (Alonzo & Oo, 2023; Alsahil, 2024; Strobl, 2014).

Moreover, mobile technologies positively affect writing motivation and the quality of writing outcomes in CW. Studies by Alwahoub et al. (2020), Jiang and Eslami (2021), and Tay and Cheung (2019) indicate that the use of mobile technologies for CW enhances students' motivation to engage in writing tasks and improve writing outcomes. Similarly, studies also

displayed that these technologies support the development of writing skills by providing an environment that fosters continuous interaction and feedback (Aldawi & Maher, 2023; Alonzo & Oo, 2023; Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016; Chen, 2019; Ebadijalal & Moradkhani, 2023; Strobl, 2014; Yanguas, 2020). However, despite the clear advantages, only a few studies have explored the affordances of specific mobile technologies for developing writing skills in CW (Alsahil, 2024), particularly in academic publishing.

Furthermore, integrating mobile technologies supports synchronous and asynchronous editing and idea accumulation and accommodates diverse schedules and disciplinary backgrounds. Thus, it addresses the challenges multiple writers might face in shared writing (Castelló et al., 2023; Chen, 2019). As mobile technologies continue to advance, their role in CW is expected to grow by providing new opportunities for enhancing collaboration and improving the written outcome in both educational and professional contexts (Chen, 2019; Ebadijalal & Moradkhani, 2023).

Considering this, the current study aims to explore the benefits and challenges associated with using mobile technology, specifically WhatsApp and Google Docs, among graduate students for academic writing in CW. Additionally, it seeks to determine how these tools enhance CW. Moreover, the study hopes to contribute to a deeper understanding of the potential of mobile technologies for improving writing skills and academic outcomes in language learning contexts by providing insights into how these mobile technologies facilitate CW among graduate students for the purpose of academic writing.

2. Mobile Technology

Integrating mobile technologies into educational settings has changed how learning takes place. Mobile technologies have become a valuable tool, especially in language classrooms, by offering interactive and authentic content and collaborative practices (Burston, 2014; Kukulska-Hulme & Viberg, 2018; Viberg & Grönlund, 2013). This has led to the development of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), a subfield of mobile learning that focuses on utilizing mobile technologies to support language acquisition (Viberg & Grönlund, 2013). MALL specifically focuses on the unique advantages of mobile technologies in language learning environments (Thomas et al., 2012). These technologies offer ubiquitous access to learning resources and personalized learning experiences (Kukulska-Hulme & Viberg, 2018; Sung et al., 2016), facilitate a more learner-centered approach, where students can take control of their learning (Stockwell & Hubbard, 2013), and support informal learning by

providing learners with authentic content (Çakmak, 2019). Recent studies have highlighted the efficacy of MALL in improving language skills (Duman et al., 2014). Additionally, many studies have explored the advantages and disadvantages of various mobile technologies in language learning.

For instance, WhatsApp has been investigated as a tool for language learning due to its widespread use and ability to support synchronous and asynchronous communication. Many studies reported positive effects of WhatsApp on listening skills (Fauzi & Angkas awati, 2019), speaking skills (Albogami & Algethami, 2022; Andújar-Vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017), reading skills (Tümen Akyıldız & Çelik, 2022), and writing skills (Andujar, 2016). Studies showed that WhatsApp provided a place for negotiation of meaning, authentic interaction, and immediate feedback (Andújar-Vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017; Naghdipour & Manca, 2022). Kartal (2019) also noted that WhatsApp reduces the affective filter and language anxiety, making learners more comfortable and willing to participate.

Google Docs is another mobile technology that has been investigated for its advantages for language learning. Google Docs provides an environment for learning opportunities, especially for writing skills, with its ability for synchronous and asynchronous collaboration (Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016). This allows learners to work together regardless of time and space (Alsahil, 2024; Canham, 2018; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). Moreover, features such as comments and suggestions enable teachers and peers to provide immediate feedback for refining the writing (Alsahil, 2024; Yim et al., 2016). Several studies highlighted Google Docs' effectiveness in developing writing skills. For example, studies by Bikowski and Vithanage (2016), Nergiz Kartepe and Atmaca (2024), and Suwantarathip and Wichadee (2014) showed that EFL learners using Google Docs significantly improved in content, organization, and grammar. Additionally, Alharbi (2020) notes that the platform's collaborative features facilitate peer feedback, which leads to overall writing improvement. However, a balanced approach to error correction and skill development by combining these mobile technology tools with traditional teacher feedback yields the best outcomes (Nergiz Kartepe & Atmaca, 2024).

3. Collaborative Writing

Collaborative writing is a complex and dynamic process that is difficult to define (Lowry et al., 2004). The definition of CW can vary depending on its desired purpose in its realization, such as social interactions (Gimenez & Thondhlana, 2012), final products (Rice & Huguley, 1994), cognitive processes (Galegher & Kraut, 1994), and many other aspects. Lowry

et al. (2004) proposed a definition in an attempt to cover significant aspects, and they defined CW as "...an iterative and social process that involves a team focused on a common objective that negotiates, coordinates, and communicates during the creation of a common document" (p.72). Being a complex process, CW necessitates utilizing diverse strategies and steps (Galegher & Kraut, 1994; Lowry et al., 2004). Generally, the starting and ending points are predictable; however, steps in between vary depending on the purpose and often are iterative (Lowry et al., 2004).

As a social process, CW is informed mainly by Sociocultural Theory (SCT) (Li, 2018). SCT suggests that human thinking is shaped by cultural tools, activities, and concepts (Vygotsky, 1978; 1987). Within this perspective, language is a mediator for learning in social interaction and is central to the CW process. In SCT, the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) is particularly relevant. ZPD represents the gap between what a learner can do alone and what they can achieve with guidance or collaboration with more skilled peers (Vygotsky, 1978). This is believed to encourage learners to engage in interactive activities, like working with peers, to improve their targeted skills. CW, where individuals co-construct texts with others, is an example of such interactive activities. This collaborative process allows individuals to develop a pooling of knowledge about language (Donato, 1994). This theoretical framework also supports the idea that CW practices can foster language learning and improve the written outcome by providing opportunities for learners to engage in meaningful interaction, share knowledge, and co-construct written texts (Li, 2018).

CW offers several social, cognitive, affective, and academic benefits. Socially, CW strengthens interpersonal relationships (Rice & Huguley, 1994) and provides networking opportunities (Chen & Yu, 2019). Cognitively, it supports learning (Trimbur, 1985; Yang, 2017), enables tackling more complex questions, creates a pool of knowledge, fosters language proficiency (Jiang & Eslami, 2022), and helps maximize efficiency from limited resources (Berndt, 2011). Affectively, it fosters positive emotions (Chen & Yu, 2019) and motivates individuals to be critical (Chen & Zhang, 2023; Kırmızı, 2024). Academically, it enhances academic productivity (Alonzo & Oo, 2023; Du et al., 2023), increases citations and visibility (Wang et al., 2024), creates a fertile environment for generating new ideas (LeFevre, 1987), and produces a higher-quality final product (Ede & Lunsford, 1990; Elabdali, 2021; Fernández Dobao, 2012).

There are also risks and challenges associated with CW. Some of the challenges are determining authorship (Berndt, 2011) and defining the responsibilities of members (Rhodes & Lin, 2019).

Potential risks include the negative impact on individual autonomy and the possibility that some members may fail to fulfill their responsibilities (Berndt, 2011). Other risks are longer production times, personal conflicts (Colen & Petelin, 2004), conflicts on personal writing styles (Kırmızı, 2024), and heavy dependence on individuals' previous affective experiences (Chen et al., 2023). These experiences, which are shaped by beliefs about the task, sense of responsibility, and group dynamics (Alsahil, 2024), can have a long-term effect on both the process and the final product. Thus, careful planning and execution are crucial for minimizing these risks and ensuring a successful CW process.

As CW continues to evolve, integrating mobile technologies in the process has become a must. Mobile technologies enable participants to contribute synchronously or asynchronously. These technologies offer several benefits that are often unattainable through traditional, non-digital means. For instance, mobile technologies foster a more inclusive writing environment by providing diverse and ubiquitous communication channels that allow participants to connect and collaborate regardless of their location or time zone (Abrams, 2016; Haythornthwaite, 2005; Zeybek et al., 2023). These technologies also enable the creation of shared documents in real-time and continuous updates and instant feedback, which is known to be crucial for maintaining the momentum of collaborative projects (Strobl, 2014).

In summary, mobile technologies significantly contribute to CW by offering new opportunities for collaboration, feedback, and real-time document sharing. Technologies like WhatsApp and Google Docs create flexible and interactive environments that enhance CW, especially in language learning. Although mobile technologies such as WhatsApp and Google Docs are increasingly used in educational contexts, more comprehensive studies are needed to examine their effects, benefits, and challenges for CW in academic writing. This study addresses this gap and hopes to lead to more effective writing practices. The following research questions led the study:

1. What are the benefits and challenges of using mobile technologies, *WhatsApp* and *Google Docs*, among graduate students?

2. To what extent do mobile technologies, *WhatsApp* and *Google Docs*, improve collaborative writing in an academic writing course?

4. A Sample Evaluation of Academic Writing Course

The purpose of this study is to explore how graduate students consider using mobile technology, specifically WhatsApp and Google Docs to enhance collaborative writing in an academic writing course at a graduate level. The study adopted the qualitative research design since it enables researchers to thoroughly examine the viewpoints and experiences of the participants, which is crucial in a novel and mostly uncharted field of study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Focus group interviews (FGIs) were determined as the data collection method.

The study was conducted on a Turkish public university's "Academic Writing Course" for graduate students, delivered as a 14-week elective 6-ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) course in the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department in the 2023-2024 Academic Year. This course seeks to help students recognize academic writing conventions through exposure to and examination, practice, and peer and teacher feedback. The first half of the course focuses on graduate-level texts and analysis of academic papers in numerous genres while the second half of the course comprises mainly workshop activities with students designing, developing, and writing each subsection of the research or review paper they have chosen. Students comply with the assignments each week with their mentors' supervision and peers' observation on Google Docs whose links have been shared with all the classmates. In addition, WhatsApp groups created by the researchers were used to enhance interaction and collaborative writing.

The study participants were eight graduate students enrolled in the course. Six of the participants were female, while two of them were male. Since two males did not follow the schedule and task completion of procedural writing, they were excluded from the study. The other participants (n=6) collaborated in groups during the study. The demographic information of the graduate students is seen in Table 1.

Participants	Teaching Experience	University Graduated
S 1	2 years	Süleyman Demirel University
S 2	7 years	Boğaziçi University
S3	8 years	Anadolu University
S4	3 years	Osmangazi University
S5	-	Ufuk University
S 6	-	Uludağ University

Table 1. Demographic information of the participants

They graduated from mostly state universities (Anadolu University, Boğaziçi University, Osmangazi University, Süleyman Demirel University, and Uludağ University) and one private university (Ufuk University). Their ages ranged from 22 to 33 years of age, and their professional experience ranged from 0 to 8 years in English language teaching, which comprises inexperienced and experienced teachers.

As a data collection method, focus group interviews were chosen for an in-depth analysis of students' viewpoints and experiences of collaborative writing through WhatsApp and Google Docs among mobile technologies. According to Krueger (2014), FGIs are structured group discussions that are centred on a single topic and are particularly useful for "exploring people's knowledge and experiences and can be used to examine not only what people think, but how they think and why they think that way" (Kitzinger, 1995, p. 299). Other reasons for choosing FGIs are related to their characteristics in nature including synergism for allowing wider data through group discussion in a short time, and, snowballing for initiating interaction through one participant and encouraging other group members (Vaughn, 2004). First, the researchers drafted the questions in English (see Appendix A) and then obtained expert opinions from two researchers in the field. Following that, the English questions were translated into Turkish (see Appendix B). FGI questions were revised, the Turkish version was utilized for data collection, and the translated version's language was reviewed by a linguist and a translator.

The first half of the course focused on academic writing conventions and analysis of academic papers in various genres through exercises. The second half of the course comprised hands-on activities after class, in which students were expected to write each subsection of the research or review paper they chose weekly on Google Docs. Table 2 outlines the week-by-week general course structure.

Week	Торіс	In-class	After-class
1	Course introduction	Lecture/Discussion	Determine your research topic
2	Understanding EAP, discourse community, genre analysis, and rhetorical analysis	Lecture/Discussion	Write your research questions
3	An approach to the conventions of academic writing	Lecture/Discussion	Conduct a detailed literature review
4	Writing in academic style	Lecture/Discussion	Design your research & Apply for Ethical Committee
5	Types of journal publication	Lecture/Discussion	Conduct your research & Collect data
6	Referencing, citing, and quoting	Lecture/Discussion	Conduct your research & Collect data
7	Analyzing abstract	Lecture/Discussion	Write an abstract section
8	Analyzing introduction sections	Lecture/Discussion	Write an introduction section
9	Analyzing literature reviews	Lecture/Discussion	Write a literature review section
10	Analyzing methods sections	Lecture/Discussion	Write a methods section
11	Analyzing results sections	Lecture/Discussion	Write a results section
12	Analyzing discussion sections	Lecture/Discussion	Write a discussion section
13	Analyzing conclusion sections	Lecture/Discussion	Write a conclusion section
14	Revising paper	Lecture/Discussion	Revise the paper

Table 2. V	Weeklv	course	svllabus
------------	--------	--------	----------

Four students chose to write a systematic review article and two students to write a research paper. Announcements and reminders were sent on time, and all the students were given access to Google Docs through the WhatsApp group. In particular, students received frequent reminders via WhatsApp to monitor their peers' progress in Google Docs and were urged to ask mentors and peers questions at any time. To help other participants benefit from one student's experience, mentors published a summary of their Google Docs feedback after each student finished writing a section of their paper.

The focus group interview was first recorded. The *Transkriptor* software program was then used to transcribe this interview. Thematic text analysis was utilized by the researchers to examine the qualitative information gathered from the focus group interview. According to Creswell (2016), this method "involves identifying meaningful segments of text that have meaning and assigning codes to those segments" (p. 365). Consequently, MAXQDA 24.0, a qualitative software program, was used to code the transcriptions as is seen in Figure 1.

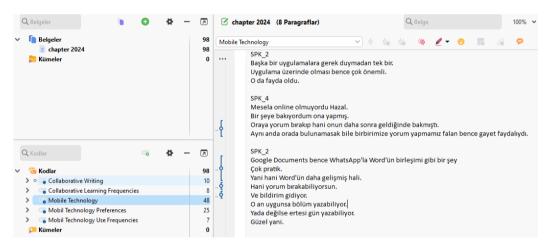


Figure 1. A screenshot of the MAXQDA analysis

Two steps were taken by the researchers to guarantee the theme analysis' dependability. First, two raters established themes based on the study questions and separately coded the data under these topics. Second, the two researchers examined and resolved any discrepancies in interpretation to complete their distinct code lists. Participants' responses were led to 98 codes grouped under two main themes (Table 3): collaborative writing and mobile technology. The interrater reliability level between the raters computed by MAXQDA was found .85 and indicated a high level of agreement and degree of reliability.

Themes	Sub-themes	Codes
	strengths of collaborative writing	being effective for motivation being useful providing different perspectives
collaborative writing	weaknesses of collaborative writing	finding challenging not preferring group work unequal distribution of workload
mobile technology	WhatsApp	benefits of WhatsApp challenges of WhatsApp
	Google Docs	benefits of Google Docs challenges of Google Docs

Table 3. Themes, sub-themes, and codes

On September 27, 2024, Süleyman Demirel University sent the Ethics Committee Approval numbered 152/18. The data collection tool used in this study that involved human subjects complied with the institutional research committee's ethical guidelines. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the procedures involved, the confidentiality and anonymity of their answers, and their rights, including the ability to refuse any questions, which were outlined in a permission form.

4. Key results related to mobile technology and collaborative writing

The findings of the present study were grouped under two main themes in line with the research questions. It was found that graduate students used mobile technologies frequently and remarked that they have more benefits than challenges. Further, the informants had limited and somewhat negative experiences of collaborative writing. However, the participants' ideas changed with the collaborative writing course, and they focused on both the strengths and weaknesses of collaborative writing practices.

4.1. Usage of mobile technology among postgraduate students

To begin with mobile technology use, graduate students' preferences and frequencies of mobile technology use were presented below. Then, participants' perceptions regarding the benefits and challenges of particular mobile technologies, *WhatsApp* and *Google Docs*, were discussed respectively.

4.1.1. Mobile technology preferences and frequencies of graduate students

The first research question addressed graduate students' mobile technology preferences in relation to the benefits and challenges of using mobile technologies, *WhatsApp* and *Google Docs*. Accordingly, graduate students' preferences for the use of mobile technologies were shown in Figure 2 below.

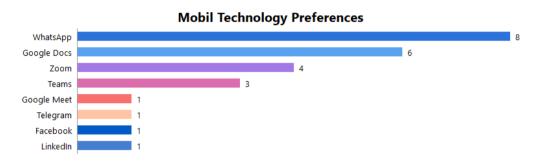


Figure 2. Mobile technology preferences of graduate students

As illustrated in the figure above, graduate students preferred to use *WhatsApp* (f=8) most frequently, followed by *Google Docs* (f=6), Zoom (f=4), and Teams (f=3). Besides, *Google Meet* (f=1), *Telegram* (f=1), *Facebook* (f=1), and *LinkedIn* (f=1) were the least preferred mobile technologies among the graduate students.

In addition, the findings revealed that most graduate students engaged in mobile technologies on a daily basis (f=5). At the same time, one of them used mobile technologies once a month and the other participant stated that they used mobile technologies once a week, as shown in Figure 3 below.

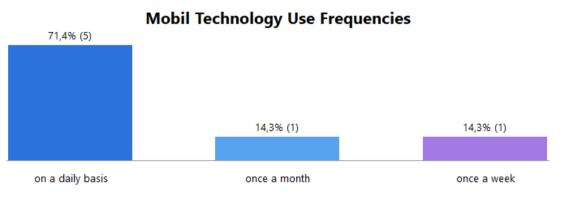


Figure 3. Mobile technology use frequencies of graduate students

4.1.2. Benefits and challenges of WhatsApp

The study revealed that *WhatsApp* was the most frequently used and preferred mobile technology tool among graduate students because of the conveniences it provides, as illustrated in Figure 4 below.

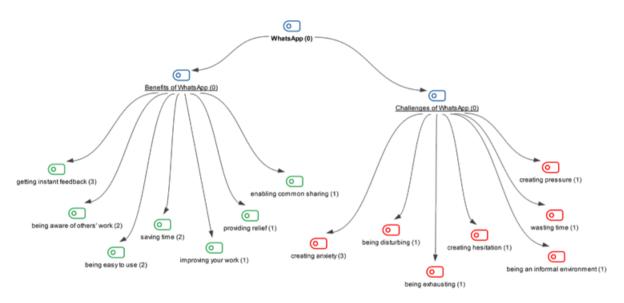


Figure 4. Benefits and challenges of WhatsApp

To illustrate, *WhatsApp* enabled participants to progress much faster and easier in their studies by providing instant feedback (f=3) as shown below.

"I would write on WhatsApp, for example, and I would get a reply, so the process was much easier for me." (S2)

The participants also noted that *WhatsApp* was easy to use (f=2) and beneficial for saving time (f=2) and being aware of their peers' studies (f=2), as exemplified in the following excerpts.

"WhatsApp is easy to use because everyone already uses it." (S2)

"The more we talk on WhatsApp, the more we are aware of what stage the others are at." (S3)

"For example, I ask a question, but maybe others will ask the same question, so it saves time." (S6)

As per the challenges of *WhatsApp*, it was found that it caused anxiety among some participants (f=3), as exemplified below.

"I wonder if I could have done it more effectively or if I could have done it more effectively, why my work has not progressed, or if I am behind, it is a bit bad." (S1)

Additionally, other challenges of *WhatsApp* were that for some participants, it caused hesitation (f=1) or pressure (f=1), and for others, it was disturbing (f=1), exhausting (f=1), and informal (f=1).

"For example, in a group on WhatsApp, it's like an obligation to respond at that moment. You know, it makes me a little uncomfortable to be accessible at any moment." (S3)

"For example, when we want to send something from the computer, we have to open WhatsApp web all the time and that process is a bit tiring." (S2)

4.1.3. Benefits and challenges of Google Docs

Google Docs was the second most preferred mobile technology tool among the graduate students, and the participants noted that the benefits of Google Docs outweighed the challenges, as illustrated in Figure 5 below.

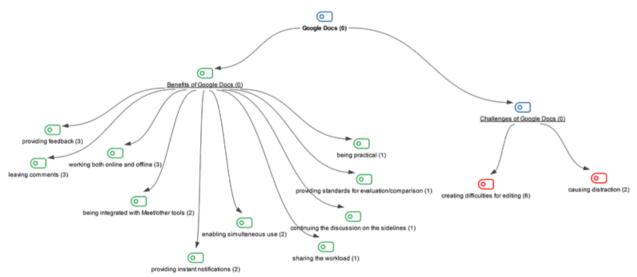


Figure 5. Benefits and challenges of Google Docs

To begin with the benefits of Google Docs, it was found that graduate students preferred this tool since it provided feedback (f=3), enabled the students to leave comments in the margins (f=3) and to work both online and offline (f=3). In this regard, the participants stated that they

used this tool since Google Docs contributed to their professional and academic development, as exemplified below:

"Feedback is definitely quite helpful, I really like this aspect of Google Docs, and I was able to improve myself." (S6)

"I left a comment there, and she looked at it when she came back later. Even if we couldn't be there at the same time, I think it was very useful for us to comment to each other." (S1)

Additionally, it was helpful for graduate students in terms of enabling simultaneous use (f=2), providing instant notifications (f=2), and being integrated with other tools such as Google Meet (f=2), as shown in the following excerpts.

"I would get an instant notification, and that was very important." (S4)

"I think the biggest difference is that everyone can work at the same time." (S3)

Challenges were also expressed about the use of Google Docs by the graduate students. In this sense, the most recurrent code was that Google Docs made it challenging to edit the document (f=6). Therefore, graduate students stated that editing their documents in Google Docs was difficult for them, as seen in the excerpt below.

"I guess the only disadvantage of Google Docs is that we can't really edit them." (S2)

Further, some participants pointed out that they did not feel comfortable when their friends or instructors were online in their documents and that they could get distracted and quit studying, as exemplified below.

"I want to talk about one of its disadvantages. For example, in the Google doc, I am fully focused; while I am editing my document, someone goes online in my document, and my whole focus is immersed. I instantly leave the document; I wonder what they are looking at, what they are thinking. Or are they reading what I am writing right now? What do they feel? Or they are reading it, I wonder if they think it's too ridiculous, and I leave." (S1)

4.2. Collaborative writing experiences of graduate students

In addition, participants noted that they did not have much collaborative learning experiences before this academic writing course as presented in Figure 6 below.

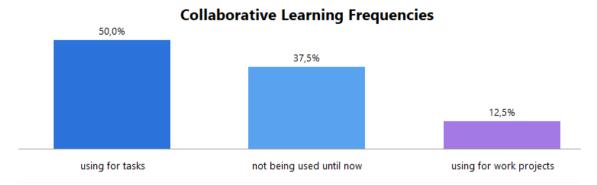


Figure 6. Collaborative writing experiences of graduate students

The graduate students' collaborative writing experiences were mostly based on their undergraduate years and they engaged in collaborative tasks during this period. Additionally, one of the participants stated that she engaged in collaborative writing as a part of their school-related e-twinning project as exemplified in the following excerpt.

"I remember we worked together when there was an e-twinning project at the school where I worked as a teacher." (S3)

4.2.1. Strengths and weaknesses of collaborative writing

Graduate students only had little collaborative writing experiences; the course on collaborative writing was a new experience for most of them. The participants gained positive experiences in collaborative writing processes with the help of a collaborative writing course. Therefore, the informants mainly mentioned the benefits and strengths of collaborative writing as well as a few challenges, as inferred from Figure 7 below.

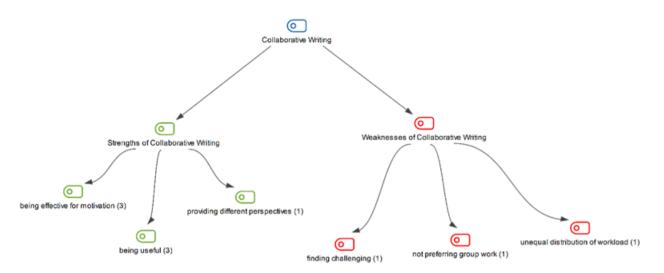


Figure 7. Strengths and weaknesses of collaborative writing

To exemplify, the participants regarded collaborative writing as a practical activity for motivation (f=3), helpful for their learning (f=3), and gaining different perspectives (f=1). Thus, the following excerpts pointed out the strengths of collaborative writing practices.

"Working collaboratively on Google Documents was really effective. Both in terms of motivation and seeing your feedback. I think I learned something from my friends." (S4)

"It was very beneficial for everyone to get help from each other, to get help instead of coming up with something in common." (S6)

"So it helped me to see those different perspectives." (S2)

When asked about the weaknesses of collaborative writing, the informants reported that collaborative tasks could be challenging (f=1) since they did not prefer group work (f=1), or the workload would not be equal in group tasks (f=1). In this regard, the following excerpts could shed light on the interviewees' perceptions regarding the negative aspects of collaborative writing.

"So I think group work is challenging in general. For example, I frankly don't like group work very much because you deliver something in common, and when you deliver something in common, some of the things the other side does may not feel comfortable with." (S4) "Honestly, I did not didn't see any benefit of group work until my master's degree. Since I didn't feel comfortable with group work, I was organizing that part of it, so there is definitely an inequality of burden." (S6)

In summary, these results suggest that graduate students made use of mobile technologies during the collaborative writing processes. They benefited from especially *WhatsApp* and *Google Docs* for collaborative writing practices. Graduate students also indicated that mobile technologies contributed a lot to their writing process, although they have some difficulties. Further, the participants expressed that they enhanced their collaborative writing skills with the help of the writing course and that collaborative writing has more strengths than weaknesses.

5. Discussion

The present study explored collaborative writing in an academic context and the role of mobile technologies during this process. The results indicated both the benefits and challenges of using as WhatsApp and Google Docs for collaborative academic paper writing.

In terms of benefits, these mobile technologies have been found to enhance communication and collaboration among students in parallel with the findings of Andujar (2016). Specifically, participants favored WhatsApp due to its ease of communication by providing immediate feedback and increasing a sense of belonging among peers and lecturers. This finding aligns with Mazer and Ledbetter (2012), who argue that social media tools can bridge communication gaps, leading to stronger student engagement and motivation. Likewise, Google Docs was considered an effective tool due to its shared learning space, which enables simultaneous contributions on a web-based platform (Zorko, 2009). In addition, participants were satisfied with obtaining peer feedback and teacher feedback during the collaborative writing. As Storch (2013) emphasized, collaborative writing improves linguistic accuracy, negotiation of meaning and engagement in higher-order thinking. The ability to consider multiple viewpoints and reflect critically on their academic writing is one of the valuable contributions of these collaborative learning environments (Li & Zhu, 2017).

However, participants have also noted some challenges with collaborative writing tasks. One of the commonly addressed challenges is the unequal distribution of workload, in which learners become often frustrated with their group members' unbalanced contribution. This is similar to Barkley et al.'s (2014) identification of "free-rider" issues in group work, where some students tend to contribute less, creating a sense of inequality. That is, unbalanced contribution and irresponsibility are seen as significant drawbacks of collaborative learning (e.g., Slavin,

1995). Moreover, some participants stated how uncomfortable they felt by being monitored by others in collaborative tools like Google Docs. This finding aligns with Swain and Lapkin's (2002) findings that real-time peer observation might lead to anxiety among participants. On the other hand, Oshima and Oshima (2001) found technology associated with collaborative learning lessened anxiety to some extent in contrast to our study who are not used to immediate peer and lecturer feedback.

Despite these challenges, the current study suggested an overall positive perception of collaborative writing over time. For example, while some participants initially stated their discomfort, their engagement with collaborative writing and mobile technologies led to a more positive outlook by the end of the study. This shift in perception aligns with Ting-Toomey and Oetzel's (2001) observation that prolonged engagement in collaborative tasks can lead to a greater appreciation for the learning process, especially when supported by structured guidance and peer interaction. These findings also parallel Fernández Dobao (2012), whose study suggested that clear goals and tools leading to even cooperation help learners enhance their writing skills and perceptions as well. In fact, encouraging learners to reflect on their own writing and that of their peers leads to both cognitive development, as indicative of Swain's (2000) output hypothesis and process writing with ultimately improved writing skills. Thus, this study suggests that collaborative writing can lead to improvement as long as sufficient support and scaffolding are available.

The findings further suggest that mobile technologies play a crucial role in mediating these collaborative writing processes. According to Stockwell and Hubbard (2013), mobile devices make learning adaptable and time-efficient. These tools support real-time communication and collaboration by increasing engagement and learning outcomes though they also include unequal participation, distraction and anxiety among learners.

6. Conclusion

This study confirms the potential benefit of mobile technologies, specifically WhatsApp and Google Docs, to enhance collaborative writing processes at a graduate level. The findings indicate that these technologies introduce several benefits, including supporting a cooperative learning environment and communication among peers. The integration of these tools into academic writing also indicates learners' enhanced writing skills, thereby gaining multiple perspectives and being more deeply engaged with weekly feedback, supporting the conclusions of earlier research by Andujar (2016) and Zorko (2009). However, the study also suggests that challenges were faced due to the pressure of unequal workload distribution and real-time feedback by peers and lecturers. Therefore, mobile technologies should be thoughtfully designed to avoid learners with constant availability and real-time monitoring no matter how they lead to collaboration and engagement among learners. Future research could further explore how different mobile technologies beyond WhatsApp and Google Docs can contribute to collaborative writing in higher education. In addition, longitudinal studies could investigate how sustained use of these mobile technologies' impacts students' writing development and group dynamics over time.

REFERENCES

- Abrams, Z. (2016). Exploring collaboratively written L2 texts among first-year learners of German in Google Docs. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(8), 1259-1270. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2016.1270968
- Akman Yeşilel, D. B. (2022). Utilizing mobile technology to improve writing skill. In G.
 Yangın Ekşi, S. Akayoğlu, & L. Anyango (Eds.), New Directions in Technology for Writing Instruction (pp. 147-167). Springer.
- Albogami, A., & Algethami, G. (2022). Exploring the use of WhatsApp for teaching speaking to English language learners: A case study. *Arab World English Journal*, (2), 183-201. <u>https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/covid2.12</u>
- Aldawi, F., & Maher, A. (2023). The role of Google Docs in enhancing collaborative writing in higher education institutions. 2023 IEEE 3rd International Maghreb Meeting of the Conference on Sciences and Techniques of Automatic Control and Computer Engineering (MI-STA). <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/mi-sta57575.2023.10169399</u>
- Alharbi, M. A. (2020). Exploring the potential of Google Doc in facilitating innovative teaching and learning practices in an EFL writing course. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *14*(3), 227-242. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2019.1572157
- Alonzo, D., & Oo, C. Z. (2023). The use of Messenger for research collaboration: An autoethnographic study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1076340
- Alsahil, A. (2024). Exploring students' perceptions and affordances of Google docs-supported collaborative writing. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1-19. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2024.2326030</u>

- Alwahoub, H. M., Azmi, M. N., & Halabieh, M. (2020). Computer-assisted collaborative writing and students' perceptions of Google Docs and wikis: A review paper. *Language Literacy: Journal of Linguistics, Literature, and Language Teaching*, 4(1), 15-27. <u>https://doi.org/10.30743/ll.v4i1.2499</u>
- Andujar, A. (2016). Benefits of mobile instant messaging to develop ESL writing. *System*, 62, 63-76. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.07.004</u>
- Andújar-Vaca, A., & Cruz-Martínez, M. (2017). Mobile instant messaging: WhatsApp and its potential to develop oral skills. *Comunicar*, 25(50), 43-52. <u>https://doi.org/10.3916/c50-</u> 2017-04
- Barkley, E. F., Cross, K. P., & Major, C. H. (2014). *Collaborative learning techniques: A handbook for college faculty*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Berndt, A. E. (2011). Developing collaborative research agreements. *Journal of Emergency Nursing*, *37*(5), 497-498. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jen.2011.04.010</u>
- Bikowski, D., & Vithanage, R. (2016). Effects of web-based collaborative writing on individual
 L2 writing development. *Language Learning & Technology*, 20(1), 79-99. <u>https://www.lltjournal.org/</u>
- Burston, J. (2014). MALL: The pedagogical challenges. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 27(4), 344-357. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2014.914539
- Çakmak, F. (2019). Mobile learning and mobile assisted language learning in focus. *Language* and Technolog, 1(1), 30-48. <u>https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/665969</u>
- Canham, N. (2018). Comparing Web 2.0 applications for peer feedback in language teaching. *Writing and Pedagogy*, 9(3), 429-456. <u>https://doi.org/10.1558/wap.32352</u>

- Castelló, M., Kruse, O., Rapp, C., & Sharples, M. (2023). Synchronous and Asynchronous Collaborative Writing. In O. Kruse, C. Rapp, C. M. Anson, K. Benetos, E. Cotos, A. Devitt, & A. Shibani (Eds.), *Digital Writing Technologies in Higher Education* (pp. 121-139). Springer Link.
- Chen, W. (2019). An exploratory study on the role of L2 collaborative writing on learners' subsequent individually composed texts. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 28(6), 563-573. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-019-00455-3</u>
- Chen, W., & Yu, S. (2019). Implementing collaborative writing in teacher-centered classroom contexts: Student beliefs and perceptions. *Language Awareness*, 28(4), 247-267. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2019.1675680</u>
- Chen, W., & Zhang, M. (2023). Understanding an assessment approach in computer-mediated collaborative writing: Learner perceptions and interactions. *Language Awareness*, 33(1), 135-162. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2023.2180513</u>
- Chen, W., Liu, D., & Lin, C. (2023). Collaborative peer feedback in L2 writing: Affective, behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1078141
- Colen, K., & Petelin, R. (2004). Challenges in collaborative writing in the contemporary Corporation. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 9(2), 136-145. https://doi.org/10.1108/13563280410534339

Creswell, J. W. (2016). 30 Essential skills for the qualitative researcher. Sage Publications.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33–56). Ablex Publishing.

- Du, Z., Sun, Y., Zhao, G., & Zweig, D. (2021). Do overseas returnees Excel in the Chinese labour market? *The China Quarterly*, 247, 875-897. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/s0305741021000023</u>
- Duman, G., Orhon, G., & Gedik, N. (2014). Research trends in mobile assisted language learning from 2000 to 2012. *ReCALL*, 27(2), 197-216. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0958344014000287
- Ebadijalal, M., & Moradkhani, S. (2023). Impacts of computer-assisted collaborative writing, collaborative prewriting, and individual writing on EFL learners' performance and motivation. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-25. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2023.2178463
- Ede, L. S., & Lunsford, A. A. (1990). *Singular texts/plural authors: Perspectives on collaborative writing*. Southern Illinois University Press.
- Elabdali, R. (2021). Are two heads really better than one? A meta-analysis of the L2 learning benefits of collaborative writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *52*, 100788. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100788</u>
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2010). Collaborative writing: Fostering foreign language and writing conventions development. *Language Learning & Technology*, *14*(3), 51–71.
- Fauzi, I., & Angkasawati, P. (2019). The use of listening logs through WhatsApp in improving listening comprehension of efl students. JOALL (Journal of Applied Linguistics & Literature), 4(1), 13-26. <u>https://doi.org/10.33369/joall.v4i1.6773</u>
- Fernández Dobao, A. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: Comparing group, pair, and individual work. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(1), 40-58. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.12.002</u>

- Galegher, J., & Kraut, R. E. (1994). Computer-mediated communication for intellectual teamwork: An experiment in group writing. *Information Systems Research* 5(2):110-138. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/isre.5.2.110</u>
- Gimenez, J., & Thondhlana, J. (2012). Collaborative writing in engineering: Perspectives from research and implications for undergraduate education. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, 37(5), 471-487. https://doi.org/10.1080/03043797.2012.714356
- Haythornthwaite, C. (2005). Introduction: Computer-mediated collaborative practices. *Journal* of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10(4), 00-00. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-</u> 6101.2005.tb00274.x
- Jiang, W., & Eslami, Z. R. (2021). Effects of computer-mediated collaborative writing on individual EFL writing performance. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(9), 2701-2730. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1893753</u>
- Jiang, W., & Eslami, Z. R. (2022). Effects of computer-mediated collaborative writing on individual EFL writing performance. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35(9), 2701-2730. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1893753</u>
- Kartal, G. (2019). What's up with WhatsApp? A critical analysis of mobile instant messaging research in language learning. *International Journal of Contemporary Educational Research*, 6(2), 352-365. <u>https://doi.org/10.33200/ijcer.599138</u>
- Kırmızı, Ö. (2024). The applicability of collaborative writing in the post-graduate context: Introducing flexible collaborative writing. In G. Zeybek (Ed.), *Policy development, curriculum design, and administration of language education* (pp. 53-79). IGI Global.

Kitzinger, J. (1995). Qualitative research: Introducing focus groups. *Bmj*, 311(7000), 299-302.

Krueger, R. A. (2014). Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research. Sage publications.

Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Viberg, O. (2018). Mobile collaborative language learning: State of the art. British Journal of Educational Technology, 49(2), 207-218. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12580

LeFevre, K. B. (1987). Invention as a social act. Southern Illinois University Press.

- Li, M. (2018). Computer-mediated collaborative writing in L2 contexts: An analysis of empirical research. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 31(8), 882-904. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2018.1465981</u>
- Li, M., & Zhu, W. (2017). Explaining dynamic interactions in wiki-based collaborative writing. Language Learning & Technology, 21(2), 96–120.
- Lowry, P. B., Curtis, A., & Lowry, M. R. (2004). Building a taxonomy and nomenclature of collaborative writing to improve interdisciplinary research and practice. *The Journal of Business Communication (1973)*, 41(1), 66-99.
- Mazer, J. P., & Ledbetter, A. M. (2012). Online communication attitudes as predictors of problematic internet use and well-being outcomes. *Southern Communication Journal*, 77(5), 403-419. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/1041794x.2012.686558</u>
- Merriam, S. B. & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation (4th ed.).* John Wiley & Sons
- Naghdipour, B., & Manca, S. (2022). Teaching presence in students' WhatsApp groups: Affordances for language learning. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, 20(3), 282-299. https://doi.org/10.1177/20427530221107968
- Naveed, Q. N., Choudhary, H., Ahmaad, N., Alqahtani, J., & Qahmash, A. I. (2023). Mobile learning in higher education: A systematic literature review. *Sustainable*, 15(18). <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/su151813566</u>

- Nergiz Kartepe, B., & Atmaca, Ç. (2024). The effects of using Google Docs on writing skills of Turkish EFL learners. *Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, *10*(1), 147 - 165. <u>https://doi.org/10.31464/jlere.1393853</u>
- Oshima, J., & Oshima, R. (2001). Next step in design experiments with networked Collaborative learning environments: Instructional interventions in the curriculum. In
 P. Dillenbourg, A. Eurelings, & K. Hakkarainen (Eds.), European perspectives on computer-supported collaborative learning (pp. 217-225). Routledge. <u>https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410601544-8</u>
- Rhodes, C. M., and X. Lin. 2019. Collaborative academic writing: Reflections from an early career academic. *The Journal of Faculty Development 33*(3): 71–76.
- Rice, R. P., & Huguley, J. T. (1994). Describing collaborative forms: A profile of the teamwriting process. *IEEE transactions on professional communication*, *37*(3), 163-170.

Slavin, R. E. (1995). Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice. Allyn & Bacon.

- Stockwell, G., & Hubbard, P. (2013). Some emerging principles for mobile-assisted language learning. Monterey, CA: The International Research Foundation for English Language Education. Retrieved from <u>http://www.tirfonline.org/english-in-the-workforce/mobile-assisted-language-learning</u>
- Storch, N. (2011). Collaborative writing in L2 contexts: Processes, outcomes, and future directions. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31, 275-288. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190511000079

Storch, N. (2013). Collaborative writing in L2 classrooms. Multilingual Matters.

Strobl, C. (2014). Affordances of Web 2.0 technologies for collaborative advanced writing in a foreign language. *CALICO Journal*, 31(1), 1-18. <u>https://doi.org/10.11139/cj.31.1.1-18</u>

- Sung, Y., Chang, K., & Liu, T. (2016). The effects of integrating mobile devices with teaching and learning on students' learning performance: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. *Computers & Education*, 94, 252-275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2015.11.008
- Suwantarathip, O., & Wichadee, S. (2014). The effects of collaborative writing activity using Google docs on students' writing abilities. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *13*(2), 148-156.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2005). The Evolving Sociopolitical Context of Immersion Education in Canada: Some Implications for Program Development. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15, 169-186. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2005.00086.x</u>
- Tay, L., & Cheung, Y. L. (2019). Second and foreign language writing and computer-mediated communication: A qualitative meta-synthesis of recent research. *Issues in Language Studies*, 8(2). <u>https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1477.2019</u>
- Thomas, M., Reinders, H., & Warschauer, M. (2012). Contemporary computer-assisted language learning. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Trimbur, J. (1985). Collaborative learning and teaching writing. In B. W. McClelland & T. R.Donoyan (Eds.), *Perspectives on research and scholarship in composition* (pp. 87-109).Modern Language Association.
- Tümen Akyıldız, S., & Çelik, V. (2022). Using WhatsApp to support EFL reading comprehension skills with Turkish early secondary learners. *The Language Learning Journal*, 50(5), 650-666. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2020.1865433</u>
- Vaughn, S. (2004). Research-based methods of reading instruction: Grades K-3. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Viberg, O., & Grönlund, Å. (2013). Systematising the field of mobile assisted language learning. International Journal of Mobile and Blended Learning, 5(4), 72-90. https://doi.org/10.4018/ijmbl.2013100105
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). Thinking and speech. In R. W. Rieber & A. S. Carton (Eds.), *The collected works of L. S. Vygotsky, Volume 1: Problems of general psychology* (pp. 39–285). Plenum Press. (Original work published in 1934)
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press
- Wang, F., Ai, B., & Kostogriz, A. (2024). "Writing by oneself is too lonely": Understanding Chinese returnee scholars' English collaborative writing experiences in academic publishing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 68, 101363. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2024.101363
- Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2009). Pair versus individual writing: Effects on fluency, complexity and accuracy. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 445-466. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532209104670</u>
- Yang, Y. (2017). New language knowledge construction through indirect feedback in webbased collaborative writing. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 31(4), 459-480. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2017.1414852</u>
- Yanguas, I. (2020). L1 vs L2 synchronous text-based interaction in computer-mediated L2 writing. System, 88, 102169. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102169</u>
- Yim, S., Warschauer, M., & Zheng, B. (2016). Google Docs in the classroom: A district-wide case study. *Teachers College Record: The Voice of Scholarship in Education*, 118(9), 1-32. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811611800903</u>
- Zeybek, G., Erdemir, N., & Sayın, I. (2023). The effect of an online writing community on ELT students' academic writing motivation. In G. Yangın-Ekşi, S. Akayoğlu, & L.

Anyango (Eds.), *New directions in technology for writing instruction* (pp. 367-389). Springer.

Zorko, V. (2009). Factors affecting the way students collaborate in a Wiki for English language learning. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 25(5). https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.1113

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Focus-group interview questions in English

Descriptive Information

Age:

Years of experience in English language teaching:

The questions consist of two parts. First, it will focus only on mobile technology, and then, it will focus on mobile technology in collaborative learning.

Mobile Technology

1. To what extent are you interested in mobile technology? What are your preferences? Prompt: WhatsApp, Telegram, Google Docs, Zoom, Meet, Moodle, Google Classroom, Facebook Group, etc.

- 2. How often do you use mobile technology for educational purposes?
- 3. Have you ever used WhatsApp and Google Docs for educational purposes? If yes, how often do you use WhatsApp and Google Docs for educational purposes?
- 4. What are the benefits and challenges of using WhatsApp for educational purposes?
- 5. What are the benefits and challenges of using Google Docs for educational purposes?

Mobile Technology in Collaborative Learning

- To what extent are you interested in collaborative learning?
 Prompt: Group work, Project work, Group Discussion, Roleplay, etc.
- 2. How often do you use collaborative learning for educational purposes?
- 3. Have you ever been involved in collaborative learning? If yes, how often do you use collaborative learning?
- 4. What are the benefits and challenges of using WhatsApp Research Group for collaborative learning?
- 5. What are the benefits and challenges of using Google Docs Research Group for collaborative learning?

Appendix B. Focus-group interview questions in Turkish

Açıklayıcı Bilgiler

Yaş:

İngilizce öğretiminde yılların deneyimi:

Sorular iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır. Önce sadece mobil teknolojiye odaklanılacaktır, daha sonra ise iş birliğine dayalı öğrenmede mobil teknolojiye odaklanılacaktır.

Mobil Teknoloji

1. Mobil teknoloji ile ne ölçüde ilgileniyorsunuz? Tercihleriniz nelerdir?

İpucu: WhatsApp, Telegram, Google Docs, Zoom, Meet, Moodle, Google Classroom, Facebook Group, vb.

- 2. Mobil teknolojiyi eğitim amaçlı olarak ne sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?
- 3. WhatsApp ve Google Docs'u hiç eğitim amaçlı kullandınız mı? Cevabınız evet ise, WhatsApp ve Google Docs'u eğitim amaçlı olarak ne sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?
- 4. WhatsApp'ı eğitim amaçlı kullanmanın faydaları ve zorlukları nelerdir?
- 5. Google Docs'u eğitim amaçlı kullanmanın faydaları ve zorlukları nelerdir?

İşbirliğine Dayalı Öğrenmede Mobil Teknoloji

1. İşbirliğine dayalı öğrenmeye ne ölçüde ilgi duyuyorsunuz?

İpucu: Grup çalışması, Proje çalışması, Grup Tartışması, Rol Oynama, vb.

- 2. İşbirliğine dayalı öğrenmeyi eğitim amaçlı olarak ne sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?
- 3. Hiç işbirliğine dayalı öğrenmeye dahil oldunuz mu? Cevabınız evet ise, işbiriliğine dayalı öğrenmeyi ne sıklıkla kullanıyorsunuz?
- 4. İşbirliğine dayalı öğrenme için WhatsApp Araştırma Grubu kullanmanın faydaları ve zorlukları nelerdir?
- 5. İşbirliğine dayalı öğrenme için Google Docs Araştırma Grubunu kullanmanın faydaları ve zorlukları nelerdir?

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Dr. Nihan ERDEMİR

ORCID: 0000-0002-8610-3590

nihanerdemir@gmail.com

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Nihan Erdemir is an English Language Teaching Assistant Professor at Süleyman Demirel University, Turkey. She holds a Ph.D. from Gazi University, Turkey, and an M.A. from the University of Vienna, Austria. She taught English and Turkish in Austria and Turkey for over seven years. Her research interests are academic writing, language teacher education, and classroom research.



Dr. Derya COŞKUN

ORCID: 0000-0001-6044-6109

deryacoskun@sdu.edu.tr

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

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



Res. Asst. İdil SAYIN

ORCID: 0000-0001-5546-2673

idilsayin@sdu.edu.tr

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

İdil SAYIN is currently pursuing her PhD in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Hacettepe University and is working as a research assistant at Süleyman Demirel University's ELT Department. She obtained her BA in ELT from Süleyman Demirel University in 2018 and completed her MA in ELT at the same institution in 2020. Additionally, she earned an MS in Measurement and Evaluation in Education from Hacettepe University in 2023. Her research interests include measurement and evaluation in ELT, technology in language education, and language assessment.

Cite this Chapter

Erdemir, N., Coşkun, D. & Sayın, İ. (2024). Enhancing collaborative writing of graduate students through Whatsapp and Google docs: An academic writing course. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 178-210). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 9: CULTIVATING EFFECTIVE MINDS: INTEGRATING CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS IN EFL/ESL INSTRUCTION

Hayriye AVARA 🔟

1. Introduction

The twenty-first century has seen tremendous transformations in every aspect of life, including education. Innovations, creativity, inclusion, global communication, multicultural cultures, human mobility, digital literacy, and technological developments are characteristics of this century. As a result, it has become a necessity that students in the twenty-first century develop skills that differ from those of their predecessors. In a same vein, schools should prepare students for a new social and economic environment as well as a more demanding and skill-focused life and job. In other words, in order to better prepare students for a changing environment where they must acquire the skills required for the twenty-first century, education must be improved in every aspect, including teaching methods, course materials, and assessment practices. Therefore, understanding and applying "Critical Thinking" as a 21st century skill is essential.

Critical thinking, as defined by Facione (2020), is approaching information in an active, methodical, and critical manner. This talent enhances a person's capacity to evaluate opposing viewpoints, challenge claims, and draw logical conclusions. Information gathering, assessment, and analysis procedures are all part of critical thinking. Through this approach, people can improve their ability to critically detach themselves from information while also honing their skills in questioning and analyzing it.

Being a critical thinker entails distinguishing between lateral thinking, which is the ability to assess and appraise the nature of an event, occurrence, or issue and integrate solutions that make sense given the circumstances. As a matter of fact, it is the process of thinking through gathering, presenting, and producing new information from individuals. Regardless of the source, critical thinkers never take anything for granted. Rather, they bring up important issues and queries, address them succinctly, gather and assess pertinent data, apply it in an abstract manner, comprehend concepts clearly, and interact with people in a productive manner.

The importance of critical thinking in education has been widely recognized, especially in the context of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). Critical thinking skills, which enable learners to analyze, evaluate, and create new understandings, are essential for language acquisition and effective communication in a globalized world.

Critical thinking is a cognitive capacity that entails the assessment, analysis, and conclusionmaking of data. This talent enhances a person's capacity to evaluate opposing viewpoints, challenge claims, and draw logical conclusions. Paul and Elder (2014) define critical thinking as the ability to analyze and evaluate information objectively. Critical thinking abilities help students study language more deeply in EFL and ESL lessons and encourage them to use language not just for functional purposes but also for meaning creation and communication (Facione, 2015).

Ennis (2011) describes critical thinking as the process of applying reason and clarity when making decisions about what to do or believe. Through this approach, students are able to become active producers of information rather than just passive consumers of it. Critical thinking abilities are particularly crucial for language learners as they enable them to comprehend the grammatical and cultural aspects of language and use language to communicate intricate ideas (Facione, 2015). Students gain a wider perspective when critical thinking, creative thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities are integrated into language teaching processes.

2. The Value of Fostering Critical Thinking Skills

Critical thinking abilities help students study language more deeply in EFL and ESL lessons and encourage them to use language not just for functional purposes but also for meaning creation and communication (Facione, 2015). Because critical thinking abilities allow students to do more than just use language for communication, they also allow them to use language to study the world around them, critical thinking has become an integral aspect of English language instruction.

According to Brookfield (2012), critical thinking enables students to challenge their own ideas and be receptive to different viewpoints. Furthermore, critical thinking abilities enable students to assess a text's underlying meaning, better comprehend various cultural viewpoints, and comprehend the language's social context in English classes (Atkinson, 2017).

3. Critical Thinking and English Language Education

Critical thinking is one of the key skills required for both general education and language learning. Students gain various advantages from developing critical thinking skills. Their intellectual capacities as well as their language proficiency are enhanced when critical thinking is incorporated into the language learning process. The importance of critical thinking in EFL/ESL instruction can be covered under a variety of subjects.

Critical thinking guarantees that English language learners do not see language as merely a mechanical process. Language learning procedures take on greater significance as pupils get an understanding of the social and cultural aspects of the language. By applying critical thinking techniques, students improve their communication abilities by doing in-depth text analyses and comprehending the motivations underlying discussions. According to Lipman (2003), critical thinking helps pupils become more cognitively capable as well as more proficient in language.

Critical thinking helps students comprehend language's various meaning levels and social functions in the context of language instruction. Developing a critical mindset when interacting with many cultures and linguistic practices is a crucial aspect of language learning, particularly in the context of globalization. Language educators can facilitate a deeper understanding of the language learners' new language and its social context by fostering critical thinking in their pupils (Brookfield, 2012).

Being able to approach information analytically, critically, and creatively is a thinking talent known as critical thinking. In the context of language instruction, critical thinking gives students the chance to comprehend the language on a deeper level and go beyond only learning grammar rules by memory. Pupils get an understanding of language's social and cultural surroundings, how to examine language meaning, and how to assess other points of view.

Critical thinking is included in language instruction to assist students to become more autonomous and creative thinkers while also strengthening their language proficiency. As critical thinking is observed as the skill of approaching knowledge analytically, critically, and creatively, in the context of language instruction, it gives learners the chance to comprehend the language on a deeper level and go beyond only learning grammar rules by memory. Students learn how to analyze language meaning, evaluate opposing viewpoints, and comprehend the social and cultural context of language. Paul and Elder (2008) contend that students can gain a deeper understanding of language by approaching it with a questioning mindset and that critical thinking is a valuable tool in language learning. This guarantees that students comprehend the

social and cultural aspects of the language in addition to grammatical principles, especially when teaching foreign languages.

Additionally, in language education, critical thinking skills development improves students' ability to communicate in both their native tongue and a foreign language. Conversely, Lipman (2003) highlights that critical thinking empowers students to take a more active part in language learning as well as other learning processes. This viewpoint holds that critical thinking in the context of language instruction gives pupils the skills they need to acquire the language and utilize it more creatively and meaningfully.

Rather than only learning the language's rules by heart, students can gain a deeper understanding of the reasons behind and applications of these principles through the application of critical thinking abilities. Students are often curious about the cultural, social, and psychological aspects of language in addition to grammar. They are able to acquire a critical viewpoint as a result (Duron et al., 2006). Hence, students' intellectual capacities as well as their language proficiency are enhanced when critical thinking is incorporated into the language learning process.

Critical thinking improves linguistic proficiency as well as cultural sensitivity. Through the application of critical thinking techniques, students from diverse cultural backgrounds can gain a deeper understanding and empathy for other cultures in EFL/ESL programs. This enables pupils to communicate more successfully by considering cultural variations when utilizing the language (Brookfield, 2012). When using the language in various cultural situations, second language learners, in particular, acquire a critical viewpoint.

In this context, it would be beneficial to examine it under a few fundamental topics in order to comprehend how critical thinking affects EFL students' growth. These comprise crucial components including cognitive growth, cultural awareness, empathy, and the capacity for independent learning.

3.1. Development of Cognitive Skills

Cognitive abilities, which is closely related to the development of critical thinking skills, are mental processes that allow people to comprehend new knowledge, solve problems, process information, and analyze it. These skills are crucial for learning a language as well. In other words, one of the most crucial instruments for the development of cognitive capacities in language learning is critical thinking. Critical thinking directly affects how students learn and

utilize language, especially in EFL/ESL classes. To Zohar and Dori (2003), students can use language more creatively and meaningfully when their cognitive skills in language learning improve. Students who apply critical thinking techniques are able to utilize language more flexibly and creatively, as well as comprehend complicated language structures and meanings better.

Facione (2015), who defines critical thinking as the capacity for in-depth analysis, evaluation, and conclusion drawing, also argues that these abilities are closely related to cognitive abilities. Thus, in the context of EFL/ESL classes, the development of critical thinking skills enhances students' cognitive capacities in addition to their language competency. As Paul and Elder (2014) assert students who engage in critical thinking are better able to examine language and information, which enhances their cognitive processes. Cognitive skills are the processes of thought required by students in order to comprehend, analyse, and apply knowledge to novel situations. These abilities are essential for language learning, usage, and in-depth comprehension in EFL/ESL schools.

Learning a language, according to Bloom (1956) involves more than just memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary; it also entails applying language to analyze new information, solve problems, and cultivate critical thinking abilities. Students can develop these cognitive skills further and gain a deeper understanding of the material by using critical thinking.

3.1.1. Ability to Think Creatively and Analytically

The development of creative thinking abilities is also fostered by critical thinking. Students that use creative thinking are able to come up with novel ideas and articulate them verbally. This frees them from the confines of only learning language's fundamental structures and enables them to acquire more sophisticated thinking and expressing abilities. According to Torrance (1993), critical thinking serves as a catalyst for the development of high-level cognitive abilities, and creative thinking plays a significant part in this process. Students who engage in critical thinking are able to utilize language more creatively and effectively, especially when writing and speaking.

Moreover, students who use critical thinking are able to comprehend language on a deeper level. Students who engage in critical thinking are better able to comprehend and interpret information, according to Duron et al. (2006). For instance, by critically analyzing the meaning of a speech or text, the student acquires a deeper knowledge of the relationship between linguistic patterns and cultural contexts in the text. This directly affects the maturation of cognitive capacities.

Critical thinking, on the other hand, is the capacity for in-depth examination, comparison, and challenging of concepts, ideas, or information that is offered. According to Ennis (2011), critical thinking is the capacity to reason logically, challenge information sources, and come to a consistent conclusion. Analyzing the meanings and social settings behind language is just one aspect of critical thinking, which is a talent that extends beyond knowing grammar. Halpern (2014) asserts that language learners can gain a deeper grasp by challenging the language's cultural and historical settings in addition to concentrating on the language's surface structure by applying critical thinking techniques.

Students that use critical thinking skills are able to examine the underlying meanings, intents, and views of a book in addition to understanding it at a surface level. According to Duron et al. (2006), students' use and comprehension of language are greatly enhanced by critical thinking. Students that use critical thinking skills are able to examine the underlying meanings, intents, and views of a book in addition to understanding it at a surface level. The development of these abilities gives students the chance to analyze texts critically and gain a deeper understanding of how language is utilized in various linguistic and cultural contexts in EFL/ESL classes.

As focused on by Elder and Paul (2009), students with critical thinking abilities are able to evaluate a problem from several perspectives, especially when writing and speaking, which enhances their ability to communicate effectively and creatively. Language learners can improve their understanding of grammatical structures and the processes involved in meaning creation and communication through these practices. Students with critical thinking abilities can approach language learning from a variety of angles. Pupils can challenge the material in books, comprehend language usage, and creatively convey this information. Critical thinking, according to Elder and Paul (2009), improves students' ability to solve problems and think creatively. By applying these abilities, students can analyze more deeply and communicate more effectively, particularly in written and spoken communication.

Therefore, it is vital to concentrate on how these two ideas interact in EFL/ESL courses in order to comprehend how critical thinking helps to enhance cognitive abilities. Students that possess critical thinking skills are better able to use language, analyze, question, and evaluate information; cognitive talents are also important in these processes.

3.1.2. Fostering Decision-Making and Problem-Solving Skills

The importance of developing critical thinking skills for EFL/ESL students cannot be overstated, as it improves their capacity for decision-making and problem-solving. Additionally, students who practice critical thinking are taught how to analyze language, create arguments, and take a multifaceted approach to problems in addition to linguistic skills. Thus, they become better equipped to solve problems and think analytically in order to overcome language obstacles.

According to Jonassen (2011), students who use critical thinking are able to approach language learning challenges in a more imaginative and analytical manner. The problem-based learning (PBL) approach fosters critical thinking while enhancing students' capacity for analytical thought and problem-solving. Through this technique, students may use language to answer problems in a logical and ordered manner. The verbal and cognitive growth of students is supported by their ability to solve problems. Therefore, these abilities let students transcend beyond linguistic patterns and use language as a tool for communication and meaning creation, particularly when learning a language.

Students with critical thinking abilities can access, evaluate, and make reasoned conclusions from a variety of sources. In language studies, students are required to analyze texts, scenarios, and real-world examples and decide which course of action to take after considering the available information (Facione, 2011). For instance, debating exercises or debates help students hone their abilities to evaluate claims, weigh opposing viewpoints, and stand by their own conclusions. To Paul and Elder (2014), these kinds of exercises improve students' capacity to make wiser decisions in a variety of real-world scenarios and go beyond the language acquisition process

The process of problem-solving requires critical thinking. According to Brookfield (2012), students analyze problems they come across by considering their causes, effects, and potential remedies. In order to overcome language or cultural hurdles, students in EFL/ESL classes must actively apply their problem-solving abilities. Students may need to go past linguistic or cultural obstacles in order to collaborate to solve a problem in a group study, for instance. Lau (2011) argues that their capacity to think critically allows students to come up with original and practical answers during this process.

Critical thinking skills are incorporated into the course curriculum in EFL/ESL programs, which helps students' cognitive and language development. Through critical reading exercises,

according to Fisher (2011), for instance, students can challenge the concepts found in books, formulate their own concepts, and use language to communicate these concepts. Fisher (2011) adds that by providing students with more methodical and in-depth thinking skills, these activities enhance both their language acquisition and general life skills.

3.2. Development of Empathy and Cultural Awareness

In its broadest definition, empathy is the capacity to comprehend the thoughts, feelings, and experiences of another person and, through doing so, to form an emotional connection. In other words, it is the ability to comprehend the thoughts and feelings of another person and behave accordingly is known as empathy. According to Batson (2009), empathy is the capacity to take on another person's viewpoint and comprehend and experience their feelings. In this situation, empathy is both a cognitive ability and an emotional activity. People can comprehend many points of view and challenge their own ideas by combining critical thinking and empathy.

Empathy is a critical component of language learning because it allows learners to understand the thoughts and feelings of language users. Therefore, in order to foster a supportive environment for language learning in the classroom, empathy is also crucial. Therefore, as a crucial element of critical thinking, empathy can be incorporated into language acquisition procedures.

Students studying EFL/ESL have the opportunity to cultivate empathy by attempting to comprehend the viewpoints of individuals from other cultural backgrounds. As they acquire the language, this aids students in being more culturally aware. Rogers (1951) suggests that teachers can help students and foster a more inclusive learning environment by being aware of their unique challenges. Students gain confidence in their language learning process and become less fearful of making mistakes as a result. An empathic teaching style can significantly lessen students' fear of making mistakes when learning a language. Empathy, to Mercer (2016), fosters positive interactions between students and instructors as well as positive relationships among the student body. By fostering relationships based on empathy, this connection aids in the process of learning a language.

According to Barrett (2017), empathy also helps students understand words and grammar structures as well as the cultural and social aspects of the language, especially when learning a second language. Students can gain a deeper understanding of how and why people use language in particular ways by developing empathy. This improves communication proficiency during the process of learning a language.

Developing empathy is essential to the growth of critical thinking abilities. The teacher can assist students in developing empathy and comprehension of various viewpoints. Students with empathy abilities are able to apply their understanding of various cultural and social situations to critical thinking exercises.

Critical thinking abilities and empathy are two crucial cognitive processes that work well together. While empathy in language acquisition enables people to comprehend many points of view, critical thinking promotes the process of challenging and assessing these viewpoints (Paul & Elder, 2019). As a language learner attempts to develop empathy in order to comprehend a foreign culture and language, his critical thinking abilities enable him to assess the social dynamics of this language at a deeper level. With the help of these two abilities, students can approach the language learning process with greater flexibility, comprehension, and openness. These two competencies facilitate students' ability to approach the language acquisition process with greater adaptability, receptivity, and comprehension.

3.3. Acquiring Self-Drive and Self-Resilience

Students' cognitive awareness and self-regulation skills both improve with critical thinking. A person's capacity to observe and manage their own thought processes is known as metacognitive skills. Flavell (1979) explains that by strengthening their metacognitive abilities, students who engage in critical thinking are better able to better oversee their own learning processes. Within EFL/ESL classes, metacognitive abilities enable students to make decisions about which language learning tactics to employ, assess their efficacy, and adjust when needed.

The capacity of students to organize, oversee, and assess their own learning is known as self-regulation. According to Schraw (1998), with this ability, students can learn languages more responsibly and independently. Students that engage in critical thinking become more adept at assessing and refining their own learning practices. For instance, while they are learning a language, pupils examine their own errors and figure out how to improve. In EFL/ESL classrooms, critical thinking abilities boost students' drive to learn and their ability to study on their own. Lai (2011) believes that students approach knowledge more thoughtfully and participate more actively in the learning process when they use critical thinking skills. This raises students' enthusiasm in the learning process and gives them the ability to take on greater responsibility, particularly while learning a language.

3.4. Contributions to Career and Life

Students' language competency is increased in EFL/ESL classes by developing critical thinking abilities, which also have a positive impact on their daily lives and jobs. People with critical thinking abilities can approach challenges more critically and come up with workable answers. Facione (2015) writes that this ability is crucial for decision-making, particularly in the business sector, as well as for enhancing problem-solving skills and producing knowledge-based analyses. In addition to improving academic performance, critical thinking abilities enable people to make wiser judgments in both their personal and professional lives. As mentioned by Paul and Elder (2014), people with higher critical thinking skills, for instance, analyze situations more effectively and come up with more original answers to difficulties they face in daily life or during job interviews, which help them become more successful.

Students who develop their critical thinking abilities grow into more adaptable and imaginative professionals. The ability to think critically gives one the chance to assess many viewpoints and solve complicated problems. This, as explained by Davidson and Dunham (1997), is particularly significant in the context of the worldwide business world because it makes it possible to function well in settings where disparate intellectual and cultural frameworks collide.

Ennis (2011) also asserts that critical thinking has a positive impact on people's lives by helping them manage personal issues, properly assess information from the media, and interact with others more skillfully. The ability to make more autonomous, thoughtful, and rational decisions in their daily lives is given to pupils via these skills.

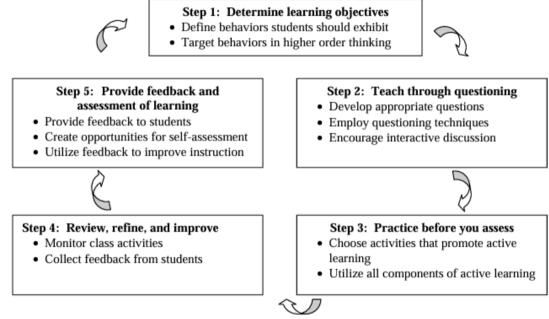
4. Strategies for Developing Critical Thinking Ability

Although the lecture style is a time-tested and widely used method of delivering knowledge in higher education, according to Duron et al. (2006), it frequently discourages students from engaging in active learning or critical thinking. Because the lecture style is teacher-centered and has a solid academic tradition, it is frequently chosen by those who are new to teaching. Unfortunately, the lecture format makes it exceedingly difficult for students to develop their critical thinking abilities. Since the lecture style makes it easier to impart much knowledge, topics are covered in a sequential manner rather than critically, and students have a tendency to memorize the content.

As focused on by Duron et al. (2006), incorporating critical thinking skills into the curriculum helps students' cognitive and language growth in EFL/ESL programs. Students can challenge

concepts found in books, generate original ideas, and use language to communicate these ideas through critical reading exercises, for instance. Fisher (2011) also writes that by equipping students with more methodical and sophisticated thinking abilities, these activities enhance both their language learning and general life skills

To successfully encourage students to think critically, Duron et al. (2006) propose a 5-step framework (see Figure 1) that can be used in almost any type of training or educational environment. With its foundation in current theory and best practices in cognitive development, productive learning environments, and outcomes-based assessment, this interdisciplinary model offers teachers a helpful framework for guiding students and lecture-based courses toward an experiential learning environment.



Source: (Duron et al., 2006, p. 161)

Figure 1. 5-Step model to move students toward critical thinking

Duron et al. (2006) explain the steps they suggest in Figure 1 as summarized below:

Step 1 is related to establishing the learning goals. That is, the teacher should first determine the major learning objectives, which specify the behaviors that students should display when they leave the class, taking into account the significance of the course, its placement in the program of study, and its function in providing a foundation of information to be built upon by later courses. These learning objectives, along with the activities and assessments linked to the higher levels of Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, are necessary to foster critical thinking. Writing clear learning objectives in line with Bloom's Taxonomy levels is explained in the text. Students

are encouraged to exhibit particular behaviors at each level, which are illustrated via questions that encourage critical thinking. As an illustration:

- Knowledge requires simple recall of facts, "Who" and "What" inquiries, are necessary for knowledge.
- > Understanding the material entails comprehension (e.g., summarize, explain).
- > Application requires students to apply knowledge to novel contexts (e.g., apply, solve).
- Pattern recognition and component classification (e.g., categorize, analyze) are necessary for analysis.
- Synthesis is the process of blending knowledge to generate original work (e.g., create, construct).
- > Assessment requests a conclusion based on a well-reasoned case (e.g., assess, evaluate).

(Duron et al., 2006)

Step 2 focuses on the significance of using question while teaching. In other words, the relevance of asking questions in the classroom is emphasized throughout the text since it fosters the emergence of new ideas and aids in the assessment of prior knowledge. Interaction is sparked by questions, which also push pupils' critical thinking. It is asserted that that students' thinking is greatly influenced by the questions they are asked in class, and that the complexity of the questions has an effect on the students' thinking level. As students gain familiarity with concepts, teachers should gradually introduce higher-level questions that are carefully planned and purposefully presented. Careful planning is essential to make this experience easier. Students' ability to think can be developed through the use of questioning strategies. There are several categories into which questions can be divided. Using the broad categories of convergent and divergent inquiries is one easy way. Divergent questions aim for a broad range of correct responses, whereas convergent questions seek one or more extremely specific answers. Convergent questions, such as "Define nutrition," relate to Bloom's lower levels of Knowledge, Comprehension, and Application as explained by Duron et al. (2006).

Step 3 suggests practicing before assessing. According to Duron et al. (2006), active learning has been the focus of a significant change in education during the last ten years. Instructors who have employed this strategy report that their classes are more fun and that the students learn more. Teachers must learn how to improve the entire learning process by including opportunities for reflective dialogue and experiential learning if we are to make learning more dynamic. It is added that in-depth reflective dialogue is a crucial component of active learning. Students might use this as an opportunity to consider the significance of their educational

experience. Reflection can be done in private, as in a journal, or in public, such as in a class discussion. Teachers, to Duron et al. (2006), should think about the forms of active learning that might foster critical thinking when deciding what should be covered in a course. Extending the definition of active learning to encompass obtaining knowledge and concepts, experience, reflection, and, if feasible, firsthand experience is necessary in order to optimize the learning process and provide a comprehensive set of learning activities.

Step 4, as suggested by Duron et al. (2006), dwells upon evaluation, polishing, and enhancing. To guarantee that their teaching strategies are actually assisting students in developing critical thinking abilities, educators should make a constant effort to improve their curricula. Teachers need to keep a careful eye on everything going on in the classroom in order to achieve this. A teaching journal can be used to record student involvement by listing the students who took part, outlining the major activities in class, and offering a grade based on their performance. This diary allows for the tracking of additional reflecting remarks, which are quite helpful for updating or changing educational materials. In addition, utilizing student input is another crucial strategy for course enhancement. One method suggested in this step is that students are asked to name the most essential lesson they learned. Teachers can go over the comments and utilize them to highlight certain concerns in upcoming lessons. Teaching and learning can be improved by having a discussion with the students about the response patterns.

Step 5 focuses on the significance of the assessment of what was learned and giving feedback. In order to measure the quality of work, teacher feedback, like evaluation, contrasts criteria and standards with student performance. Feedback, however, is intended to improve the level of student performance and learning rather than to assign grades. More significantly, though, is that it may teach students how to evaluate their own work in the future. Feedback enables the teacher and student(s) to examine standards and criteria and to have a conversation about what separates successful performance from bad performance. Instructors, according to Duron et al. (2006), ought to give their students constructive criticism by giving them plenty of chances to practice the skills they will need for assessments. Instructors must dedicate sufficient time to assisting pupils in comprehending the meaning behind the standards and criteria. Peer assessment and comments are also possible. All these methods, some of which are explained briefly below, assist students in learning the difference between acceptable and unacceptable work.

4.1. Discussions and Debates

Students can assess many viewpoints and hone their critical thinking abilities when given the chance to debate a particular subject. As per Brookfield (2012), students can study diverse points of view by engaging in a discussion about the characters in a literary text. One of the best techniques for helping pupils improve their critical thinking abilities, according to Paul and Elder (2019), is the Socratic discussion method. With this approach, the instructor probes the students' thought processes and helps them do the same. Such talks help students develop their critical thinking abilities and language proficiency, especially in language learning classrooms.

In EFL lessons, a number of additional widely used strategies can be used to enhance critical thinking skills. For example, problem-based learning (PBL) fosters both linguistic competency and critical thinking by encouraging students to analyze real-world challenges by applying language abilities in a meaningful context. Engaging in role-playing and discussion exercises enables students to weigh other viewpoints, assess arguments, and develop well-reasoned responses. Furthermore, Socratic questioning can be used to go deeper into comprehension by encouraging students to critically evaluate their presumptions and concepts. Group projects and peer reviews are examples of collaborative learning activities that provide students the chance to debate ideas, clarify meaning, and improve their thought processes. Teachers can improve language acquisition and foster higher-order thinking in their students by incorporating these strategies into their classes. In today's increasingly globalized and information-rich contexts, higher-order thinking is critical for students' academic and personal growth.

4.2. Problem-Based Learning

As students solve real-world issues, they hone their critical thinking abilities. With this approach, as Atkinson (2017) writes, children can utilize language not just grammatically but also functionally and meaningfully, which is especially beneficial in the context of language instruction. Brookfield, (2017) also writes that students' critical thinking abilities can be developed quite effectively through problem-solving exercises The foundation of this approach is posing actual issues to pupils and encouraging them to look for answers. Students actively use language and engage in critical thinking while they analyze challenges. As an illustration, students can attempt to come up with fixes for environmental issues. Through this process, students hone their critical thinking abilities and improve their language proficiency.

4.3. Writing Exercises

High-level mental abilities like evaluating, comparing, drawing conclusions, and considering outcomes can be developed by students through writing tasks that foster critical thinking. Duron et al. (2006) suggest that writing a story from the perspective of a different character can aid students in developing empathy and thinking critically about events. To illustrate, when presenting a story to students in an EFL lesson, the teacher asks the students to evaluate the actions of the main character. This enables pupils to do critical analysis of characters.

Similarly, Stapleton (2019) asserts that students can effectively arrange their thoughts and communicate them critically by using writing tasks. Analytical writing procedures particularly encourage critical thinking. By requiring them to create an argument on a given subject, teachers help students assess competing viewpoints, locate supporting data, and build strong arguments for their own ideas and reinforce their own opinions. For instance, requiring students to write about a subject that is debatable and does not require clear-cut 'True' or 'False' solutions encourages critical thinking. Students who write about a subject need to provide evidence for their claims and take into account opposing viewpoints. Students, according to Cottrell (2017), can overcome their tendencies to view events from one perspective by engaging in such studies and their critical thinking and linguistic skills both improve as a result of these kinds of activities.

Furthermore, writings that focus on finding solutions to problems encourage critical thinking as well as creative thinking. Halpern (2014) asserts that students examine an issue, offer several solutions, and assess the potential effects of each choice. In addition to problem-solving-oriented writings, writing tasks related to comparing and contrasting ideas help students understand concepts more deeply, which makes it another crucial component of critical thinking. For instance, a comparison essay highlighting the distinctions between two topics can be required of the students. They acquire the ability to compare and contrast two thoughts in this way because they must weigh the benefits and drawbacks of different approaches to accomplish this.

Additionally, text analysis, or the ability to evaluate a spoken or written material, is one of the fundamental elements of critical thinking. For text analysis essays, students need to assess the language, messages, and subtexts used by the author. According to Paul and Elder (2008), these types of writings assist students in gaining a deeper comprehension and critical analysis of the

text. As an example, students can be asked about the narrative and linguistic techniques used to support the main idea in this story. Paul and Elder (2008) believe that these kinds of essays assist students in gaining a better comprehension and applying critical analysis to the text.

4.4. Reflective Learning

Reflective learning enriches learning and critical thinking in important ways. In the view of Schön (1983), when students examine their own educational experiences and assess the lessons they have acquired from them, they are engaging in reflective learning. Brookfield (2012) asserts that throughout the review process, critical thinking is crucial because it enables individuals to examine, assess, and create future learning strategies that are more successful.

Students, according to Moon (2020), that engage in reflective learning are able to consider and critically assess their own learning processes. Through journaling, students can watch how they learn and apply critical thinking techniques to these processes. For instance, teachers can invite students to journal every week on their educational journey. With the aid of these journals, students can evaluate how they are learning the language and consider more efficient ways to acquire it. By giving students the chance to assess information and experiences in a more flexible and inquisitive manner, critical thinking abilities promote deep learning as opposed to surface-level learning (Moon, 2020). The learner can comprehend not only what he has learned but also how and why he has learned it in this manner through the use of critical thinking in this process. Therefore, as Kember (2001) asserts, students can become more adaptable and innovative problem solvers in the complex situations they will face in the future by utilizing the relationship between reflective learning and critical thinking When paired with critical thinking abilities, reflective learning empowers people to make better decisions in their personal and professional life.

4.5. Role-play and Simulations

In EFL/ESL classes, the use of role-playing and simulation techniques to foster critical thinking has grown in significance in recent years. These methods, to Al-Issa and Al-Qubtan (2010), allow students to actively apply their critical thinking abilities in addition to helping them to become more proficient language learners. Through the approach of role-playing, students learn to comprehend other people's viewpoints as well as their own by acting out a specific circumstance while assuming a character. As explained by Rojas-Drummond and Mercer (2003), students gain critical thinking abilities as a result of this, which fosters empathy and examination of opposing viewpoints.

Through the use of simulation tools, as Tompkins (2011) focuses on, students can experience difficult scenarios that they would come into in real life. Using these strategies, students solve problems, make decisions, and construct logical arguments all within the confines of a predetermined scenario. According to Bozdoğan (2015), students can enhance their critical thinking abilities, make well-informed decisions, and hone their ability to defend such decisions through the use of simulations. Furthermore, to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), learning becomes deeper and more lasting since these procedures require students to continuously apply critical thinking abilities.

Recent studies have shown that role-playing and simulation methods help students learn language while also fostering their ability to solve problems and think analytically (Vatanartiran & Karadeniz, 2015). Children benefit from these activities by feeling more confident since they can make mistakes in a safe environment in the classroom and learn from them. Also, by contextualizing language learning and giving students the chance to practice real-world scenarios, these strategies help students apply their newly acquired language abilities more successfully (Ertürk & Şahin, 2020).

4.6. Text Analysis

In EFL/ESL programs, the use of text analysis as a critical thinking method not only helps students become more proficient in language but also reinforces their ability to evaluate and conduct knowledge-based inquiry. Bacha (2010) writes that this method assists students in delving deeper into the texts they read, examining the author's aims as well as the language and rhetorical devices employed Students, to McLaughlin and DeVoogd (2016), can specifically challenge the information provided, assess other viewpoints, and examine the underlying themes of texts through critical reading and text analysis

By encouraging students to analyze language patterns, semantic linkages, and writing styles in texts, teachers can help them develop critical thinking skills. As focused on by Yang, (2012), this approach is known as text analysis strategy. With the use of this technique, students can examine the author, context, and goal of the text critically. For instance, Klimova (2013) explains that students can assess the reliability of the supporting evidence and the logical coherence of the arguments in a text while doing an analysis. Through this process, the learner gains proficiency in information analysis and evaluation in addition to learning language structures.

The development of students' critical thinking abilities, to Fahim and Sa'eepour (2011), has proven to be greatly aided by EFL/ESL instruction in recent years. Lun et al. (2010) assert that text analysis teaches pupils to think through more tasks and improves their reading comprehension. According to this method, it impacts and develops their independence as learners.

Students' critical perspectives and cross-cultural understanding are expanded when they can comprehend texts published in various cultural contexts better thanks to text analysis according to Abednia and Izadinia (2013). Students' language ability is enhanced by this component of critical thinking not only in terms of vocabulary and grammar but also in terms of expressive and critical language use.

5. Conclusion

Fostering critical thinking abilities in English language learners benefits their linguistic and cognitive growth. These abilities help students become more successful people in life and get a deeper understanding of the language and the world around them. Students' language learning processes are deepened and their ability to utilize language more creatively is enhanced when critical thinking abilities are incorporated into language education. This enhances the language and cognitive abilities of the students. In addition, empathy and critical thinking abilities are crucial elements of language learning. Students can have a deeper knowledge of language in terms of grammar, culture, and social interactions by honing these skills. These abilities encourage people to participate more actively, feel more comfortable learning a language, and have a deeper understanding of the language's cultural context.

Critical thinking skills development helps EFL/ESL students become more than just language learners; it also helps them become competent decision-makers and problem solvers in all spheres of their lives. Students have the chance to succeed in their social and academic life when these skills are reinforced in the classroom through activities. Gaining critical thinking abilities in EFL/ESL lessons helps students to analyze language learning processes, think critically, and assess various points of view. By assisting learners in this process, teachers may promote critical thinking settings and empathy abilities in their students.

These abilities can be developed through techniques like Socratic dialogues, problem-solving exercises, and reflective learning. Subsequent studies may investigate the function of critical thinking in the process of acquiring a language. These abilities can be developed through techniques like Socratic dialogues, problem-solving exercises, and reflective learning.

Subsequent studies may investigate the function of critical thinking in the process of acquiring a language.

In brief, students who possess these abilities will be broadly competent in communication, problem solving, and decision making. Through the development of critical thinking abilities in EFL/ESL classes, students can become more productive, self-reliant, and imaginative people in both their personal and professional lives.

REFERENCES

- Abednia, A., & Izadinia, M. (2013). Critical pedagogy in ELT classroom: Exploring contributions of critical literacy to learners' critical consciousness. *Language Awareness*, 22(4), 338–352. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2012.733400</u>
- Al-Issa, A., & Al-Qubtan, R. (2010). Taking the floor: Oral presentations in EFL classrooms. *TESOL Journal*, 1(2), 227–246. <u>https://doi.org/10.5054/tj.2010.220425</u>

Atkinson, D. (2017). Critical approaches to second language acquisition. Routledge.

- Bacha, N. N. (2010). Teaching the academic argument in a university EFL environment. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(3), 229–241. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2010.05.001</u>
- Barrett, L. F. (2017). *How emotions are made: The secret life of the brain*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Batson, C. D. (2009). These things called empathy: Eight related but distinct phenomena. https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/9780262012973.003.0002
- Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals*. Longman.
- Brookfield, S. D. (2012). *Teaching for critical thinking: Tools and techniques to help students question their assumptions*. Jossey-Bass.
- Bozdoğan, D. (2015). The role of simulations and games in language learning. *Procedia Social* and Behavioral Sciences, 186, 206–209. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.066</u>
- Cottrell, S. (2017). *Critical thinking skills: Developing effective analysis and argument* (3rd ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Davidson, B., & Dunham, R. (1997). Assessing critical thinking in English language learning: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(3), 601–604. https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2020.117085

Duron, R., Limbach, B., & Waugh, W. (2006). Critical thinking framework for any discipline. International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 17(2), 160–166. <u>https://valenciacollege.edu/faculty/development/courses-</u> resources/documents/CTFrameworkArticle.pdf

Elder, L., & Paul, R. (2009). Critical thinking development: A stage theory. Foundation for Critical Thinking. <u>https://www.quia.com/files/quia/users/medicinehawk/1607-</u> <u>Thinking/development.pdf</u>

Ennis, R. H. (2011). Critical thinking: Reflection and perspective—Part I. *Inquiry: Critical Thinking Across the Disciplines, 26*(1), 4–18. https://doi.org/10.5840/inquiryctnews20112613

- Ertürk, E., & Şahin, İ. (2020). Role-playing as a pedagogical tool for developing communication and critical thinking skills in EFL context. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 16(3), 1520–1534. <u>https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.903540</u>
- Facione, P. A. (2015). Critical thinking: What it is and why it counts. Measured Reasons LLC. https://www.law.uh.edu/blakely/advocacy-survey/Critical%20Thinking%20Skills.pdf
- Fahim, M., & Sa'eepour, M. (2011). The impact of critical thinking on developing argumentative essays by EFL learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 30, 192–195. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.10.038</u>

Fisher, A. (2011). Critical thinking: An introduction. Cambridge University Press.

- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive– developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34(10), 906–911. <u>https://jwilson.coe.uga.edu/EMAT7050/Students/Wilson/Flavell%20(1979).pdf</u>
- Halpern, D. F. (2014). *Thought and knowledge: An introduction to critical thinking* (5th ed.).Psychology Press.

- Jonassen, D. H. (2011). Learning to solve problems: A handbook for designing problem-solving learning environments. Routledge.
- Kember, D. (2001). Reflective teaching and learning in the health professions. *Educational Psychology*, *21*(1), 5–17. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.dmfr.4600658
- Klimova, B. F. (2013). Developing critical thinking in English language teaching classes.
 Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 93, 518–522.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.09.229
- Lai, E. R. (2011). Critical thinking: A literature review. Pearson.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lau, J. Y. (2011). *An introduction to critical thinking and creativity: Think more, think better.* John Wiley & Sons.
- Lipman, M. (2003). Thinking in education (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Lun, V. M. C., Fischer, R., & Ward, C. (2010). Exploring cultural differences in critical thinking: Is it about my thinking style or the language I speak? *Learning and Individual Differences*, 20(6), 604–616. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2010.07.001
- McLaughlin, M., & DeVoogd, G. L. (2016). Critical literacy as comprehension: Expanding reader response. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 39(3), 52–62. https://doi.org/10.1598/JAAL.48.1.5

Mercer, S. (2016). Towards an understanding of language learner self-concept. Springer.

- Moon, J. A. (2020). A handbook of reflective and experiential learning: Theory and practice. Routledge.
- Paul, R., & Elder, L. (2014). *The miniature guide to critical thinking: Concepts and tools* (7th ed.). Foundation for Critical Thinking Press.

- Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client-centered therapy: Its current practice, implications, and theory*. Houghton Mifflin.
- Rojas-Drummond, S., & Mercer, N. (2003). Scaffolding the development of effective collaboration and learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 39(1-2), 99– 111. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(03)00075-2
- Schraw, G. (1998). Promoting general metacognitive awareness. *Instructional Science*, 26, 113–125. <u>https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1003044231033</u>
- Schön, D. A. (1983). The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action. Basic Books.
- Stapleton, P. (2019). Assessing critical thinking in EFL classrooms. *ELT Journal*, 73(2), 142–152. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088301018004004</u>
- Tompkins, P. K. (2011). Role-playing simulation activities for language learners. EnglishTeachingForum,49(2),20–26.http://www.c3schools.org/ArchivedWebsites/roleplay_esol.pdf
- Torrance, E. P. (1993). Understanding creativity: Where to start? *Psychological Inquiry*, 4(3), 232–234. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli0403_17
- Vatanartiran, S., & Karadeniz, S. (2015). Enhancing critical thinking through simulations. *Educational Technology & Society*, 18(2), 112–124. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10209-014-0372-1</u>
- Yang, Y. C. (2012). A cognitive analysis of metacognitive language learning strategies used by Chinese EFL learners. *Language Awareness*, 21(1-2), 1–22. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2011.592593</u>
- Zohar, A., & Dori, Y. J. (2003). Higher order thinking skills and low-achieving students: Are they mutually exclusive? *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 12(2), 145–181. <u>https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327809JLS1202_1</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Dr. Hayriye AVARA

ORCID: 0000-0001-5575-3497

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

Amasya University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education

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

Cite this Chapter

Avara, H. (2023). Cultivating effective minds: The significance of critical thinking development and the strategies employed in EFL classes. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 211-234). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 10: REVOLUTIONIZING FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE DIGITAL AGE

Semin KAZAZOĞLU ២ Gamze TURUN 📵

1. Introduction

Rapid technological advancements have dominated modern society, and technology has a pervasive influence on many aspects of human life, including education. There has been a noticeable increase in the use of technology-based teaching aids in the field of language teaching. Accordingly, various e-learning technologies are accessible for incorporation into English language teaching. Across diverse regions globally, education authorities and academic institutions have dedicated considerable resources to enhance the integration of the Internet in its various manifestations (such as electronic books, simulations, text messaging, podcasting, wikis, and blogs). Among these tools, chatbots stand out due to the utilization of various artificial intelligence (AI) models. Currently, these models play a supportive role in foreign language instruction within diverse educational contexts. This includes applications in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings and across various educational levels, as highlighted in previous studies (Fitria, 2021; Hubbard, 2013). AI tools play a vital role in the teaching profession, providing educators with a means to improve students' learning experiences. When talking about technology in education, we frequently refer to 'integration.' Given how ubiquitous technology is in our everyday lives, it's essential to rethink the conventional method of merely adding technology to the curriculum. The focus should be on weaving technology into teaching practices to enhance the learning process. In essence, technology becomes a fundamental part of the learning experience, presenting a significant consideration for teachers-from crafting learning experiences to the actual teaching and learning processes (Eady & Lockyer, 2013). Hence, integrating technological tools into English teaching is essential to meet the needs of today's generation, where technology has surpassed every facet of daily life. This essential requirement mandates a collaborative effort from both educators and learners to integrate technology into their learning and teaching environments. Achieving this integration necessitates a comprehensive understanding of how technology can be effectively incorporated into the English language classroom. Previous research has emphasized the advantages of technology in facilitating the learning and acquisition of English language skills. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that assessing learning outcomes holds paramount

significance in the realm of teaching. As a result, this chapter endeavors not only to emphasize the utilization of technology in English language teaching but also to offer insights into how technology can be employed to assess learning. The goal is to offer a nuanced view of the dual function of technology, highlighting its use as a learning facilitator and as an important tool for assessing educational outcomes.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Technology in L2 Reading

Reading comprises three fundamental components: the reader, the text, and the interaction between the two. The first component is the reader themselves. The second component is the text, which is static and possesses various features that affect readers' understanding, including vocabulary, syntax, grammar, and organizational structure, all of which can vary based on the text's level of formality. The final phase of the reading process is the interaction between the reader and the text. This emphasizes that reading takes place when individuals engage with a text, assigning meaning to the written symbols it contains (Nation, 2001). Consequently, there is a widespread consensus that reading encompasses a range of factors that interact with one another. Chun and Plass (1997) suggested that this complexity is even more challenging for L2 readers. In education, many efforts have been made to help L2 readers understand texts better, using insights from research. For example, Clarke and Silberstein (1977) argued convincingly for teaching reading strategies based on a psycholinguistic model of reading. Visual aids like pictures, videos, sounds, and diagrams have also been recognized for their potential to help in the reading process by activating relevant background knowledge (Chun & Plass, 1997). In recent years, there has been a growing interest in using computers to improve reading comprehension skills. In this part of the chapter how technology affects the L2 reading will be highlighted.

2.2. Digital reading in L2

In the era of widespread screen use, digital text has become increasingly common. This shift is especially advantageous for those learning a foreign language, as a multitude of authentic texts in the target language are now easily accessible with just a click, a convenience that was once restricted (Lee et al., 2020). As a result, developing reading skills in a second language (L2) has relied significantly on digital reading which the learner can easily access at any time anywhere, and offers a room to choose one of the authentic texts in terms of their interest, needs, etc. Besides, the interactive nature of digital reading, incorporating features like hyperlinks and multimedia elements, enhances engagement and active learning (Tang et al.,

2022). In addition to its inherent interactivity, digital reading offers learners a unique opportunity to shape and personalize their reading experience through individualized features. Besides, the collaborative and social features of certain digital platforms could be explored, emphasizing how learners can interact with peers, share insights, and participate in online language communities to further enhance their language skills. The flexibility provided by customization options empowers readers to tailor various aspects, such as adjusting font size and background color, ensuring a more comfortable and personalized engagement with the text. This adaptability aligns with research findings indicating the positive impact of digital reading on second language (L2) reading acquisition. An illustrative study by Esmaeili Fard and Nabifar (2011) analysed the reading comprehension levels of 40 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in Iran, demonstrating better outcomes for those using digital readers. Furthermore, recent research by Al Khazaleh (2021), delves into the effects of digital reading on English reading acquisition, highlighting consistently positive outcomes. Therefore, it should be better to show some digital reading platforms where the readers can customize, adapt, and personalize the learning process. The following digital platforms utilize the Artvive application, which employs augmented reality (AR) technology to enrich user interaction with visual content. By scanning an image that contains AR markers with the Artvive app, users can effortlessly trigger a video on their device screens (<u>https://www.artivive.com/</u>).

2.2.1. Scribd

Scribd operates as a subscription-oriented service, granting entry to an extensive repository of e-books, audiobooks, magazines, and documents. It covers a wide array of genres and subjects (<u>https://audiobooks.com/</u>).

2.2.2. Librivox

Librivox provides complimentary audiobooks of works in the public domain. Volunteers contribute their voices to these audiobooks, creating a valuable resource for enthusiasts of classic literature. Readers can discover numerous digital platforms online to enhance their English language teaching reading proficiency (<u>https://librivox.org/</u>).

2.3. Adaptive Learning Systems

Adaptive learning systems within the realm of computer-mediated instruction are commonly referred to as intelligent tutoring systems (ITSs). These systems dynamically tailor e-learning content, pedagogical models, and human-computer interaction to align with the distinct objectives, needs, and preferences of individual users, fostering effective learning and teaching (Lin et al., 2023). Adaptive learning systems in second language (L2) reading refer to educational technologies designed to personalize the learning experience based on individual learners' needs, progress, and preferences. These systems utilize advanced algorithms to assess learners' strengths and weaknesses, adjusting the content and difficulty level accordingly. By tailoring instruction to the specific requirements of each learner, adaptive learning systems aim to optimize engagement and comprehension. The benefits of such systems lie in their ability to provide targeted and customized support, fostering a more efficient and adaptive learning process (Riasati et al., 2012). Learners can receive content at an appropriate challenge level, receive real-time feedback, and benefit from personalized strategies, ultimately enhancing their L2 reading skills more effectively and engagingly. By assimilating data on students' learning styles, preferences, and performance, obtained through the tracking of their knowledge, work, and feedback, the system can draw inferences regarding their strengths and weaknesses. Subsequently, the system can suggest additional tasks or materials to further enhance the learning experience. Consequently, recommending certain digital platforms on this topic to the readers would be advantageous.

2.3.1. Promova

Promova is an application designed for reading in a second language (L2). It provides a feature that allows users to click on a word they struggle to recall while reading to access its definition, thereby improving reading comprehension. Besides, the app determines the students' level to prepare some exercises to enhance learning (*https://promova.com/*).



Figure 1. Promova: personalized language learning tool (https://promova.com/)

2.3.2. Achieve3000

Achieve3000 serves as a literacy platform that adjusts reading materials to match the unique reading levels and preferences of students. It spans across various subjects with a focus on enhancing comprehension skills (https://achieve3000.com/).



Figure 2. Achieve3000: multi-device literacy platform for personalized learning (https://achieve3000.com/)

2.3.3. ReadTheory

ReadTheory stands as an online tool for adaptive reading comprehension. It presents passages and questions aligned with the user's reading proficiency; tailoring difficulty levels based on performance for a personalized learning journey (*https://readtheory.org/*).



Figure 3. Readtheory: adaptive reading comprehension tool (*https://readtheory.org/*)

2.3.4. Imagine Learning

Imagine Learning provides adaptive language and literacy programs tailored for English language learners. The content adapts according to students' advancements, offering interactive exercises to enhance their reading skills (*https://www.imaginelearning.com/*).



Figure 4. Imagine learning: adaptive language and literacy tool (*https://www.imaginelearning.com/*)

3. Technology in Listening

Listening is an essential skill that forms the basis for students to successfully develop and use their other language abilities helping to reduce potential challenges in speaking. By actively engaging with spoken language, learners gain crucial input that enhances their understanding and fluency (Stæhr, 2009). This skill not only supports their ability to articulate thoughts clearly but also fosters better comprehension of nuances in conversation. Therefore, listening is indispensable in the language learning process, as it equips students with the tools necessary for successful communication. Furthermore, learning cannot begin until one has a grasp of the information that has been received. The process of listening plays a crucial role in language learning. According to Halat and Özbay (2018), there is a direct correlation between speaking and listening, and people with poor listening skills will struggle to communicate effectively. Thus, second language acquisition depends on understanding the content heard, which constitutes one of the essential skills for learners to develop. According to Jones (2024), comprehension of spoken language involves an interpretive process wherein the listener actively creates meaning by utilizing two primary knowledge bases: linguistic (such as phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic knowledge) and non-linguistic (like understanding the context, topic, or general knowledge of the world). As a result, achieving proficiency in this skill necessitates consistent exposure to the language, providing learners with frequent opportunities to listen to the target language. Historically, the sole method for refining listening skills involved students listening to their language instructors in the classroom. Unfortunately, outside the classroom, students had limited exposure to the English language due to the linguistic differences between their native languages and the target language. Nevertheless, the 21st century has provided opportunities for pervasive exposure to the target language, thanks to technological advancements. Students use technology to develop socially and proficient communicators in the target language; teachers use audio-visual technologies extensively and use pre-listening exercises, as well as subsequent listening and inferential exercises when working with audible texts. This section of the chapter will focus on presenting various technological advancements that enhance listening comprehension in second language acquisition.

3.1. Interactive listening tools

Duolingo

Duolingo is a platform that allows learners to listen to the target language through activities such as interactive lessons. It employs a gamified approach, making language learning enjoyable and flexible for students (*https://www.imaginelearning.com/*).



Figure 5. Duolingo: engaging language learning tool (*https://tr.duolingo.com/*)

FluentU

It employs authentic videos from real-world sources like news clips, music videos, and movie trailers. The platform incorporates interactive subtitles and quizzes, offering a comprehensive approach to strengthen both vocabulary and listening skills (*https://www.fluentu.com/*).



ELLLO (English Listening Lesson Library Online)

It provides learners with a repository of audio and video lessons. Featuring comprehension quizzes, it enables learners to hone their listening abilities by exposing them to diverse accents and variations in the English language (*https://www.elllo.org/*).



Figure 7. ELLLO teacher: interactive english listening resources for educators (*https://www.elllo.org/*)

In summary, the infusion of technology into language learning not only enhances proficiency in listening skills but also revolutionizes the language acquisition journey. This integration provides learners with vibrant and immersive encounters in the target language.

4. Technology in Writing

According to Nunan (1991), writing is an extremely complex cognitive activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of variables simultaneously. At the sentence level, these include control of contents, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, spelling, and letter formation. Beyond the sentence, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into cohesive and coherent paragraphs and text.

Writing is one of the productive skills and is crucial for effectively expressing thoughts and ideas, enabling individuals to convey their viewpoints with clarity and precision. The essence of developing writing skills lies in the ability to express ideas in a systematic and reflective manner, with a key measure of learning success being the capacity to articulate concepts constructively in writing. Therefore, the development and enhancement of writing abilities present an important challenge for teachers and students in the realm of second language learning. The demands of writing, which require a significant time commitment, frequently find limitations within the restricted time frames of school hours. However, the emergence of technology has brought about revolutionary possibilities, providing students with specific time and space to enhance their writing skills. In modern teaching, teachers have been increasingly recommending the development of personal blog sites as a teaching tool so that students can genuinely practice writing. Beyond blogs, a significant emerging platform is represented by chatbots, which are a developing means of encouraging writing engagement.

4.1. Chatbots

A prevalent aspect of artificial intelligence is represented by chatbots, which are computer programs created to converse with users in a natural, human-like manner through text and voice interactions (Ashfaque et al., 2020). In English language education, chatbots have been used as a tool to improve language proficiency. Students can practice their language skills anytime and anywhere due to the availability of the chatbots around the clock. As a result, the students can practice their language skills and identify any linguistic gaps with the support of this real-time assistance. AI-powered chatbots can provide language input and help with regular conversation practice. With the chatbots, students can converse in the target language, which enhances their communication and writing skills. Employing customized exercises and constructive feedback, chatbots play a facilitative role in refining students' writing skills, providing specific corrections and suggestions that contribute to the enhancement of sentence structure, vocabulary utilization, and overall coherence. A notable illustration of this pedagogical approach is evident in a study conducted by Lin and Chang (2020), which delved into the utilization of a chatbot named Chatbot DD. The study outcomes underscored that the incorporation of a chatbot as an adjunct instructional tool substantially elevated writing skills. Students acknowledged the pivotal role of the chatbot in identifying and rectifying writing issues, thereby augmenting their holistic writing proficiency.

5. Technology in Speaking

Among the productive skills, speaking is paramount, as it serves as a primary mode of communication and expression. Acquiring speaking skills is a vital prerequisite in the second language acquisition process since the language is commonly considered as a tool to 'communicate'. Speaking is a multifaceted cognitive endeavor, involving the simultaneous integration of various mental skills and the utilization of working memory to manage words and concepts, all while engaging in self-monitoring. Teachers, when devising speaking activities, must consider three pivotal cognitive processes outlined by Levelt (1999). First, conceptualization demands the speaker's ability to choose pertinent content and ideas, relying on sensory imagery and inner speech. This encompasses initiating or sustaining a topic within various spoken interactions, requiring an awareness of the cultural and social context to select language appropriately. In essence, learners necessitate sufficient background knowledge to express themselves meaningfully. Second, formulation entails the speaker's proficiency in expressing content, encompassing knowledge of lexico-grammatical structures, cohesive stringing of words, and an understanding of how spoken genres unfold logically. Learners must possess adequate linguistic knowledge to convey their intended meaning. Third, articulation involves the physical process of conveying selected ideas, requiring proper use of the mouth, teeth, and tongue. This process, while physical, is intricately connected to memory, conceptualization, and formulation. Competent speakers have automated pronunciation, enabling them to emphasize sounds for meaningful communication.

Pronunciation, characterized by the ability to articulate sound patterns accurately, stands as a critical skill for conveying messages clearly and comprehensibly, ultimately fostering effective communication. Given the paramount importance of acquiring both speaking and pronunciation competencies, the integration of technology offers learners a valuable space for skill enhancement. This part of the chapter will illuminate the integration of technology aimed at improving speaking and pronunciation skills.

5.1. Tech-Based Speaking Applications

Technology provides learners with the opportunity to engage in online communication, a valuable resource for improving speaking skills, especially when finding native speakers in the target language is a challenging task. Several applications facilitate this learning journey:

HelloTalk

HelloTalk facilitates connections with native speakers for language exchange through voice messages. This platform empowers learners to hone their pronunciation and gain valuable feedback from native speakers (*https://www.hellotalk.com/*).



Figure 8. HelloTalk: language exchange platform for real-time communication (*https://www.hellotalk.com/*)

Speechling

Speechling is designed to enhance speaking and listening skills, offering personalized feedback on pronunciation. Learners can benefit from dedicated exercises aimed at practicing and refining their speaking abilities (*https://speechling.com/*).



Figure 9. Speechling: pronunciation and speaking practice for language learners (*https://speechling.com/*)

Busuu

Busuu provides speaking exercises that enable learners to record and compare their pronunciation with native speakers. This interactive feature is coupled with feedback mechanisms, offering learners insights into their spoken language proficiency (https://www.busuu.com/tr)

5.2. Computer-Assisted Pronunciation Teaching

Computer-Assisted Pronunciation Training (CAPT) is an effective instrument that gives users effortless access to their personal pronunciation skills and those of others (Mahdi & Al Khateeb, 2019). Its primary objectives include directing attention toward phonology intricacies and facilitating the acquisition of novel pronunciation patterns, as emphasized by Liu and Hung (2016). CAPT programs present numerous advantages compared to traditional methods, encompassing features such as flexible teaching schedules (anywhere/anytime), personalized instruction tailored to individual needs, meticulous progress tracking, and the ability to engage in self-paced learning, an illustrative study by Seferoğlu (2005) delves into the efficacy of accent reduction software within advanced English classes, particularly in enhancing university students' pronunciation skills. The findings underscored a noteworthy enhancement in the experimental group, especially in circumstances where access to native speakers was limited. This research highlights the instrumental role of CAPT in fostering substantial improvement in pronunciation, providing an alternative and effective avenue for learners in the absence of native-speaker interaction.

6. Technology in Grammar Skills

The acquisition of grammar in the context of second language learning has consistently been regarded as an essential component, despite the evolving emphasis over time. Throughout various periods, the significance attributed to grammar teaching and learning has endured as a fundamental requirement in the realm of acquiring a second language. The instruction of grammar involves various methods aimed at directing learners' focus to grammatical forms. This facilitation is designed "to assist them in grasping the structures metalinguistically and/or incorporating them into comprehension and/or production, ultimately leading to internalization" (Ellis, 2006, p. 84). Grammar knowledge in the target language is a necessity for meaningful communication which is the goal in the field of second language acquisition. Dontcheva-Navratilova (2013) underscores the significance of purposeful communication embedded within linguistic structures. She characterizes the exploration of grammar as the examination of the "system of rules and principles governing the structure and significance of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences" (p.1). However, the techniques for teaching and learning grammar have changed throughout time since there was a shift from the grammartranslation method which is considered as a traditional method to the communicative method. Thus, grammar instruction has evolved beyond the rote memorization of rules or scripted dialogues. It currently focuses on aiding learners in cultivating their communicative

competence, involving tasks that facilitate recognition and heightened awareness of grammatical forms and their application. Consequently, the integration of technology becomes a pivotal aspect of modern language education since teaching language exclusively through print-based means does not give students the experience and practice they require to build the language skills they will require in the future (Bikowski, 2018). Here are the additional technological tools available for grammar:

NoRedInk

NoRedInk provides tailor-made grammar and writing exercises designed for students. It adjusts to individual requirements, concentrating on refining writing abilities through specific practice *(https://www.noredink.com/)*.

noredink

Figure 10. Noredink: personalized grammar and writing practice platform (*https://www.noredink.com/*)

Lingodeer

Lingodeer offers grammar-focused lessons in various languages. It combines grammar explanations with interactive exercises, enhancing the overall language learning experience (https://www.lingodeer.com/)

7. Technology in Vocabulary Skills

Vocabulary learning is an essential part of the second language acquisition process to convey the message in the target language (Schmitt, 2000). Comparable to other cognitive activities, the acquisition of new vocabulary demands mental engagement that encompasses crucial memory systems (Reiber-Kuijpers et al., 2021). The initial step involves the perception of novel information within the visual or sensory store, followed by a portion passing through the short-term memory store (or working memory), culminating in its eventual retention in the long-term memory store (Nation, 2001). Since vocabulary acquisition heavily relies on

memory, it has been considered as a challenging task, and the attempts to provide effective vocabulary teaching/learning have been crucial in the realm of the second language acquisition process. Apart from the techniques including preparing flashcards, visualization, and merely memorization, technology-oriented techniques have been at the forefront in this new digital era (Ma, 2019). Here are examples of the additional technological tools available for vocabulary:

Memrise

Memrise employs memory-enhancing techniques and interactive games to assist users in learning and retaining vocabulary. It spans across a broad spectrum of languages and subjects (*https://www.memrise.com/*).



Figure 11. Memrise: interactive vocabulary learning platform (https://www.memrise.com/)

Mango Languages

It provides courses that focus on acquiring vocabulary, encompassing an extensive array of languages. It integrates authentic real-world conversations to augment the learning experience (*https://mangolanguages.com/*).



Figure 12. Mango languages: comprehensive language learning through real-world conversations (https://mangolanguages.com/)

8. Measurement Technologies in Language Learning

In the previous sections, the chapter delves into the technological advancements in the field of language teaching/learning by providing some digital platforms that can enhance four skills acquisition. These platforms offer a transformative opportunity for both educators and students, creating an environment that meets the changing needs of today's generation. However, within the context of English language learning, the significance of evaluating the learning journey becomes paramount. It is imperative for both teachers and students to actively assess and monitor their progress throughout the learning process. Hence, this section aims to shed light on diverse measurement technologies that have gained widespread adoption in the domain of second language acquisition. Each of these technological devices offers distinct and valuable opportunities to enrich the learning and teaching experience. The utilization of such technologies ensures a comprehensive and effective approach to language acquisition, aligning with the dynamic requirements of modern education.

8.1. Eye-tracking Devices

By examining the dynamics of language instruction, researchers and L2 practitioners aim to create a meaningful impact on how language learners engage with and assimilate the input provided, ultimately facilitating successful acquisition of the target language. Given that language processing is a complex phenomenon that often occurs outside of learners' conscious awareness, gaining a deeper understanding of how learners interpret the input they receive has proven to be a challenging endeavor. Consequently, the nature of these unconscious processes has largely remained speculative, given the limited insights into the cognitive processes at play. In this context, eye tracking involves the instantaneous recording of an individual's eye movements, usually as they engage with information displayed on a computer screen (Friederici, 2011). Eye movements can provide a window into the knowledge and cognitive processes participants employ to complete a given task or objective. Neurophysiological research has demonstrated a direct connection between eye movement and brain activity, indicating a relationship between eye movements and shifts in attention (Godfroid, 2019). Recorded on a computer screen in a lab using an eye tracker, the data offer millisecond-accurate insights into participants' viewing behavior during language tasks. Eye movements have enriched SLA research, spanning sentence processing, bilingual lexicon, vocabulary, prediction in language comprehension, language production, assessment, implicit and explicit knowledge, and subtitle processing.

Eye-movement data furnish valuable insights into a participant's gaze location (eye fixation), the duration of fixation, and subsequent saccades. Understanding the fixation location and duration informs researchers about the extent and duration of language learners' engagement with specific information in the input. Eye-tracking devices can be utilized in second-language education to address some issues in the field. For example, according to Leow's model (2015) of the L2 learning process, learners need to attend, detect, or notice linguistic input before the input is stored as intake in the working memory, highlighting the importance of noticing. In this context, whether learners focus their attention on unfamiliar items becomes a crucial concern as learning is unlikely to happen when the input is unattended. Additionally, they can be utilized in vocabulary research by exploring questions like, "Do learners who pay more attention to word forms in meaning-focused tasks experience greater learning gains?" Furthermore, these devices offer deeper insights into assessing grammar knowledge, as students who have internalized a grammar rule will exhibit a response to rule violations that can be measured through their fixations. With the use of eye-tracking devices, these issues in the field of English language acquisition can be effectively addressed.

9. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI)

The intricate relationship between the human brain and language has long captivated L2 researchers, delving into the complexities of cognition and communication. The brain comprised of billions of neurons, serves as the epicentre of linguistic processing (Ferstl et al., 2008). Language, a unique human ability, arises from complex neural networks that coordinate to comprehend, produce, and interpret the diverse nuances of communication (Kinzler & Spelke, 2007). In recent years, advancements in neuroimaging technology have provided unprecedented insights into the neural underpinnings of language. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) stands out as a powerful tool in this endeavor, allowing researchers to observe brain activity in real-time as individuals engage in linguistic tasks. Through the analysis of blood flow changes in different brain regions, fMRI unveils the dynamic interplay

between neural circuits during language processing. As individuals engage in linguistic tasks, various brain regions come to life, each playing a distinct role in the intricate dance of language. Broca's area, nestled in the frontal lobe, is recognized for its role in language production, while Wernicke's area, situated in the temporal lobe, is crucial for language comprehension. The fusiform gyrus, implicated in visual word recognition, and the angular gyrus, associated with semantic processing, further contribute to the rich tapestry of language within the brain (Hill et al., 2019). This symbiotic relationship between the brain and language, illuminated by the non-invasive capabilities of fMRI, allows researchers to explore the neural signatures of language acquisition, multilingualism, and even language disorders (Yang et al., 2015). The integration of neuroscience and linguistics not only deepens our understanding of the fundamental mechanisms underlying language but also holds promise for developing innovative interventions to address language-related challenges. In essence, fMRI serves as the bridge between the abstract intricacies of language and the tangible neural substrates within the brain. As technology continues to advance, unlocking the mysteries of the brain's linguistic symphony becomes not just a scientific endeavor but a voyage into the very essence of human cognition.

Equipped with these advanced tools, tracking language learning progress becomes easier for both learners and teachers. The assessment of learning holds paramount significance in the realm of acquiring a second language, and these technological aids offer a discreet means of evaluating linguistic development. The integration of technology into language education not only simplifies the evaluation process but also furnishes invaluable insights into the intricate dynamics of the learning journey and the ultimate outcomes achieved by the learners. The discreet application of these technological advancements has thus become an indispensable ally in the continuous pursuit of enhancing language acquisition and comprehension.

10. Challenges of Technology in Second Language Education

10.1. Digital Competence of Teachers

The use of technology has a positive impact on the English classroom. Incorporating technology into the instruction of a foreign language entails embracing a constructivist approach where the learner is at the core of the learning process. Consequently, in today's English classroom, ESL/EFL teachers are required to put their digital and media skills into practice. This goes beyond mere technical proficiency; it involves a nuanced understanding of how to incorporate digital resources to enhance language learning experiences. From interactive online activities to incorporating multimedia elements, ESL/EFL teachers are challenged to possess a holistic digital competence (Papanikolaou et al., 2017). This includes not only the

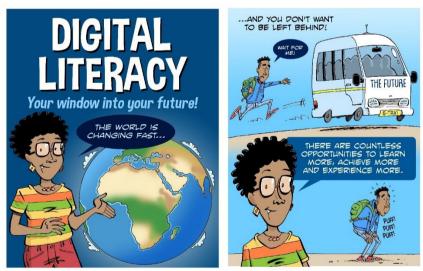
ability to use digital tools but also the skill to use the most effective and pedagogically sound applications. Ruthven's (2007) research points out important aspects for teachers to consider when integrating Technology-Enhanced Learning (TEL) into language teaching. It involves adjusting how they approach their work in terms of the environment, resources, activities, curriculum, and time. This shift goes beyond traditional lesson planning methods. However, there is a disconnect between these requirements and the current state of teachers' digital skills, often focusing on basic computer skills. This basic training falls short of preparing teachers for the more comprehensive digital literacy needed to effectively use technology in language education. To adequately address the requirements of the current generation of learners, teachers must enhance their digital competence. This entails acquiring the skills necessary to integrate technology seamlessly and effectively into the second language classroom. The importance lies in teachers' ability to integrate technology not merely for its own sake but with well-defined goals and educational objectives. Consequently, training for ESL/EFL teachers becomes a critical component in ensuring they are well-equipped to navigate the dynamic intersection of language education and technological advancements. This emphasis on training becomes pivotal in fostering an environment where technology becomes a facilitator rather than a mere accessory, ultimately enhancing the learning experience for second language learners.

10.2. Digital Literacy Skills of Learners

Digital literacy has been defined by various scholars and professionals, each offering interpretations that highlight different nuances. As mentioned by Martin (2005), for instance, "digital literacy is the awareness, attitude, and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital tools and facilities to identify, access, manage, integrate, evaluate, analyse and synthesize digital resources, construct new knowledge, create media expressions, and communicate with others, in the context of specific life situations, in order to enable constructive social action; and to reflect upon this process" (pp. 135-136). Therefore, to maximize the use of digital technologies for language learning in digitally connected environments, educators and language learners must acquire digital literacy skills and strategies (Hubbard, 2013). Some language learners lack the digital skills needed to use technology-based language learning tools effectively, limiting the support these tools can offer. In today's fast-paced, tech-driven world, learners must not only become familiar with digital resources but also gain proficiency in using them for second language acquisition. Despite being labeled as 'digital natives,' many of these students are not skilled in using technology for language learning. To address this issue, Hubbard and Siskin (2004) propose the following five principles which are summarized below:

- 1. Experience CALL yourself. When teachers use their own reflective experiences as language learners using technology, the effectiveness of teaching CALL strategies to students is increased.
- 2. Provide learners with teacher-like training. For learners to assume responsibility for their learning in CALL activities, it is advantageous to provide them with information comparable to what teachers have, encapsulated in language learning models and principles.
- 3. Use a cyclical strategy. The best way to learn new skills and information is to take small steps and reinforce what you already know through a spiral or learning cycle. Therefore, it is frequently beneficial to let learners experiment and become acquainted with a new application or environment before providing them with in-depth training.
- 4. Promote cooperative debriefings. Teachers should assist students in sharing their experiences with new learning technologies because they can learn from each other. The learning process in a classroom setting is improved when teachers provide explanations for their decisions and encourage reflection on the methods they use.
- 5. Teach general exploitation strategies. It is advisable to train students in general strategies for efficiently utilizing dedicated CALL materials, going beyond the developer's intended uses, in addition to applications and environments. This includes using general information and communication technologies, media, and support technologies (like electronic dictionaries) to further their language goals.

Thus, learner training is crucial because the key factor is how learners engage with and utilize the technology, rather than just the technology itself or its implementation by teachers (Palacios Hidalgo, 2020).



(https://adovh.unisa.ac.za/mod/page/view.php?id=1800.)



Figure 13. Digital literacy: empowering learners for the future (<u>https://adovh.unisa.ac.za/mod/page/view.php?id=1800</u>.)

10.3. Access to Technology and Socioeconomic Disparities

In addition to the challenges that educators and students face in developing digital literacy and skills, access remains a significant issue when incorporating technology into second language teaching. Even though technology presents opportunities for language learning that are both promising and socioeconomically driven, there are inherent differences in students' access to digital resources. In many educational environments, not all students have the same access to devices, high-speed internet, or other essential technological infrastructure (Kamalov et al., 2023). Since students with limited access may not be able to take advantage of the potential advantages of technology-assisted language learning, the digital divide has the potential to worsen already existing educational disparities. To tackle this challenge, educators should implement inclusive practices and be aware of the various technological environments and advocating for broader access to technology in educational institutions are necessary steps toward addressing this issue. It is essential to acknowledge how socioeconomic disparities impact students' access to technology and to strive toward creating an inclusive digital learning environment that accommodates their diverse needs.

11. Conclusion

In today's world, technology plays a crucial role in shaping our environment and significantly impacts second language learning and related educational processes. With the rise of the digital age, language—constantly influenced by the society it reflects—undergoes a dramatic transformation. Therefore, the approaches used in language learning and teaching

must be adaptable to meet the demands of the modern world. This chapter's main goal is to highlight the crucial significance of the adaptive process while highlighting the usefulness of digital platforms for second language instruction and acquisition. Technology becomes an essential component of these educational endeavors when considering 21st century imperatives. This chapter emphasizes the importance of evaluating language acquisition in addition to the traditional components of language instruction. It is believed that ongoing assessment is necessary to make sure that learning objectives are regularly tracked and improved. Within this framework, technology plays an important role in the evaluation process by offering new ways to measure language proficiency. Although the incorporation of technology in language education presents certain obstacles, it is crucial to consider this shift as a continuous 'process'. There will undoubtedly be challenges on this transformative journey, but with diligent work and an optimistic outlook, the adjustment to this new era will progress gradually. A clear vision of future directions and a methodical approach to improving teaching and learning become essential for negotiating the challenges of technological integration in language education.

REFERENCES

- Al Khazaleh, S. (2021). The effect of digital reading on EFL learners' reading comprehension. International Journal of Education, Technology and Science, 1(1), 59-70.
- Ashfaq, M., Yun, J., Yu, S., & Loureiro, S. M. C. (2020). I, Chatbot: Modelling the determinants of users' satisfaction and continuance intention of AI-powered service agents. Telematics and Informatics, 54, 101473.
- Bikowski, D. (2018). Technology for teaching grammar. In J. I. Liontas (Ed.), The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching (1st ed., pp. 1–7). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0441
- Chun, D. M. & Plass, J. L. (1997). Research on text comprehension in multimedia environments. Language Learning & Technology, 1(1), 60-81.
- Clarke, M. A., & Silberstein, S. (1977). Toward a realization of psycholinguistic principles in the ESL reading class. Language Learning, 27(1), 135–154. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1977.tb00297.x</u>
- Dontcheva-Navrátilová, O. (2013). Authorial presence in academic discourse: Functions of author-reference pronouns. Linguistica Pragensia, 23(1), 9-30.
- Eady, M., & Lockyer, L. (2013). Tools for learning: technology and teaching strategies. In P.Hudson (Ed.), Learning to teach in the primary school (pp. 71-89). Cambridge University Press (CUP).
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar: An SLA perspective. TESOL Quarterly, 40(1), 83-107.
- Esmaeili Fard, H., & Nabifar, N. E. S. A. (2011). The effect of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) on reading comprehension in Iranian EFL context. Journal of Academic and Applied Studies, 1(4), 1-8.

- Ferstl, E. C., Neumann, J., Bogler, C., & von Cramon, D. Y. (2008). The extended language network: A meta-analysis of neuroimaging studies on text comprehension. Human Brain Mapping, 29(5), 581–593. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.20425</u>
- Fitria, T. N. (2021). Lecturer's pedagogic competence: Teaching English in Online learning during pandemic Covid-19. Journal of English Education, 6(2), 100–108. <u>https://doi.org/10.31327/jee.v6i2.1569</u>
- Friederici, A. D. (2011). The brain basis of language processing: From structure to function.
 Physiological Reviews, 91(4), 1357–1392. <u>https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00006.2011</u>
- Godfroid, A. (2019). Investigating instructed second language acquisition using L2 learners' eye-tracking data. In R. P. Leow (Ed.), The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Research in Classroom Learning (1st ed., pp. 44–57). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315165080-4
- Halat, S., & Özbay, M. (2018). The examination of listening anxiety level of the students who learn Turkish as a foreign language. Universal Journal of Educational Research, 6(1), 1-10.
- Hill, V. B., Cankurtaran, C. Z., Liu, B. P., Hijaz, T. A., Naidich, M., Nemeth, A. J., Gastala, J., Krumpelman, C., McComb, E. N., & Korutz, A. W. (2019). A practical review of functional MRI anatomy of the language and motor systems. AJNR American Journal of Neuroradiology, 40(7), 1084–1090. <u>https://doi.org/10.3174/ajnr.A6089</u>
- Hubbard, P., & Siskin, C. B. (2004). Another look at tutorial CALL. ReCALL, 16(2), 448-461.
- Hubbard, P. (2013). Making a case for learner training in technology enhanced language learning environments. CALICO Journal, 30(2), 163–178.
- Jones, L. C. (2024). Listening comprehension technology: Building the bridge from analog to digital. CALICO Journal, 25(3), 400-419.

- Kamalov, F., Santandreu Calonge, D., & Gurrib, I. (2023). New era of artificial intelligence in education: Towards a sustainable multifaceted revolution. Sustainability, 15(16), 12451.
- Kinzler, K. D., & Spelke, E. S. (2007). Core systems in human cognition. Progress in Brain Research, 164, 257-264. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6123(07)64014-X</u>
- Leow, R. P. (2015). Explicit learning in the L2 classroom: A student-centered approach. Routledge.
- Ma, Q. (2019). University L2 learners' voices and experience in making use of dictionary apps in mobile assisted language learning (MALL). International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT), 9(4), 18-36.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.4018/IJCALLT.2019100102</u>
- Mahdi, H. S., & Al Khateeb, A. A. (2019). The effectiveness of computer-assisted pronunciation training: A meta-analysis. Review of Education, 7(3), 733-753.
- Martin, A. (2005). DigEuLit–a European framework for digital literacy: a progress report. Journal of eLiteracy, 2(2), 130-136.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (1999). Producing spoken language: A blueprint of the speaker. In C. M. Brown, & P. Hagoort (Eds.), The neurocognition of language (pp. 83-122). Oxford University Press.
- Lee, S., Kuo, L. J., Xu, Z., & Hu, X. (2020). The effects of technology-integrated classroom instruction on K-12 English language learners' literacy development: A meta-analysis. Computer Assisted Language Learning, 1-32. 10.1080/09588221.2020.1774612
- Lin, M. P. C., & Chang, D. (2020). Enhancing post-secondary writers' writing skills with a chatbot. Journal of Educational Technology & Society, 23(1), 78-92.
- Lin, C. C., Huang, A. Y. Q., & Lu, O. H. T. (2023). Artificial intelligence in intelligent tutoring systems toward sustainable education: A systematic review. Smart Learning Environments, 10(41). <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s40561-023-00260-y</u>

- Liu, S.-C., & Hung, P.-Y. (2016). Teaching pronunciation with computer-assisted pronunciation instruction in a technological university. Universal Journal of Educational Research, 4(9), 1939-1943. <u>https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2016.040902</u>
- Nation, P. (2001). Learning vocabulary in another language. Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524759
- Nunan, D. (1991). Language teaching methodology (Vol. 192). Prentice Hall.
- Palacios Hidalgo, F. J., Gómez Parra, M., & Huertas Abril, C. A. (2020). Digital and media competences: Key Competences for EFL Teachers. Teaching English with Technology, 20(1), 43-59.
- Papanikolaou, K., Makri, K., & Roussos, P. (2017). Learning design as a vehicle for developing TPACK in blended teacher training on technology enhanced learning. International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education, 14(1), 34.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-017-0072-z</u>
- Reiber-Kuijpers, M., Kral, M., & Meijer, P. (2021). Digital reading in a second or foreign language: A systematic literature review. Computers & Education, 163, 104115.
- Riasati, M. J., Allahyar, N., & Tan, K. E. (2012). Technology in language education: Benefits and barriers. Journal of education and practice, 3(5), 25-30.
- Ruthven, K. (2007). Embedding new technologies in complex ongoing practices of school mathematics education. International Journal for Technology in Mathematics Education, 13(4), 161-167.

Schmitt, N. (2000). Vocabulary in language teaching. Cambridge University Press.

Seferoğlu, G. (2005). Improving students' pronunciation through accent reduction software. British Journal of Educational Technology, 36(2), 303-316.

- Stæhr, L. S. (2009). Vocabulary knowledge and advanced listening comprehension in English as a foreign language. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 31(04), 577. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990039</u>
- Tang, C., Mao, S., Xing, Z., & Naumann S. (2022). Improving student creativity through digital technology products: A literature review. Thinking Skills and Creativity, 44:101032.
- Yang, J., Gates, K. M., Molenaar, P., & Li, P. (2015). Neural changes underlying successful second language word learning: An fMRI study. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 33, 29-49. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroling.2014.09.004</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Asst. Prof. Dr. Semin KAZAZOĞLU

ORCID: 0000-0002-0207-720X

semink@yildiz.edu.tr

Yıldız Technical Unviersity, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Semina Kazazoğlu is an assistant professor of English Language Teaching at Yıldız Technical University in İstanbul, Türkiye. She holds MA and PhD degrees in Foreign Language Teaching, and a BA in English Language and Literature from Ankara University. She has more than 20 years of experience in the field of English language education. She teaches both undergraduate and graduate courses. Her research and publications focus on EFL learners; digital reading and writing skills, EFL teacher development, intercultural communication, and applied linguistics.



Res. Asst. Gamze TURUN

ORCID: 0000-0002-6237-2817

gamze.turun@yildiz.edu.tr

Yıldız Technical Unviersity, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Gamze Turun is a Research Assistant in the English Language Education Department at Yıldız Technical University and a master's degree student. Her research interests focus on the integration of technology in language teaching and learning, as well as the neurocognitive aspects of language acquisition. Passionate about innovative approaches in education, Gamze TURUN is dedicated to exploring how digital tools and neurocognitive insights can enhance language learning experiences.

Cite this Chapter

Kazazoğlu, S. & Turun, G. (2024). Revolutionizing foreign language teaching in the digital age. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 235-261). ISRES Publishing.

CHAPTER 11: THE FACES OF JANUS IN WOMEN STUDIES: CRITICAL FEMINIST THEORY AND ELT

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ 匝 Kübra ŞIK KESER 匝

"Feminism, like antiracism, is thus not simply one more social issue in ESL but a way of thinking, a way of teaching, and, most importantly, a way of learning".

(Schenke, 1996, p. 158)

1. Introduction

The multicultural, technological, and educational transformations of the twenty-first century have culminated in several social, educational, and political movements. In this vein, learners and educators must cultivate the ability to notice cultural disparities as compared to their own, while also fostering a mindset that is cognizant of active gender relations and courteous of one another so as to nurture a harmonious educational environment that is conducive to comfort challenges. Holman et al. (2018) state that "despite recent progress, the gender gap appears likely to persist for generations" besides highlighting "the gender gap will not close without further reforms in education, mentoring, and academic publishing" (p.1). From this vantage point and within this framework of thought, Critical Feminist Theory (CFT) occupies a prominent presence in education in general and English Language Teaching (ELT) and ELT in Türkiye particular. We were inspired to dig into CFT and ELT by the dearth of research on Critical Feminism in ELT, alongside the plethora of research on gender studies, feminist theories, and English language teaching (Hooks, 2000; Katsiampoura, 2024, Starcevic & Aboujaoude, 2015). In this paper, Critical Feminist Theory will be covered, including a brief background, fundamental concepts, including a discussion of their relevance in ELT and ELT in Türkiye.

2. Critical Feminist Theory

The core concept of our paper is a Critical Feminist Theory (CFT), which incorporates Feminist Theory and Critical Theory. Wood (2015) advocates that Feminist Theories, which are not always critical, and Critical Theories, which are not always feminist, are the two main theoretical subgroups from which Critical Feminist Theories originate. We will present an overview of Feminist and Critical Theories as an initial basis for addressing the primary topics of Critical Feminist Theories and the assumptions that underpin them.

3. Feminist Waves

Preconceived notions on the definition of feminism may impede its integration into educational practices or research endeavors. Realizing that feminism aims to alleviate oppression for all individuals, we believe that disseminating its definition might mitigate the problem at hand. Feminism is identified as "the belief that men and women are equal and should have equal rights and opportunities in all spheres of life-personal, social, work, and public" (Wood, 2015, p.290). As a response to the shallow interpretation of Feminism as merely misogyny, Hooks (2000) emphasizes that "Simply put, feminism is a movement to end sexism, sexist exploitation and oppression. I liked this definition because it does not imply that men were the enemy" (p. viii). Besides, Hooks (2000) noted that:

A male who has divested of male privilege, who has embraced feminist politics, is a worthy comrade in struggle, in no way a threat to feminism, whereas a female who remains wedded to sexist thinking and behavior infiltrating feminist movement is a dangerous threat. (p.12)

The utilization of a feminist perspective serves the objective of facilitating the exploration of the ways in which individuals interact within systems and, perhaps, providing potential solutions to confront and eliminate oppressive systems and institutions. The lived experience of any person or persons, not only women, is taken into consideration by Feminist Theory, with a focus on oppression within the framework. Arinder (2020) claims that Feminism does not endorse distinctions or similarities between men, nor does it advocate for excluding the males or exclusively advancing the welfare of women. Rather, it stands for financial, political, and social parity between men and women. Arinder (ibid) on Feminist Theory proposes a model which implies that repressive structures can be shattered by awareness and intervention with the intent to facilitate transformation and enlightenment.

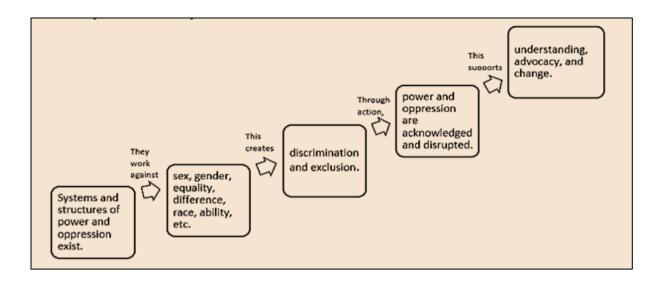


Figure 1. Model of feminist theory (Arinder, 2020)

Having stated the definition and the core rationale behind Feminism, delving into Feminist Theories will lead readers to comprehend the past and future directions and developments in it. Feminist Theories have many waves from a retrospective to prospective lenses, but not limited to, Liberal Feminism, Radical Feminism, Social Feminism, Ecofeminism and Cyberfeminism.

The imbalance of rights between men and women is central to **Liberal Feminism**. Liberal feminism places special emphasis on empowering girls and women to become more self-sufficient and freer to pick their own roles and lives rather than being coerced into adhering to stereotypes. Contemporary Liberal Feminism contends that women need to participate more actively in politics and enjoy equivalent access to employment and educational opportunities like any men. Under the umbrella of Liberal Feminist Theory, women are subjugated in a multitude of ways, including sexual assault, domestic violence, human rights breaches against women, and the gap in wealth between men and women. As a conflict resolution, equal odds for men and women, abolition of legal barriers averting women from experiencing the same rights as men, and the repeal of disparate access to power between men and women may be the means of ensuring justice between men and women (Katsiampoura, 2024). Liberal feminists should consider the mission to advocate autonomy in the face of antagonism by particular societies, including what boundaries should be established for the initiative, since liberalism faces opposition for its propensity for prioritizing equality over diversity (Enslin, 2001, 2003; Okin, 1998).

Liberal Feminism in the 1960s and 1970s underwent a dramatic and profound development that was later referred to as **Radical Feminism** (Graham, 1994). Its foundations are twofold; first, women are of inestimable worth; and second, because of the patriarchal system, they are viciously repressed everywhere (Rowland & Klein, 2013). It is their conviction that the capacity of women is hampered by the gender dichotomy, which centers on male/female. It is distinguished by its disdain of the premise that there is a solitary, global notion that defines womanhood, its condemnation of the conventional family structure, and its particular focus on the struggles of women of color and other underrepresented communities. It criticizes marriage and family since they both serve the patriarchy that sustains gender inequality alive in society (Atkinson, 2000; Katsiampoura, 2024; Mohajan, 2022). Radical feminism has pitfalls as well; in addition to being highly extremist in advocating never getting married at all, radical feminism is conspicuously mute on the matter of racism (Rudy, 2001).

Inspired by Marxism, **Social Feminism** emerged as a response to Liberal Feminism. Both the capitalist and patriarchal systems, according to socialist feminists, exploit women. They dispute with the radical feminism theory that maintains that gender inequality is only caused by the system of patriarchy (Hansen & Philipson, 1990). The movement should strive to address these issues holistically so as attain women's liberation, as it analyzes how gender and class intersect resulting in novel kinds of oppression and privileges. In the words of social feminists, class deviations among women have a bearing on their gender-related experience (Mohajan, 2022).

Quite recently, **Ecofeminism** has been a current concept as a confluence of Environmentalism and Feminism. Nevertheless, the phrases women and ecology are not equivalent. Being an Ecofeminist does not suggest that women are inherently more connected to nature and life than males. Some men dedicate their lives to safeguarding the environment and/or animals, whereas some women show apathy or hostility towards these burgeoning forms of cognizance. Throughout history, women have been deprived of access to weapons and typically been entrusted with the care of the most vulnerable members of society, including children, the old, and the sick. They have also been remembered for their heightened sensitivity to the needs of others and their outpouring of affection. When these attributes merge with pertinent knowledge and a critical analysis of hegemonic discourses, the circumstances arise to pique their interest in safeguarding the environment and other living beings where Ecofeminism emerges. The impact of gender in preventing ecological degradation and plunder is the main thrust of Ecofeminism (Gaard, 2015; Puleo, 2017). Finally, the notion of **Cyberfeminism** has arisen in tandem with the rise of digital technology, and it has gradually gained more and more significance in the modern era. Starcevic and Aboujaoude (2015) introduced the term Cyberfeminism which denotes the confluence of feminism and digital technology. The term accentuates the potential of women to leverage digital technology to uproot patriarchy and achieve gender equality. According to Brimacombe et al. (2018), young women experience greater ease in expressing themselves in cyberspace amid intersectional prejudice on the basis of age and sexual orientation, as opposed to in physical spaces where they might be prone to cultural and legislative limitations. Thus, Feminist theory can shed light on and guide our ever-changing digital landscape orientation, and digital feminism investigates the ways in which digital technology can either bolster or weaken feminist movements, online spaces' potential to maintain or dismantle gender inequality, and more. Thus, Cyberfeminism creates spaces for woman to voice the silenced communities easier, faster and with expanding freedom. Having mentioned types of Feminism, paragraphs below will inform about the rationale of Feminist Theory and its core concepts.

4. Feminist Theory

A well-known Feminist theorist, Butler (1990) claims that feminist theories address women's societal positions, histories, encounters, beliefs, and aspirations in order to honor women's lives and reveal the gender inequality in the community. Butler (1993) contends that gender is created through the behaviors we partake on a daily basis, implying that gender is anything we both reenact and produce. Furthermore, Butler (1990, 1993) believes that individuals can only be deemed gendered if they act in ways that corroborate both the concepts of masculinity and femininity. In the ensuing paragraphs, the two concepts of gender inequalities and patriarchy (Collins & Bilge, 2016; Nentwich & Kellan, 2014) that lie at the kernel of Feminist Theory will be delivered.

5. Gender

In education, the terms of *sex* and *gender* are employed alternately; nevertheless, sex implies biological variations between girls and boys, whereas gender is generated by society and represents attributes that correspond to male or female identities. Indeed, both girls and boys range in the manner in which they align with portrayed masculine and feminine features. Many educators are intrigued by sex differences; yet, however, sex is a dichotomous construct, which hinders the possibility for scholars to investigate and cherish the intricacies of gender (McGeown & Warhurst, 2020). In brief, we are born with a specific sex (except medical anomalies), either female or male; but, during the socialization process, we develop a gender

identity. Wood (2015) remarks that gender shapes our assumptions, demands, and inspections of women and men, along with positions, advantages, and socioeconomic conditions that women and men encounter. Hall et al. (2007) challenges us to ponder about the ways in which men's and women's employment are shaped by society; they examine the ways in which distinct kinds of professions are classified or gendered as either masculine or feminine.

6. Patriarchy

Patriarchy is an organizational structure that predominantly conveys the positions, experiences, opinions, and wants of men in mass. Feminist scholars highlight that White, apparently male individual, organized numerous cultures, particularly those of the West, at onset. The people in question employed their own experiences, wants, values, choices, pursuits, and ideologies to dictate how social life was regulated. It is noteworthy that Feminist theorists do not posit those men intentionally structured society to silence women and marginalized groups. Patriarchy embraces not only the supremacy of men but also the ingestion and maintenance of authoritarian notions in social relationships by everybody, irrespective of gender (Collins & Bilge, 2016). The premise is that when Western societies constructed, White men occupied seats in power and women did not. Consequently, the structures of our society are insufficiently reflecting the lives, demands, values, preferences, passions and opinions held by women and minorities (Gilligan & Snider, 2018; Hall et al., 2007; Wood, 2015).

Patriarchy is also an ideology that has its roots deeply in gender binaries and hierarchies. Male dominance (the dominant group) and female subordination (the oppressed group) are inherently perpetuated in a culture of patriarchy. It prioritizes masculinity over femininity and "elevates some men over other men and all men over women" (Gilligan & Snider, 2018, p. 6). As a closely connected term, as stated by Storey (2021), it is possible to use the term hegemony in reference to a society in which, regardless of the existence of inequality, there is a substantial amount of unanimity, allowing those from marginalized social categories and strata to endorse and associate with the political, cultural, and ideological forms that adhere to the dominant structures of control or authority. Gender stereotypes established by a patriarchal culture depict women as a lower status, under the tutelage of the dominant gender (men). Although rarely occurs, women in the dominant group may exploit their racial privilege to perpetuate patriarchal power structures for their own gain over minority women such as immigrants or ethnic minority group (Qin, 2004).

7. Critical Theory

The Feminist Theory studies issues of power, patriarchy, and gender inequality, as the previous paragraphs addressed at length. Critical Theory studies gender inequality by identifying "prevailing structures and practices that create or uphold disadvantage, inequity, or oppression" (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008, p. 290). Some prominent studies and representatives of Critical Theory are Max Horkheimer and Theodor W. Adorno (2002), Jurgen Habermas (1987) and Douglas Kellner (1989).

Transformative potency is the ultimate objective of Critical Theory. Specifically, it adopts a multidisciplinary strategy that aspires to negotiate between tailored empirical disciplines and bridge the gap between the forms of philosophical inquiry essential to comprehend the bigger picture of history and the study of empirical evidence. Beyond simply outlining social reality, Critical Theory aims to shed light on the predominant forces that operate in society so as to take precautions, and change can be sparked (Agger, 1991; Carter et al., 2012; Wood, 2015).

An analysis of the formal and informal systems employed by dominant groups to prioritize their desires and regulate societies in a manner that favors their objectives is of particular appeal to Critical Theorists. At the same time, Critical Theorists strive to comprehend how oppressed parties gain power and how to alter prevailing patterns and, potentially, the ideologies that underpin them. This enables critics of Critical Theory to focus on not only formal macro systems of legitimacy like laws but also micro systems like "tiny, every day, physical" deeds that perpetuate specific ideologies and the disparities they entail (Foucault, 1984, p. 211).

Positivism as a paradigm has also been challenged by Critical Theory both at the level of everyday conduct and within social theories that distill the social realm down to causative and effect associations. Positivism fulfills an ideological agenda where it nurtures fatalism and apathy. In juxtaposition with post-positivist views, critical theories place an immense value on societal transformation that is, reforming the way cultures operate and the tangible and ethereal repercussions they have on individuals (Wood, 2015). Consequently, a substantial portion of aristocratic social science is severely derided by the Frankfurt School for missing the form of philosophical creativity that enables social scientists to discern emerging social facts such as racism, the end of upper-class, patriarchy, and the supremacy of nature, instead of focusing on merely the readily apparent social facts as they appear (Agger, 1991).

8. Critical Feminist Theory

We attempted to enlighten the readers about the scopes, aims, and peculiarities of Critical Theory and Feminist Theory in the previously provided paragraphs. In a nutshell, Feminist Theory scrutinizes gender inequality and patriarchy (Collins & Bilge, 2016), whereas Critical Theory facilitates the inspection of gender disparity by recognizing dominant structures and practices that perpetuate drawbacks injustice, or tyranny (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008). The Critical Feminist Theory (CFT) that underpins our work is an integration of Feminist Theory and Critical Theory. Critical Feminist Theory, from a Feministic and Critical Theoretical standpoint, has a direct connection to gender, race-related, and financial disparities that impede constructive social development and may influence educational settings as well that is worth discussing.

Feminist Critical Theories (FCT) or CFT are distinguished from other analyses by their particular focus on gender equality and the notion that gender equality cannot be attained under extant doctrinal and regulatory structures (Rhode, 1990). According to Lafrance and Wigginton (2019), CFT arose in psychology as an opposition to androcentric studies that stigmatized women for their dearth of moral maturity and hence unsuitability for positions of authority; these studies, in turn, contributed to the maintenance of gender inequality and the marginalization of women .

CFTs aim to identify and challenge gender-related injustice, sexism, loss of value, and alienation based on the fundamental presumptions noted above. CFTs address power dynamics and matters like women's disparate status and privilege compared to males. Hochschild and Machung (2003) defined the second shift as women's household chores, food preparation, and caring for children following working. Although most heterosexual families have two income earners, women still conduct most of the housework and care for youngsters, parents, and various other relatives (Jephcott, et al., 2023; Yücel & Chung, 2023). To put it succinctly, dialogical interaction with marginalized social groups with the goal of their inclusion constitutes the central point of the political agenda of CFT. This vital insight is a vital feminist contribution to academic inquiry and Critical Social Theory.

Critical Feminist Scholars typically do not identify tailored Feminist methodologies; however, their research frequently concentrates on facets of life that have been overlooked or insufficiently addressed in conventional studies, with the objective of tackling overarching issues pertaining to social justice (Rhode, 1990; Wood, 2015). Fundamentally, CFT offers a

paradigm for perceiving how power dynamics in social structures, such as educational institutions, justify patriarchy with the supremacy of men and solicits for us to constantly examine social frameworks which threaten gender justice and equality. Thus, in juxtaposition with Liberal Feminism, Critical Feminism addresses the longstanding roots of sexism and theorizes the means by which patriarchy perpetually recreates itself throughout millennia. CFT investigates how privilege and power are bestowed or confiscated, uncovers sexism and disparities between genders, and centers research on women (Andersen, 2021; Bucholtz, 2014; Stevens & Martell, 2019).

CFT is characterized as a strand of thought within the feminist movement that exposes the interrelation between the patriarchal system and capitalism, which are perceived as interlinked hegemonic entities. From a standpoint of politics, Critical Feminism seeks to liberate women from conjugal violence and conflict with the expanding influence of capitalism and multinational enterprises. Critical Feminists address how women and men's daily lives develop, perpetuate, and reform gender ideology. CFT seeks to relieve, emancipate, and empower the downtrodden through inquiry into an interrelated, multi-parametric system in social interactions (Dadds, 2011; Gale de Saxe, 2016; Katsiampoura, 2024).

9. Critical Feminist Theory and English Language Teaching

Critical feminism advocates for a reevaluation of prevailing concepts of knowledge, power, and methods of uplifting the marginalized. It is also pertinent to acknowledge critical feminism's role in the debate about education in general as a tool for resistance and the emancipation of the oppressed, since this theory acknowledges the role of gender, race, and class in shaping the dominant discourse in education (Bhandar, 2000; Katsiampoura,2024). A significant and developing field of research is the nexus between CFT and ELT in specific field of study. This field addresses the insertion of feminist positions, structures of power, and gender-related issues into teaching languages.

In ELT, the researchers, Preservice Teachers, Inservice teachers and lecturers might benefit from CFT and its related concepts such as; delving into how language shapes and questions gender societal expectations, fostering pedagogical approaches and terminology that are inclusive of both genders, combating sexism in educational programs for languages, dealing with uneven power dynamics in the classroom, embracing a range of perspectives and life experiences into language teaching programs that illustrates cultural traces of power imbalances. Through a broader perspective, CFT might serve on many sources from material design, curricula, feminist pedagogies to material design in ELT. The employment of CFT in ELT is versatile. For classroom management, using intersectional techniques to comprehend and resolve disparities in language classrooms. Incorporating CFT to build feminist pedagogies that are unique to language learning and teaching. Use of CFT to take a critical stance on the evaluation and design of ELT materials by searching the portrayal of gender in these contexts can aid developing critical lens on ELT material design and evaluation. Analyzing the diverse cultural contexts in which language acquisition interacts with gender identities and power dynamics through CFT may help to develop deeper understanding to alleviate gender binary problems.

Through the cultivation of integrity, diversity, and critical awareness, CFT has a considerable impact on language curriculum design as well. Intersectionality emphasizes how crucial it is for curriculum designers to take into account a variety of intersecting identities, including those related to ability, sexual orientation, and racism. Through intersectionality, ELT curriculum may ensure concern to address each student's unique and diverse experiences rather than considering gender as a stand-alone category.

To boost inclusivity, CFT argues in favor of including underrepresented voices and perspectives, making sure that the curriculum encompasses a variety of identities and experiences. This may promote an inclusive learning atmosphere where all students experience a sense of belonging and value.

CFT places a strong emphasis on the value of critical pedagogy, which challenges and invites language learners to consider and analyze society norms and hierarchies of power. Incorporating this strategy into the classroom may to a great extent urge learners to think critically and take an active role in their own education.

One of the main tenets of CFT is the need to confront long-established gender norms and stereotypes in written and spoken language. CFT advocates for the dismantling of sexist language and its established gender norms. This might result in the inclusion of gender representations that are diverse and devoid of stereotypes in textbooks and other language materials.

Language programs that prioritize CFT and practice can better equip their students to effect social change via the medium of language. Recognizing and resisting harmful language practices and educating language learners to advocate for themselves and others may be a part of this effort.

10. Tips to Prioritize CFT for Language Instructors

- Setting a good example by using inclusive language yourself and encouraging your learners to do the same. One way to do this is to use non-gendered language and refrain from making assumptions based on gender.
- > Inspiring learners and giving them examples of people who defy gender stereotypes.
- Fostering an atmosphere of support via establishing a learning space in which each student is acknowledged and valued. Quickly and efficiently handle any cases of harassment or discrimination based on gender.
- Encouraging conversations that question and dismantle preconceived notions about gender. Make sure your learners are thinking critically about gender representation in all forms of media, from ELT books to everyday encounters.
- Incorporating the experiences and perspectives of underrepresented groups into the lessons you prepare, notably women's and other marginalized individual's.
- Permitting your learners to consider how their personal prejudices and ideas shape their worldview. Journaling, discussion groups, or self-evaluation practices are excellent ways to accomplish reflective thinking.
- Building a welcoming and safe educational atmosphere for all students through advocating group projects and collaborative learning that recognizes and appreciates the unique contributions of each student.

11. Conclusion

In classical mythology, Janus, the Roman deity of beginnings and transitions, is famously depicted with two faces: One directed toward the future and the other reflecting on the past (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). This duality aptly mirrors the evolution of Critical Feminist Theory (CFT) and its growing significance in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), which this study has thoroughly explored. The intersection of gender studies, Critical Feminism, and ELT has catalyzed a rich body of scholarship on themes such as the representation of gender in educational materials, the use of feminist and queer pedagogies, and the analysis of intersectionality and gendered discourse in language instruction (López-Medina, 2023; Page, 2016). However, within the Turkish EFL context, research on integrating CFT remains notably sparse (Bağ & Bayyurt, 2015; Gün & Topkaya, 2023; Ordem & Ulum, 2020).

This paper aimed to address this gap, advocating for a more robust engagement with CFT in Turkish EFL academia, pedagogy and research and calls for further investigation into how CFT can enrich ELT in Turkish context.

Our critical review of existing literature highlighted persistent biases, particularly in the prioritization of male identities, the pervasive use of gendered pronouns and representations and gendered language. These issues, evident even in aforementioned research addressing gender, call for a deeper examination of gendered binaries in academic discourse. This opens pathways for future research to explore how gendered language disproportionately influences language anxiety, particularly among women, or how inclusive practices through CFT can mitigate such barriers. As Holman et al. (2018) emphasized, systemic gender disparities are unlikely to resolve without deliberate reforms in education, policy, and academic publishing. CFT offers the potential to challenge these entrenched inequalities by fostering inclusivity, amplifying marginalized voices, and advocating for equitable educational practices. CFT, therefore, offers a transformative lens to address these disparities, fostering inclusivity and promoting a balanced discourse that values all voices and voicing the silenced on both genders. We believe that with the lens of CFT, women and men will not compete with each other rather will complete, support and value each other in all spheres of life including education.

While some strands of Feminist Theories, highlighted in the previous parts, have faced criticism, such as neglecting racial dynamics, rejecting traditional family structures and domestic life, or fostering antagonism between genders, this study champions a version of CFT that envisions collaboration rather than competition between men and women. By emphasizing intersectionality and inclusivity, CFT envisions a framework where language education becomes a tool for fostering mutual respect and shared understanding for EFL educators, teachers and preservice teachers. Through critical discourse of CFT in ELT, educators can advance a vision of equality and respect, using language as a tool not just for effective communication but for cultivating a critical, balanced, and socially aware worldview.

This study emphasized the need for a more nuanced and critical approach to curriculum design, classroom dynamics, and material development in ELT. CFT has the potential to transform classrooms into spaces that go beyond linguistic proficiency to foster social justice and equity. By challenging existing hierarchies and integrating CFT principles into ELT, educators can create pedagogies that empower learners to critically engage with issues of gender, race, and class, ultimately reshaping education into a vehicle for meaningful social change. Lecturers can

employ CFT to critique and improve ELT curricula, design inclusive classroom materials, and promote Critical and Feminist Pedagogies that challenge stereotypes. Examples include analyzing how cultural norms embedded in ELT textbooks perpetuate gender hierarchies or incorporating digital tools that empower marginalized learners, particularly in regions with patriarchies or restrictive social norms

In conclusion, the synthesis and adoption of CFT in ELT represents a pivotal step toward redefining education as a platform for societal transformation. Language teaching is not merely a technical practice but an inherently ideological process, reflecting and shaping societal power dynamics. By fostering critical consciousness and challenging systemic inequalities, CFT equips both educators and learners to navigate linguistic, cultural, and social landscapes with empathy and agency. As such, it paves the way for a more inclusive, respectful, and balanced approach to education, one that holds the promise of reshaping not only classrooms but also the societies they reflect. This study aligns with broader efforts to address global inequalities and encourage learners to become agents of change via education.

REFERENCES

- Agger, B. (1991). Critical theory, poststructuralism, postmodernism: Their sociological relevance. Annual Review of Sociology, 17(1), 105-131. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.so.17.080191.000541
- Andersen, M. (2021). *Thinking about women: Sociological perspectives on sex and gender*. Pearson.
- Atkinson, M. L. (2020). Gender and policy agendas in the post-war house. *Policy Studies Journal*, 48(1), 133-156. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/psj.12237</u>
- Arinder, J. A. (2020). Feminist theory. In J. Egbert & M. E. Roe (Eds.), *Theoretical models for teaching and research*. Pressbooks.
- Bağ, E., & Bayyurt, Y. (2016). Gender representations in EFL textbooks in Turkey. In A. S.
 Mustapha & S. Mills (Eds.), *Gender representation in learning materials: International perspectives* (pp. 64–85). Routledge.
- Baxter, L. A., & Braithwaite, D. O. (Eds). (2008). Engaging theories in interpersonal communication: Multiple perspectives. SAGE Publications.
- Bhandar, D. (2000). Critical race theory. In L. Code (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Feminist Theories* (pp. 109-110). Routledge.
- Brimacombe, T., Kant, R., Finau, G., Tarai, J., & Titifanue, J. (2018). A new frontier in digital activism: An exploration of digital feminism in Fiji. Asia & The Pacific Policy Studies, 5(3), 508-521. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/app5.253</u>
- Bucholtz, M. (2014). *The feminist foundations of language, gender, and sexuality research.* John Wiley & Sons.
- Butler, J. (1990). Performative acts and gender constitution: An essay in phenomenology and feminist theory. In S. Case (Ed.), *Performing feminisms: Feminist critical theory and theatre* (pp. 270–282). Johns Hopkins University Press.

Butler, J. (1993). Bodies that matter: On the discursive limits of "sex." Routledge.

- Carter, S. K., O'Connell, L., & Bubriski-McKenzie, A. (2012). *History and theory*. Infobase Publication.
- Collins, P. H., & Bilge, S. (2016). Intersectionality. Polity.
- Dadds, J. H. (2011). Feminisms: Embodying the critical. In B. A. U. Levinson (Ed.), Beyond critique: Exploring critical social theories and education (pp. 171-196). Paradigm Publishers.
- Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 237-274. <u>https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.5</u>
- Enslin, P. (2001). Multicultural education, gender and social justice: Liberal feminist misgivings. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *35*(3), 281-292. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(01)00024-6
- Enslin, P. (2003). Liberal feminism, diversity and education. *Theory and Research in Education*, 1(1), 73-87. https://doi.org/10.1177/1477878503001001005
- Foucault, M. (1984). What is enlightenment? In P. Rabinow (Ed.), *The foucault reader* (pp. 32-50). Pantheon Books.
- Gaard, G. (2015). Ecofeminism and climate change. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 49, 20-33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2015.02.004

Gale de Saxe, J. (2016). Critical feminism and critical education. Routledge Taylor & Francis

- De Saxe, J. (2016). Critical feminism and critical education: An interdisciplinary approach to teacher education (1st ed.). Routledge.
- Gilligan, C., & Snider, N. (2018). Why does patriarchy persist? Polity Press.
- Graham, G. (1994). Liberal vs radical feminism revisited. *Journal of Applied Philosophy*, 11, 155–170. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5930.1994.tb00105.x</u>

Gün, S., & Topkaya, E. Z. (2023). Critical discourse analysis of gender equality in English textbooks. *Korkut Ata Türkiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, (Özel Sayı 1 (Cumhuriyetin 100. Yılına), 1360-1379. <u>https://doi.org/10.51531/korkutataturkiyat.1356800</u>

Habermas, J. (1987). Lectures on the philosophical discourse of modernity. MIT Press

- Hall, A., Hockey, J., & Robinson, V. (2007). Occupational cultures and the embodiment of masculinity: Hairdressing, estate agency and firefighting. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 14(6), 534–551. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0432.2007.00370.x</u>
- Hansen, K. V., & Philipson, I. J. (Eds). (1990). Women, class, and the feminist imagination: A socialist-feminist reader. Temple University Press.
- Hochschild, A. R., & Machung, A. (2003). *The second shift: Working parents and the revolution at home*. Penguin Books.
- Holman, L., Stuart-Fox, D., & Hauser, C. E. (2018). The gender gap in science: How long until women are equally represented? *PLoS Biology*, *16*(4), e2004956.
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2004956</u>

Hooks, B. (2000). Feminism is for everybody: Passionate politics. South End Press

- Horkheimer, M., & Adorno, T. W. (2002). *Dialectic of enlightenment* (E. Jephcott, Trans.). Stanford University Press. (Original work published 1944).
- Issac, A. L. (2023). Understanding Cyber-Feminism and its roles in the digital space. In D. Mishra (Ed.), Cyberfeminism and gender violence in social media (pp. 321-334). IGI Global.
- Jephcott, P., Seear, N., & Smith, J. H. (2023). Married women working. Routledge.
- Katsiampoura, G. (2024). From critical feminist theory to critical feminist revolutionary pedagogy. Advances in Applied Sociology, 14, 175-185. <u>https://doi.org/10.4236/aasoci.2024.144012</u>

Kellner, D. (1989). Critical theory, marxism and modernity. Johns Hopkins University Press.

- Lafrance, M. N., & Wigginton, B. (2019). Doing critical feminist research: A feminism & psychology reader. *Feminism & Psychology*, 29(4), 534-552. https://doi.org/10.1177/0959353519863075
- López-Medina, E. F. (2023). Feminist academic activism in English language teaching: The need to study discourses on femininities critically. *Education Sciences*, 13(6), 616. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci13060616</u>
- McGeown, S. P., & Warhurst, A. (2020). Sex differences in education: Exploring children's gender identity. *Educational Psychology*, 40(1), 103–119. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2019.1640349
- Mohajan, H. K. (2022). An overview on the feminism and its categories. *Research and Advances in Education, 1* (3), 11-26. https://doi.org/10.56397/RAE.2022.09.02
- Nentwich, J. C., & Kelan, E. K. (2014). Towards a topology of "doing gender": An analysis of empirical research and its challenges. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 21(2), 121–134. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12025</u>
- Okin, S. M. (1998). Feminism and multiculturalism: Some tensions. *Ethics*, *108*(4), 661-684. https://doi.org/10.1086/233846
- Ordem, E., & Ulum, Ö. G. (2020). Gender issues in English language teaching: Views from Turkey. *Acta Educationis Generalis*, 10(1), 25-39. <u>https://doi.org/10.2478/atd-2020-0002</u>
- Page, M. L. (2016). LGBTQ inclusion as an outcome of critical pedagogy. *The International Journal of Critical Pedagogy*, 7(1), 115-142.

Puleo, A. H. (2017). What is ecofeminism. Quaderns de la Mediterrània, 25, 27-34.

Qin, D. (2004). Toward a critical feminist perspective of culture and self. *Feminism & Psychology*, 14(2), 297–312. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/0959353504042183</u>

- Rhode, D. L. (1990). Feminist critical theories. *Stanford Law Review*, 42(3), 617–638. https://doi.org/10.2307/1228887
- Rowland, R., & Klein, R. (2013). Radical feminism: Critique and construct. In S. Gunew (Ed.), *Feminist knowledge: Critique and construct*, Routledge.
- Rudy, K. (2001). Radical feminism, lesbian separatism, and queer theory. *Feminist Studies*, 27(1), 191-222. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3178457</u>
- Schenke, A. (1996). Not just a "Social Issue": Teaching feminist in ESL. TESOL Quarterly, 30(1), 155–159. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587611
- Starcevic, V., & Aboujaoude, E. (2015). Cyberchondria, cyberbullying, cybersuicide, cybersex: "New" psychopathologies for the 21st century? World Psychiatry, 14(1), 97-100. <u>https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20195</u>
- Stevens, K. M., & Martell, C. C. (2019). Feminist social studies teachers: The role of teachers' backgrounds and beliefs in shaping gender-equitable practices. *Journal of Social Studies Research*, 43(1), 1–16. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jssr.2018.02.002</u>

Storey, J. (2021). Cultural theory and popular culture: An introduction. Routledge.

- Wood, J. T. (2015). Critical feminist theories: Giving voice and visibility to women's experiences in interpersonal relations. In D. O. Braithwaite, & P. Schrodt (Eds.), *Engaging theories in interpersonal communication: Multiple perspectives* (2nd ed., pp. 203–216). SAGE Publications.
- Yucel, D., & Chung, H. (2023). Working from home, work–family conflict, and the role of gender and gender role attitudes. *Community, Work & Family*, 26(2), 190-221. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2021.1993138</u>

ABOUT THE AUTHORS



Dr. Rümeysa PEKTAŞ

ORCID: 0000-0001-7883-9664

pektasrumeysa@gmail.com

Suleyman Demirel University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language Teaching

Rümeysa PEKTAŞ works as Dr. at Süleyman Demirel University in ELT Division, Isparta. She earned her PhD at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in ELT. She presented papers in international/national conferences and published in refereed journal and book chapters. She has attended TUBITAK Projects and received certificates. She currently teaches Active Learning in ELT, Language-Literature Teaching, Listening & Pronunciation and Practicum I. Her main research interests are; Active Learning in ELT, AI, EMI, Positive Psychology, Personal & Professional Development, Critical Discourse Analysis, Reflective Teaching, Intercultural Communication, Orientalism, Women Studies, Body Language & Elocution, Special Education & ELT.



Dr. Kübra ŞIK KESER

ORCID: 0000-0003-1492-5883

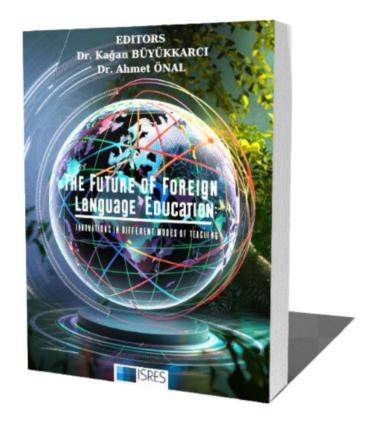
kubrakubrask@gmail.com / kubra.keser@agu.edu.tr

Abdullah Gül University, School of Foreign Languages

Dr. Kübra Şık Keser is an accomplished lecturer in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at Abdullah Gul University's School of Foreign Languages. She earned her Ph.D. in English Language Teaching at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, demonstrating her commitment to advancing the field. With over 12 years of experience in both teaching and research, Dr. Keser has developed a strong expertise in language education. Her research interests primarily encompass skill-based instruction in English Language Teaching (ELT), focusing on effective methodologies that enhance learners' competencies. Additionally, she is dedicated to exploring issues of academic integrity and the nuances of academic writing, contributing to the discourse on best practices in higher education. Dr. Keser's passion for language education and her extensive experience position her as a leading educator and researcher in the field.

Cite this Chapter

Pektaş, R. & Şık Keser, K. (2024). The faces of janus in women studies: Critical feminist theory and ELT. In K. Büyükkarcı & A. Önal (Eds.), *The future of foreign language education: Innovations in different modes of teaching*, (pp. 262-281). ISRES Publishing.



The Future of Foreign Language Education: Innovations in Different Modes of Teaching has been published from the selected papers invited by the editors.

Embracing up-to-date topics on ELT methodology, foreign language skills, technology use in ELT and teacher training, sociolinguistics, translanguaging and critical thinking skills, this comprehensive volume includes 11 chapters and stands out as reflecting the scholarly perspectives and research of academics from international backgrounds.

The Future of Foreign Language Education: Innovations in Different Modes of Teaching is published by ISRES Publishing.

