CURRENT PATHWAYS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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çizgi KİTABEVİ | e-Kitap

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FOREWORD

Foreign language teaching has attracted the attention of all societies throughout history. Today, this interest has reached its highest level and foreign language teaching has become a great sector. In recent years, the rapid political, social, economic and technological developments and changes in many countries, have made the politicians very busy, forcing them to create new policies, set new strategic goals and develop new working methods especially in the field of education.

As a method, it is argued by many educators that we primarily need to focus on learners and learning. It is also argued that more learning will take place when we provide an environment where everyone can feel more comfortable and safe, work independently and freely, and control his/her own learning. This book has been prepared for the purpose of shedding light on various areas of Foreign Language Education by experts of field. Hoping to be fruitful…

Editorial Committee

ASSESSMENT and ASSESSMENT TYPES

Asst. Prof. Dr. Selma DURAK ÜĞÜTEN

1. Definition of Assessment

Assessment plays an important part in the teaching-learning process at all levels of education. Since assessment plays such an important part in the future of students there is no doubt that any assessment system will determine what students learn and how they do it. Hence assessment will also determine the way in which we teach and what we teach. So what is an assessment? Assessment is not just about grading and examinations. It is also about getting to know our students and the quality of their learning and to use this knowledge and understanding to their benefit. Assessment is one of the most important parts of the teaching and learning process. As Palomba and Banta states (1999), assessment is a process which aims to understand and improve student learning. However, "How will we assess a work?" is an important question to be answered as there has been a lot of assessment types. After making it clear about the definition of assessment, there comes another big question, "Why do we assess?" We assess a work with a purpose in mind which may change depending on the work. Following are some reasons of assessing:

1.Assessment is needed for learning

The primary function of assessment is to measure student learning. According to Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (1999), assessment and feedback are very important as they help people learn. Assessment can be seen as a mirror which provides information about the levels of understanding that students are reaching. For learners, in order to gain insight into their learning and their understanding, they should receive frequent feedback.

2. Assessment is needed for effective teaching

Assessment helps learning effectively in ways that students are trying to solve problems or they believe that their work will be considered fairly and honestly.

In conclusion, an important purpose of assessment is to make learners develop necessary and crucial knowledge and skills as a result of the course or program.

2. Types of Assessment

Two types of assessment can be talked basicly: conventional or traditional and alternative assessment.

Traditional assessment is a type of assessment in which students select responses from a multiple-choice list, a true/false list, or a matching list. There is always some standardized, multiple-choice test or a short-answer test that should be completed in a determined time (Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser, 2001).

On the other hand, in recent years, there is a shift from traditional assessment to alternative assessment, which uses strategies such as case studies, portfolios, and peer review. It is considered to be an important addition to standardized assessment. The rationale behind alternative assessment is to gather evidence from real-life or authentic tasks, use multiple assessment strategies to assess learning, and provide ongoing feedback to students (Pellegrino, Chudowsky, & Glaser, 2001).

It may be easy to use traditional assessment as there is not much work for teachers to do. However, for alternative assessment, both teacher and the student are very busy with strategies used. Although it is more tiring to use, in recent years teachers prefer it as it makes their students active in a learning situation.

3. Assessment of L2 Writing

Assessing L2 writing is a difficult task for a teacher as the scores they give may have a significant effect on learners' lives. Hyland (2003), for instance, states that assessment is not only administering exams and giving marks. Evaluating learner's writing performance is a formative process which has an important impact on student learning, the design of the writing course teaching strategies and teacher feedback.

Process approach to writing has many implications for writing assessment since it is not summative but formative. According to Garrison and Ehringhaus (n.d) summative assessments are given periodically to determine at a particular point in time what students know and do not know. So what the learner did at the end of the course is important; however, formative assessment provides the information needed to adjust teaching and learning while they are happening. In this sense, formative assessment informs both teachers and students about student understanding at a point when adjustments can be made.

They also indicate that students should be encouraged to be involved both as assessors of their own learning and as resources to other students. There are numerous strategies for teachers to do it. Engaging students in the assessment of their own learning is providing them with descriptive feedback as they learn. Descriptive feedback provides students with an understanding of what they are doing well, links to classroom learning, and gives specific input on how to reach the next step in the learning progression. This does not mean the absence of teacher involvement.

They also suggested instructional strategies that are integral to the formative assessment process. They are:

- Criteria and goal setting with students engages them in instruction and the learning process by creating clear expectations. In order to be successful, students need to understand and know the learning target/goal and the criteria for reaching it. Using student work, classroom tests, or exemplars of what is expected helps students understand where they are, where they need to be, and an effective process for getting there.
- Observations go beyond walking around the room to see if students are on task or need clarification. Observations assist teachers in gathering evidence of student learning to inform instructional planning. This evidence can be recorded and used as feedback for students about their learning or as anecdotal data shared with them during conferences.
- Questioning strategies should be embedded in lesson/unit planning. Asking better questions allows an opportunity for deeper thinking and provides teachers with significant insight into the degree and depth of understanding. Questions of this nature engage students in classroom dialogue that both uncovers and expands learning.
- Self and peer assessment helps to create a learning community within a classroom. Students who can reflect while engaged in metacognitive thinking are involved in their learning. When students have been involved in criteria and goal setting, self-evaluation is a logical step in the learning process. With peer evaluation, students see each other as resources for understanding and checking for quality work against previously established criteria.
- Student record keeping helps students better understand their own learning as evidenced by their classroom work. This process of students keeping ongoing records of their work not only engages students, it also helps them, beyond a «grade,» to see where they started and the progress they are making toward the learning goal (n.d., 2)

In order to have an autonomous learner, a teacher may use these strategies since they foster learner autonomy. An autonomous learner is expected to be critical, ready to set learning goals and capable of having self-assessment. A teacher may foster learner autonomy by implementing portfolio assessment in his/her classes because portfolio assessment requires embedding of the strategies in implementation. Learners are at the core of learning process in portfolio implementation and it is the teacher's duty to make learner involved in writing assessment process by giving them opportunity to edit their work, reflect upon it and giving constant feedback. Portfolio assessment gives teachers a chance to make their learners involved and edit their work and deal with it.

4. Portfolio Assessment

4.1. Definition of Portfolio Assessment

As defined before, a portfolio is a systematic collection of student work. It is more than a file filled with the student's work. It shows the student's progress over time. In addition to this, portfolios play an important role in assessing student's process for learning. So how students arrive at their end is more important than products. Moya and O'Malley (1994, 2) differ portfolio from portfolio assessment. They state that "a portfolio is a collection of a student's work, experiences, exhibitions, self-ratings (i.e., data), whereas portfolio assessment is the procedure used to plan, collect, and analyze the multiple sources of data maintained in the portfolio". According to them, a portfolio may give enough information about student's capabilities in learning if it is based on a systematic assessment and added that portfolio used for educational assessment should offer more than a showcase of a learner's products. According to Hancock (1994, 2) portfolio assessment can be defined as:

"an ongoing process involving the student and the teacher in selecting samples of student work for inclusion in a collection, the main purpose of which is to show the student's progress. The use of this procedure is increasing in the language field, particularly with respect to the writing skill. It makes intuitive sense to involve students in decisions about which pieces of their work to assess and to assure that feedback is provided. Both teacher and peer reviews are important."

It is the systematic and longitudinal collection of student work which is created as a response to specific and known objectives. While evaluating, the same criteria is used. (What is portfolio assessment, para.1)

The idea behind portfolio assessment is that it provides a way to assess student's progress over time. It gives a chance to monitor the changes that a student has during learning procedure. Assessment is done by measuring the individual works as well as the portfolio as a whole with a purpose in mind.

4.2 Purposes of Portfolio Assessment

Before implementing portfolio assessment, there are some requirements to be done, such as deciding on the purpose that the portfolio will serve. Purposet will give shape the following procedure like deciding on the task, assessment type, assessment criteria and evaluation of the portfolio. Portfolios may be used for different aims some of which are given below:

- Portfolios are a form of alternative/authentic assessment in which a student›s progress is measured over a period of time in various language learning contexts. Portfolios can include evidence of specific skills and other items at one particular time and language performance and progress over time, under different conditions, in all four modalities (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) or all three communication modes (interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational). Using a combination of testing instruments lends validity and reliability to the portfolio.
- Portfolio assessment is closely linked to instruction, which has two educational benefits. First, linking assessment to instruction means that you are sure that you are measuring what you have taught. Second, portfolios reveal any weaknesses in instructional practices. · Portfolio assessment is by nature incorporated fully into instruction: there is no time lost on assessment. Assessment is a true learning experience, and not external to the learning process.
- Student assessment portfolios promote positive student involvement. As students create their portfolios, they are actively involved in and reflecting on their own learning. · Portfolios offer the teacher and student an in-depth knowledge of the student as a learner. This means that the teacher can individualize instruction for the student. Weak areas can be strengthened and areas of mastery built upon. Learners are involved in this process of tracking their learning and can take control of their learning.
- Using portfolios introduces students to an evaluation format with which they may need to become familiar as more schools and districts adopt portfolio assessment.
- Using assessment portfolios gives the teacher opportunities to involve parents in their children›s language learning. Parental involvement is an important factor in educational success. (Why use portfolio assessment, 2008)

While implementing portfolio, a teacher wants to encourage self-directed learning since portfolio requires this. It is a collection of student's work over time so it has a function to foster learning about learning. For instance, they may learn while they are reflecting on their own

works. (Prince George's County Public Schools: portfolio assessment 2008). That means they become self-assessors (White, 1994, 31). They begin to learn how to assess their first drafts which is very difficult for many students since they do not see anything wrong with their work.

Using portfolio assessment in a class is useful both for teachers and learners. . According to Elbow (1994), as a result of implementing portfolio assessment in a class, learners have a chance to use a good writerly process which requires exploring a topic in a writing, to think about it, to get feedback and to make revision. Another advantage of portfolio assessment comes for the teacher of that class who has a chance to evaluate the process itself. That is, since portfolios contain more than one paper teachers may evaluate a student's strengths and weaknesses. They cannot make inference about learner's ability depending on only one paper.

Enginarlar (1994) points out that portfolio assessment requires learners to write better since it provides them with the opportunities of revision, feedback from peers and teachers. Peer and teacher assessment have an impact on student's own learning.

To conclude, portfolio assessment has many positive sides both for teachers and learners which will be discussed in the following section.

4.3 Advantages of Portfolio Assessment in Foreign Language Teaching

When it is compared to traditional assessment, implementing portfolio assessment in a class has many advantages. First of all, traditional assessment does not give much responsibility to the students. They are only responsible to give an end product. However, in portfolio assessment students are responsible for their own learning. Portfolio assessment does not deal with the product since it gives importance to how it is produced. In traditional assessment, learners are not at the center of learning process. As teachers do not see students as learners, they do not involve them in their teaching and assessing processes. On the other hand, in portfolio assessment, learners are also responsible for their assessment since they are embedded in all stages of this implementation.

The following table gives the difference between traditional assessment and portfolio assessment in detail:

Traditional Assessment	Portfolio Assessment
Measures student's ability at one time	Measures student's ability over time
Done by teacher alone; student often unaware of criteria	Done by teacher and student; student aware of criteria
Conducted outside instruction	Embedded in instruction
Assigns student a grade	Involves student in own assessment
Does not capture the range of student's language ability	Captures many facets of language learning performance
Does not include the teacher's knowledge of student as a learner	Allows for expression of teacher's knowledge of student as learner
Does not give student responsibility	Student learns how to take responsibility

(What is portfolio assessment, 2008)

As it is understood from the table, it enables teacher's cooperation with students. They share the responsibility for setting learning goals, tasks, assessment process and assessment type. So it provides opportunities for students and teachers to discuss learning goals and the progress toward those goals. It also gives a chance to the student to reflect on what s/he has done which requires self-evaluation and critical thinking. Peer evaluation is important since it enables cooperative learning (Venn, 2000)

Gallehr (1993; cited in Richards and Renandya, 2002) states that no system of assessment is as perfect as portfolio assessment. Although portfolio assessment requires learners to write, they can choose the topic, audience, responders in the class and revision strategies.

Murphy (1994) states the use of portfolio in a class shows that learners are involved in all stages of the assessment process by the help of the portfolio that enables teachers to collect necessary information about the learner and his/her progress over time. Reflection sheets in a portfolio also used to uncover the rhetorical and cultural models students bring to the task of learning to write.

To sum up, portfolio assessment enhances students' creativity and productivity and provides information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students (Brown and Hudson, 1998).

4.4 Disadvantages of Portfolio Assessment in Foreign Language Teaching

Besides these advantages, portfolio has some drawbacks. Time consuming is one of the most common ones since it requires extra time to plan an assessment system and conduct the assessment. Students sometimes find portfolio implementation procedure difficult to manage since they have to spend time while they are gathering all of the necessary data. It is a systematic implementation so everything should be clear before starting to use it, like making purpose and criteria for assessment clear. It also requires students to be disciplined in order to fulfill the requirements of portfolio assessment (Venn, 2000).

Portfolios are special to the groups they are designed for. So it is difficult to make generalizations. As Köse (2006, 40) indicates "the findings and conclusions drawn from the evaluation and analysis of the portfolios of a target group might not be compared to students in other institutions or even generalized. These findings are specific to the environment where the portfolio is implemented".

Another disadvantage is related to its evaluation since it keeps more than one paper which requires much evaluation. Some accept it as an advantage some disadvantage. Students also feel that everything they write should be kept in their portfolios for assessment since they do lots of exercises and other work. Elbow (1994, 52) points out that "there is no such thing as too much evaluation. We are always involved in evaluation of some sort every moment that we teach. How else will students improve if they do not get constant evaluative feedback of one sort or another about strengths and weaknesses of their writing? Perhaps they don't need formal testing or holistic scoring or even numbers at all, but they need constant evaluative responses as to strengths and weaknesses".

In short, we should accept that although portfolio assessment has some disadvantages, it makes evaluation pervasive and comprehensive. Students spend much more time for the preparation of portfolio; however, they are involved in the procedure of both implementation and evaluation of portfolio which make them aware of their progress over time.

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ERROR ANALYSIS : WHY and HOW?

Asst. Prof. Dr. Fahrettin ŞANAL*

ABSTRACT

As everybody knows, in the foreign language learning process, it is inevitable for learners to make mistakes. In the foreign language teaching and learning, the study of learners' errors in other words Error Analysis is a technique for identifying, describing and systematically explaining the errors made by a learner, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguists. The foreign language teachers should make use of techniques of error analysis in the foreign language classes. The aim of this paper is to study Error Analysis (EA) and to show how it can be useful in a foreign (an English) language teaching program.

Keywords: error, mistake, error analysis, foreign language

Introduction

As it is known in 1950s, behaviourist approach (BA) described language learning as a habit formation and explained why the second language (L2) learners made errors. According to BA old habits hinder or facilitate forming new habits.That is why errors are "unwanted". Since the errors were result of non-learnig rather than wrong learning,there was a danger of errors becoming habits if they were tolerated, so like sin, errors should be avoided.Depending on the behaviourism and structuralism Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) focused on the interference of first L1 on L2 learning.(Brown 1987) CAH was mostly interested in interference erros rather than developmental errors!

In the early 1970s Contrastive Analysis (CA) was criticised in terms of empirical, theoretical and practical considerations. Critisims on CA were classified as follows.

"First, there were the doubts concerning the ability of CA to predict errors.These doubts arose when researchers began to examine language –learner language in depth. The second, there were a number of theoretical critisms regarding the feasibility of comparing languages and Methodology of CA. Third, there were reservations about whether CA had any thing to offer

language teacher."(Ellis 1985)And lately it is understood that L2 learning is a creative process of constructing a language system.(Brown 1987) In other words, according to cognitive approach the making of errors is an inevitable and necessary part of languge learning. Because of criticisms and new developments in L2 learnig, the interest in CA declined as the enthusiasm for EA grew.

A. Error Analysis?

"There is an Italian proverb 'Sbagliando simpara'(We can learn through our errors)…making mistakes can indeed be regarded as an essential part of learning."(Norrish 1983). Brown (1987) says that language learning, like any other human learning is a process that involves the making mistakes. In order to understand the process of L2 learning, the mistakes a person

made in the process of constructing a new system of language should be analysed carefully. Here we can give the definition of EA as a process based on analysis of learners' errors. It does cover both interference and developmental errors.The forerunner of EA, Corder (1987) explains the significance of learners' errors in three different ways. "The first to the teacher in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and consequently what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how langugage is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly,(and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn." Brown ((1987) gives the

definition of error analysis as follows;"The fact that learners do make errors and these errors can be observed ,analysed and classified to reveal some thing of the system operating within the learner led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called 'error analysis'."

As it is seen in the definitions the aim of this process is to suggest suitable and effective teaching-learning strategies and remedial measures necessary in the target language. It is a multidimensional process which involves much more than simply analysing errors of learners. EA becomes distinguished from CA in that it examines all possible sources of errors.

B. The use of error analysis in foreign language teaching

Corder (1973) says that " the most obvious practical use of the analysis of errors is to the teachers. Errors provide feedback, they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques, and show him what parts of the syllabus, he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. As it is seen in the explanation given above, error analysis can be a very useful device of a foreign – language teaching program. Undertaken at the beginning level, error analysis reveal to the teacher "knotty" areas of the language confronting the students. The frequency counts of errors supported by the solutions of CA can be helpful in setting up teaching priorities. Teaching time and effort can be allocated accordingly for optimal results.

C. Some considerations on the error analysis

a. Identification of errors

There are those so-called "errors" or "mistakes" that are more correctly described as lapses. A mistake refers to a performance error, it is a failure to make use of a known system. Everybody makes mistakes in both native and second language situations.Normally native speakers are able to recognise and correct such "lapses" or "mistakes" which are not the result of a deficiency in competence, but the result of imperfection in the process of producing speech (Brown 1987).

Errors are deviances that are due to deficient competence (i-e "knowledge" of the language, wich may or may not be conscious). As they are due to deficient competence they tend to be systematic and not self correctable. Whereas "mistakes" or "lapses" that are due to performance deficiencies and arise from lack of attention, slips of memory, anxiety possibly caused by pressure of time etc.They are not systematic and readily identifiable and self correctable.(Corder 1973).

b. Description of errors

As we know error analysis is a comparative process. So, in order to describe the errors, in a way, we use a special case of contrastive analysis, and we compare synonymous utterances in the learner's dialect and the target language, in other words we compare "erroneous utterance" and "reconstructed utterance".(Corder 1973). According to Corder's model (1973) any sentence uttered by the subsequently transcribed can be analysed for idiosyncrasies.A major distinction is made between "overt" and "covert" errors.(Brown 1987) Overtly erroneous utterances are completely ungrammatical at the sentence level. Covertly erroneous utterances are grammatically well-formed at the sentence level, but are not interpretable within the context. According to Corder's model, in the case of both overt and covert errors, if

we can make a plausible interpretation of the sentence, then we should make a reconstruction of the sentence in the target language and compare the reconstruction with original idiosyncratic sentence, and then describe the differences.(Brown 1987)

c. Tracing errors to their sources

In order to arrive at effective remedial measures the analyst must understand fully the mechanism that triggers each type of error.(Şanal 2007). The source of an error could be interlanguage or intralanguage.(Richards 1971)

1. Errors caused by negative transfer

If the learner of a foreign language makes some mistakes in the target language by the effect of his mother tongue, that is called as interlanguage errors. For example, any Turkish speaker learning English may say, "Ahmet Fatma ile evlendi." in his mother tongue, and he may transfer his old habit to the target language.(Altunkaya 1985) The result would be "Ahmet married with Fatma." Which is not acceptable in English.

2. Errors caused by the target language

Learners may make mistakes in the target language, since they don't know the target language very well, they have difficulties in using it.For example, they may say "mans" instead of saying "men" as the plural form of "man".In that way the learner overgeneralize the use of plural

suffixes. Richards (1979 focuses on intralanguage/developmental errors and distinguishes four types of developmental errors.

I-Overgeneralization

II-Ignorance of rule restriction

III-Incomplete application of rule

IV-False concepts hypothesised. The problem with this classification is that

it's difficult to distinguish between these types.

D. Error analysis and a foreign language teaching program

One of the justifications for the study of learners' errors is that a good understanding of the nature of error is necessary before a systematic means of eradicating them could be found(Corder 1973). Since the errors of performance are known to be unsystematic, but the errors of competence systematic, the teachers of English should be aware of the system of errors. It is not sufficient merely to study learners' errors and to classify them in different groups. Only when the teachers of English know why an error has been produced they can

set about correcting in a systematic way.It's generally unacceptable to correct the errors of a foreigner for native speakers unless they have been asked to do so by him.But for the teacher, it is one of the most important tasks of him in the language classroom to decide when correction is necessary.

To correct the learners' errors enable them to acquire most expeditiously the correct forms of the target language. The classroom teachers should be careful in that all language practice must focus, in a systematic manner, on those points of language use that present significant learning problems as shown by error analysis.

E. The error analysis and the classroom teacher

We can say that the teacher of English can carry out error analysis of his learners' English. The result will be highly rewarding;

a. He will be in a much better position to pinpoint those areas of English where his students go wrong for various reasons.
b. He will have a keener insight into the various mechanism that lead errors in his learners' English. For example he will have a better and more systematic understanding of how the learners' native-language system interferes with their learning of English.
c. He will come to know a lot about the learning problems of individual students. All this in formation will equip the teacher much better to devise remedial measures to make his teaching and learners' learning much more rapid and effective. Time spent on error analysis will thus be very fruitfully utilised.

Conclusion

As a result of interlanguage theory and the study of error analysis, we can say that errors are no longer seen as "unwanted forms", instead errors can be accepted as an indication of some kind of learning activity taking place in thre learner. I'll conclude this paper with an extract from "language learners and their errors"(Norrish 1983).

"The learner, in a very real sense, must create his language for himself. The teacher cannot learn it for him.As von Humboldt put it, as long as 1836 (the idea is not a new one!)language cannot actually be taught it may appear at first sight that it can.It can only be aroused in the mind and be given the thread with which to develop itself."

* In this study the writer made use of one of his ex-articles. "Error analysis based second language teaching strategies; Journal of the Institute of Social Sciences; Selçuk University 2008"

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THE IMPACT OF LEARNING STRATEGIES ON LEARNER AUTONOMY

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INTRODUCTION

Autonomous learning is receiving increased attention in both the theoretical and applied literatures in education. If we agree that helping students to gain more responsibility for their own learning is an important goal, then we must help them develop the competencies and attitudes needed for self-directed learning. The topics of autonomy and independence play an increasingly important role in language education. They raise issues such as learners' responsibility for their own learning, and their right to determine the direction of their own learning, the skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning. To learn a language effectively, students need to know *how* to learn as well as *what* to learn. Having a repertoire of learning strategies can help students become better and more autonomous learners. So the answers of these questions become more important: "How does practice help learners take greater control over their learning?" and "How can teachers introduce these strategies in their classrooms?"

Learning-to-learn phenomena have been examined from a wide variety of perspectives. For the purposes of the present discussion, attention will be focused on a subarea, generally referred to as learning strategies. Learning strategies include any thought or behaviours that help us to require new information in such a way that the new information is integrated with our existing knowledge. Learning strategies also help us to retrieve stored information. So the main goal of learner autonomy is that learners are not passive any more in the classroom. Instead, they share the responsibilities of their own learning procedure with their teachers. Examples of learning strategies include summarizing, paraphrasing, creating analogies, imaging, note-taking and outlining.

The term Learner Autonomy, was first coined in 1981 by Henri Holec, the "father" of learner autonomy. Many definitions have since been given to the term, depending on the writer, the

context and the level of debate, educators have come to. It has been considered as a personal human trait, as a political measure or as an educational move. This is due to the fact that autonomy is seen either (or both) as a means or as an end in education. For a definition of autonomy, we might quote Holec who defines learner autonomy as "ability to take charge of one's own learning and adds that this ability "is not inborn but must be acquired either by 'natural' means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way" (Holec 1981: 3). On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways (Benson and Voller (cited in Üğüten 2009: 3-4):

for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;

- for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

As Dikilitaş (2015: 47) indicated "trainees are no longer seen as recipients of knowledge, but constructors of it through active engagement in the process of learning. In addition, they are given more opportunities to take control of their learning as is implied and encouraged by principles of autonomous learning".

It is noteworthy that autonomy can be thought of in terms of a departure from education as a social process, as well as in terms of redistribution of power attending the construction of knowledge and the roles of the participants in the learning process. The relevant literature is riddled with innumerable definitions of autonomy and other synonyms for it which testifies to the importance attached to it by scholars. As has been intimated so far, the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy, inasmuch as linguists and educationalists have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. It is not something done to learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method (ibid.). In the same way, Dam (1995) talks about autonomy in terms of the learner's willingness and capacity to control or oversee her own learning. More specifically, she, like Holec, holds that someone is qualified as an autonomous learner when he independently chooses aims and purposes and sets goals; chooses materials, methods and tasks; exercises choice and purpose in organising and carrying out the chosen tasks; and chooses criteria for evaluation.

LEARNING STRATEGIES AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Over the last two decades, the concepts of learner autonomy and independence have gained momentum, the former becoming a 'buzz-word' within the context of language learning (Little, 1991). It is a truism that one of the most important spin-offs of more communicatively oriented language learning and teaching has been the premium placed on the role of the learner in the language learning process (Wenden, 1998). It goes without saying, of course, that this shift of responsibility from teachers to learners does not exist in a vacuum, but is the result of a concentration of changes to the curriculum itself towards a more learner-centred kind of learning. What is more, this reshaping, so to speak, of teacher and learner roles has been conducive to a radical change in the old-age distribution of power and authority that used to plague the traditional classroom. Cast in a new perspective and regarded as having the 'capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action' (Little, 1991: 4), learners, autonomous learners, that is, are expected to assume greater responsibility for, and

take charge of, their own learning. In order to obtain the expected autonomy, learners should be aware of and be able to explore their individual and specific strategies.

A central research project on learning strategies is the one surveyed in O'Malley and Chamot (1990). They define learning strategies as 'the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information' –a definition in keeping with the one provided in Wenden (1998: 18): 'Learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so'. To a greater or lesser degree, the strategies and learning styles that someone adopts may show the way how people prefer to learn.

However, learner autonomy does not mean that the teacher becomes redundant, abdicating his/her control over what is transpiring in the language learning process. Teachers are there to guide and help them on the way they are to control over their own learning. At this point, making them identify the strategies they are using is another essential point. Because each learner is different in learning habits, needs, goals of learning, motivation, and being an independent and responsible learner. So the aim of developing learner autonomy means to equip the learners with the necesary skills and strategies which will help them to take the responsibility of their own learning process. As Rokoszewska stated in 2012, the development of learner autonomy is a long process which should be initiated at primary school. The process of learning how to learn involves different activities which aim at the development of metacognitive awareness and learning strategies. Metacognitive awareness, i.e. the awareness of the learning process and oneself as the learner, has a positive influence on learning results (p.1). That is, learner autonomy is very important in a child's development in general and in learning a foreign language. Rokoszewska indicated that metacognitive awareness consists of: language awareness, social awareness, cognitive awareness and cultural awareness (2012: p.1). Language awareness means to encourage children to be curious about language and question when necessary. Social awareness leads children to interact, communicate and cooperate with others. Cognitive awareness helps young learners understand why and how they are learning foreign languages. Cultural awareness fosters tolerance and positive attitudes towards the target language users and their culture.

When considering the higher levels like University-level, language learning involves higher, more demanding skills and tasks such as reading a novel, analyzing a poem or story, listening to lectures, or writing a research paper. Learning strategies can help learners meet these demands. For example, when faced with long-term assignments, learners benefit from ***planning*** their time and ***organizing*** the assignment into small tasks.

Extensive language learning resources are available to both instructors and learners at the university level. Traditional language labs have become multimedia centers that provide software and Internet practice. Teacher Assistant and peer tutoring opportunities are available in most language programs. Also, many language departments house target language libraries and reading rooms. Language clubs host films, speakers, and cultural outings. Lastly, foreign exchange programs allow students to experience the target culture and learn the language in immersion setting. Strategic learners can take advantage of these information and practice sources. Teaching students learning strategies will help encourage them to access and use varying educational opportunities.

In addition, learners can share ideas and check their work by cooperating with classmates. Students can use graphic organizers to prepare for the assignment and present and/or illustrate

the information efficiently. Finally, university-level language learners can use appropriate information sources such as reference materials, models, and the Internet to complete difficult assignments and even take their work a step further. Therefore, metacognitive learning strategies, reflecting upon one's own thinking and learning, are the most important strategies in autonomous learning or self-directed learning. Once learners begin to think about their own learning, they can then begin to notice how they learn, how others learn, and how they might adjust how they learn to learn more efficiently. Four general metacognitive strategies that can be used are as follows:

1. **Organize/Plan** *Your Own Learning*
2. **Manage** *Your Own Learning*
3. **Monitor** *Your Own Learning*
4. **Evaluate** *Your Own Learning*

These metacognitive strategies follow the sequential order of the process a learner generally goes through in accomplishing any task

What do I do before I start? (*Organize/Plan*)

What do I do while I am working on the task? (*Manage*)

How do I make sure I am doing the task correctly? (*Monitor*)

What do I do after I have finished the task? (*Evaluate*)

It is important to remember, however, that learners are not as linear as our models suggest. In reality, learners go back and forth: planning, then monitoring, then planning again, managing, organizing, etc. At this point, how can these strategies foster autonomy and how does this practice help learners take greater control over their learning are the questions that arise. The six types of approaches to the development of autonomy ***a***re as follows:

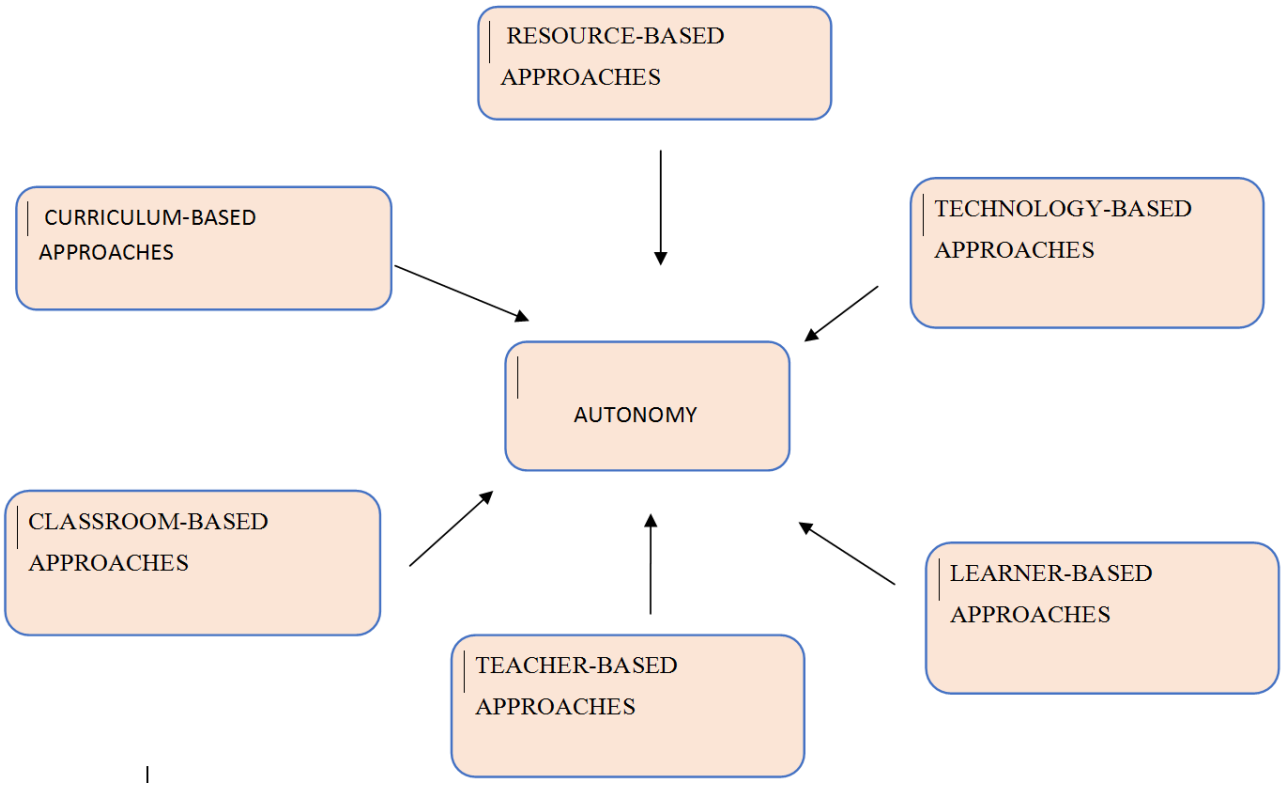

Figure I. Autonomy in language learning and related areas of practice (Benson 2001; p. 112)

All of these approaches support the idea of having autonomus learners ready to take their own learning procedure's responsibilities.

CONCLUSION

Autonomy in learning is a process and not a product that many EFL students seek today. Autonomy requires understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses and accumulating a diverse set of resources that will maximize exposure and improvements in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is difficult to improve language skills exclusively through autonomous learning. Skills can be learned by studying independently and with other EFL students, but skills are only truly assimilated when they can be confirmed and responded to by a qualified mentor. In most cases, this is achieved in a formal classroom environment.

The intent of learning strategies instruction is to help all students become better language learners. When students begin to understand their own learning processes and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self- knowledge and skill in regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of successful learners, including successful language learners.

Maybe the most significant issue in trying to foster autonomy in the classrooms is empowering learners with Learning Strategies, that is, teaching learners to think about their learning. It is worth devoting some class time to telling our students about Metacognition. The introduction will allow teachers to begin the conversation about thinking and learning which will continue throughout the year in the context of their language and content lessons. After this introduction, teachers should be able to integrate learning strategies instruction seamlessly into their class without switching topics or wasting time.

Students who think and work strategically are more motivated to learn and have a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability. That is, strategic students perceive themselves as more able to succeed academically than students who do not know how to use strategies effectively. Students who expect to be successful at a learning task generally are successful, and each successful learning experience increases motivation. In order to continue to be successful with learning tasks, students need to be aware of the strategies that led to their success. The value of this type of self-knowledge is that it leads to reflection, to planning how to proceed with a learning task, to monitoring one's own performance on an ongoing basis, and to self-evaluation upon task completion. In other words, it leads to self-regulation of one's learning. Students with greater metacognitive awareness understand the similarity between the current learning task and previous ones, know the strategies required for successful learning, and anticipate success as a result of knowing "how to learn."

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L2 WRITING PEDAGOGY IN TURKEY: CHALLENGES AND SUGGESTIONS IN LINE WITH CURRENT PRACTICES

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INTRODUCTION

Of the four skills in language pedagogy, writing is regarded as the most difficult one. Writing process is evaluated as laborious and complicated by both professional and nonprofessional writers (Levy & Ransdell, 1995). As stated by Nunan (1999), it is the most difficult assignment for language learners "to produce a coherent, fluent and extended piece of writing". Although it is seen as arduous by not only native but also non-native language learners, writing is considered as the most challenging task to the learners of a foreign/second language.

Writing in an L2 is a challenging act; therefore, problems have always arisen in various L2 contexts regarding both its teaching and learning. Leki (2001) put these challenges into two; the ones that writing teachers face daily and the others that can be identified as ideological challenges. The first group include the number of students per class, time constraints, adapting local needs, and dealing with problems relating to lack of both teachers' experiences in teaching L2 writing and students' practices in first language writing. The second one involves dialoguing with learners about the opportunities that writing can provide to them and making L2 writing learners enhance their options so that writing in L2 can be seen as not a burden but a means of achieving personal goals.

Increased attention on the second language (L2) writing research and pedagogy in non-English-dominant countries has brought an array of difficulties for institutions and individuals in these contexts (Leki, 2001). Turkey, with its remarkable amount of compulsory English classes in each stage of its schooling, is one of them where L2 writing instruction is placed in the

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curriculum starting from the primary school (MONE, 2018a; MONE, 2018b). Thus, it is among the countries which suffer from those challenges regarding L2 writing with reference to both individuals and institutions.

Although there are problems in L2 teaching in Turkey, some language skills are taught and learned better compared to some others. Because of the difficulties in implementing current and more effective language teaching approaches such as communicative language teaching (Ozsevik, 2010) and the intense use of traditional language teaching methods/techniques in practice, some components of language such as grammar and reading are paid more attention than some others like speaking and writing. Thus, while learners gain some skills well, they cannot achieve expected success at some others. L2 writing is one of those components which have not been paid the attention it deserves, and therefore, has not been learned well enough by L2 learners almost nationwide Turkey.

This chapter of the book is an attempt to illustrate L2 writing pedagogy in Turkey by first determining the challenges concerning individuals and institutions, and then by providing the current applications of and research on L2 writing in this context. In other words, the study summarizes the current practices in the world and provide some suggestions for the Turkish context.

In order to achieve the targeted objectives stated in the curriculum of Turkey (MONE, 2018c) necessary solutions to the problems should be set forth. However, before that, it is essential to determine the problem areas in pedagogy and research of L2 writing in Turkey. Hence, the next section is a review of the literature on the challenges of teaching and learning L2 writing in the Turkey through the research studies carried out in this context. Subsequently, the current research and applications regarding L2 writing pedagogy will be presented following the next section.

1. PROBLEM AREAS IN TEACHING AND LEARNING L2 WRITING

Although various L2 contexts have similar kinds of difficulties, each may have its own local contextual challenges as well. After a careful review of the literature regarding the difficulties that Turkey suffers in teaching and learning L2 writing; the difficulties can be categorized as the ones that originate from teaching L2 writing together with the institutional drawbacks, and the others that students face in learning L2 writing including cultural influences on the process. Following will be the problem areas of L2 writing pedagogy and research regarding learners, teachers/instructors, institutions, and researchers respectively.

1.1. Learners' Challenges in Studying L2 Writing

Studies relating to the challenges that Turkish students face in learning L2 writing can be put under eight categories: L1 interference (Elkılıç, Han, & Aydın, 2009; Kırkgöz, 2010), cultural influence (Uysal, 2012), second language writing anxiety/apprehension (Kırmızı & Kırmızı, 2015; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007), negative self-efficacy perceptions (Erkan & Saban, 2011), negative attitudes towards writing course (Yavuz & Genç, 1998), and learners' lack of critical thinking (Alagözlü, 2007).

Negative transfer, also known as interference, is among the biggest challenges for language learners in Turkey concerning L2 writing (Elkılıç et al., 2009; Kırkgöz, 2010). Although learners' using their L1 in the planning phase of L2 writing (Akyel, 1994) and transferring the appropriate

strategies that they have in their L1 to L2 writing may have beneficial consequences (Efe, 1993), translation from Turkish to English proved to be harmful in gaining better L2 writing skill (Elkılıç et al., 2009). For example, Kırkgöz (2010) illustrated reflections of different types of interference of Turkish students into their writings in English.

Cultural backgrounds of Turkish students on their L2 essays were investigated by Akyel (1994), and Uysal (2008; 2012). Uysal (2012) found out that Turkish learners make use of adorned language, assertive markers and overstatements which are mostly seen in eastern cultures in their writings in English. She discussed that since adorned flowery language is not welcome by English and Northern European cultures, Turkish learners' tendency to use such culture-based elements may be seen as an obstacle in their learning of L2 writing. Therefore, it can be suggested that learners' cultural background is among the problem areas, which, to some extent, may influence negatively their process of gaining proficiency in L2 writing.

L2 writing anxiety and/or apprehension is one of the most common challenges that language learners in Turkey face in studying L2 writing. Kırmızı and Kırmızı (2015) explored writing anxiety of L2 learners in higher education and the reasons for this anxiety. The researchers found that time pressure and negative evaluation of the teacher caused writing anxiety on the part of learners. Öztürk and Saydam (2014) who investigated anxiety and self-efficacy of language learners regarding L2 writing revealed that such causes as lacking in vocabulary, being unable to generate ideas and organize them, and being afraid of negative evaluation are among the causes of L2 writing anxiety of tertiary level students.

Another difficulty that learners of L2 writing in Turkey face is that they develop negative self-efficacy for some reasons (Erkan & Saban, 2011) and that they have some negative attitudes towards L2 writing (Paker & Eraslan, 2015). Erkan and Saban (2011) examined the relationship between writing apprehension and self-efficacy in writing; writing apprehension and attitudes towards writing; and self-efficacy and attitudes towards writing. They have found a strong negative correlation between both writing apprehension and positive attitudes towards writing, and writing apprehension and self-efficacy. That is, if the apprehension level of Turkish language learners increases in L2 writing, both their self-efficacy in L2 writing decreases and they develop more negative attitudes towards studying L2 writing.

Finally, students' inability to think critically can be included into the problems encountered in studying L2 writing in the Turkish context. Alagozlu (2007) and Ataç (2015) studied critical thinking skills of university students in writing English in Turkey. Alagozlu (2007) stated that the learners are inclined to copy what they read into their writings rather than filtering it by judgment and reasoning. This points to the fact that being lack of critical thinking skills is a handicap before having a satisfactory level of writing and reflecting one's own voice on their writings in a second language.

1.2. Teachers' Challenges in Teaching L2 writing

Studies regarding the problems in teaching of L2 writing in Turkey can be listed as L2 writing anxiety of prospective language teachers (Atay & Kurt, 2006), lack of effective feedback/ ineffective written feedback (Qin & Karabacak, 2013), and insufficient prompts / wrong choice of prompts in L2 writing classes (Akmenek, 2000).

While the majority of the studies in the relevant literature focused on students' anxiety of L2 writing, a few of them investigated teachers'/pre-service teachers' anxiety concerning the

issue. Kurt and Atay (2007) examined pre-service English teachers' L2 writing anxiety in the Turkish context. They revealed that more than half of the participants have a high or average level of anxiety which causes them to have difficulties in organization and idea production in L2 writing process. It may point to two probable cases, one positive and the other negative, together. First, the prospective teachers who experience writing anxiety will be aware of the fact their students will most probably experience similar kinds of writing anxiety in the process of learning an L2, which is welcome in terms of pedagogy. The possible second case is that these prospective teachers may avoid both writing in the L2 language and allocating sufficient time and energy for L2 writing in their future classes, which may cause undesirable outcomes in L2 writing pedagogy.

Inability to provide effective feedback has been found to be another challenge for writing teachers in Turkey. Qin and Karabacak (2013) examined the feedback practices of Turkish university lecturers of L2 writing. Their findings displayed that most of the feedback that is provided to students by their lecturers focuses on grammar. The instructors pay little attention to the problems regarding organization and content of the essays written by their students. Therefore, since the integral and inseparable part of writing such as content and organization is ignored, learners miss the opportunity to see their strengths and weaknesses in L2 writing regarding those components.

A final dimension on which research has focused on is that language teachers use insufficient prompts or they make wrong choices of them in their L2 writing classes (Akmenek, 2000). In her thesis, she stated that prompts that can activate relevant background knowledge, guide the students about the topic and provoke thinking about it resulted in better consequences in the practices of teaching L2 writing. Hence, while the teachers who can make use of appropriate and relevant prompts concerning the topic at hand can have successful results in L2 writing classes the ones who cannot use prompts properly or sufficiently may end up in undesirable outcomes with reference to their teaching of L2 writing. Akmenek (2000)'s thesis illustrated that making wrong choices of prompts is seen in L2 writing classes.

1.3. Institutional Drawbacks and Insufficient Research in L2 Writing Pedagogy

One of the most influencing problem areas in L2 writing pedagogy in Turkey is its systemic/institutional drawbacks in the issue under investigation. Lack of high stake testing of L2 writing, insufficient time allocated to the teaching of L2 writing, and insufficient research on L2 writing are among the problems relating to schools (consisting universities) as institutions.

Students at public schools in Turkey start taking English language courses when they reach the 2nd grade of primary school. They have 2 hours, an average of 4 hours (MoNE, 2018a) and an average of 3 hours a week of English classes at primary, secondary and regular high school respectively (MoNE, 2018b). At the end of secondary school, very majority of the students take a central exam, Entrance Exam for High Schools (Turkish acronym: LGS), to be placed in better public and private high schools. They have to answers English questions which only measures their grammatical knowledge and reading comprehension in this exam. After high school, again, students except who attempt to be accepted into L2 teaching departments or similar ones do not have to take any language tests in the university entrance exam. Thus, considering the abovementioned facts, it can be easily expressed that only reading skills of students are assessed at high stake exams through which students transfer upwards between successive

stages based on their scores, other skills including writing are not. Since their writing skills are not assessed in high stake tests, both students and teachers are frequently inclined to ignore writing component of their L2 classes.

The situation is the same even for the language teacher education programs in Turkey. The candidates take a national exam in the entrance to English language teacher education programs. The test consists of grammar, vocabulary, and reading sections. However, the listening, writing and speaking skills of the candidates are not assessed. This situation directs the program candidates to focus on learning of grammar and vocabulary to enter the program. Therefore, pre-service teachers, once they start studying in the program, face problems with writing and speaking (Sert, 2010). As a result, they become less motivated to speak and write and have a high degree of anxiety with these productive skills.

L2 writing research in Turkey is largely limited to the ones mostly carried out at higher education. These studies investigated L2 writing anxiety (Kırmızı & Kırmızı, 2015; Öztürk & Saydam, 2014) and writing apprehension (Erkan & Saban, 2011), peer feedback (Demirel & Enginarlar, 2007; Mıstık, 1994) and teacher oral feedback (Trotman, 2010) on students's L2 writing, using blogs in improving L2 writing (Bozkurt, Aydın, Taşkıran, & Koral, 2016), use of L1 and L2 in composing writing (Akyel & Kamisli, 1996), cultural influences in L2 writing (Uysal, 2008), and critical thinking in L2 writing (Alagozlu, 2007). Very few studies were carried out at secondary school or high school context. Therefore, it is most probable that many other challenges regarding L2 writing pedagogy in Turkey will occur if research focuses sufficiently on the issue in the earlier stages such as secondary schools and high schools.

Thus far, the challenges of teaching and learning L2 writing in Turkey have been presented. As reported above based on the research, it was seen that L2 writing pedagogy has such fundamental problem areas as challenges of learners, teachers/instructors, institutions, and researchers. After providing these problem areas, it may be helpful to provide current practices and applications in teaching L2 writing which may act as tools to reimburse some of those challenges to some extent. Hence, the following section will focus on the current practices in L2 writing pedagogy.

2. CURRENT PRACTICES IN TEACHING L2 WRITING

For the last 30 years, computer and internet technologies have radically changed the way people process and transmit information. This important progress has been quick to find reflections in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), a part of the language learning context. Today, Web 2.0 tools offer numerous opportunities for foreign language teachers and students. As the language classes transform into student-centered educational spaces, students have the opportunity to go outside the boundaries of the physical walls of the classrooms. This makes it necessary for teachers to use these tools to strengthen their professional practice. It is unlikely that these ongoing developments will not continue. In this part, the chapter summarizes the current practices, especially the teaching of writing utilizing technological developments.

One of the most outstanding developments in Internet technologies is related to Web 2.0 tools, which is used to describe the next generation of Web technologies. These tools allow online platforms in which users can create and post content, interact via social networking, rework existing content, and share data wherever and whenever wanted. All these are crucial for writing instruction because these tools help users in "collaborative content building,

dissemination, and categorization" of information (Sykes, Oskoz, & Thorne, 2008, p. 529). According to Greenhow, Robelia, and Hughes (2009), these tools allow hybrid learning spaces which travel across physical and cyber spaces in line with the principles of collaboration and participation. In Turkey, a large national initiative was launched to integrate technology in education. Yangın Ekşi and Yeşilyurt (2018) explored the views of stakeholders regarding this information and communication technology (ICT) movement and concluded that it helped both teachers to teach more effectively and students to improve listening, reading and writing skills. Therefore, it can be argued that current practices in the world can be applied in Turkey as well. However, the technological aspect of the applicability of the current practices is not enough to use them. Thus, this section provides the current practices with regard to research on them and the importance of these applications in L2 writing instruction.

2.1. Online feedback

Feedback is very important in L2 pedagogy. The types of feedback regarding the tools used can be considered under two main categories: traditional and online feedback. Online feedback can be provided via e-mails, chat programs, video conferencing, voice calls, educational platforms, blogs, and smart applications. The online feedback sessions can be done with synchronous and asynchronous tools. The former one includes instant chats, forums, computer conference, voice conference; the later one can be achieved via e-mails and voice and video messages. Online feedback may occur as peer-feedback, peer feedback besides teacher feedback, and combined peer-teacher feedback. Also, some feedback techniques are word-processed feedback forms, e-mailing comments or feedback forms, and electronic annotations on students' works (Hatziapostoulou & Paraskakis, 2010).

Göğüş (1978) states that one of the most important elements that will improve the writing is the reaction to the writing. It is a known fact that the type of feedback received by the students in writing education is of great importance in writing education. However, it is very important to know how students receive feedback. Therefore, it is an undeniable fact that studies examining types of feedback and application methods will contribute to the field in terms of describing the effective feedback concept. With the widespread use of Web 2.0 tools, online feedback has gained significance. Çiftci (2009) investigated the effect of peer feedback on students' diaries and computer-based feedback. The study found that the later one is an effective one for Turkish students, who learned English as a foreign language,. The remarkable aspect of this research is that it focuses on computer-mediated communication in second language teaching and especially in writing classes.

2.2. Wikis

A wiki can be defined as "a web communication and collaboration tool that can be used to engage students in learning with others within a collaborative environment" (Parker & Chao, 2007, p. 57). Wiki users can add and remove the content and files they want; at the same time, they can change websites. All of these movements in the wiki with the participation of many people take place together. According to Altun (2005), the wikis have similar structures with their blog pages. For example; although there is only one author in the blogs, there is more than one author in the wiki pages. "Wikis have the potential to transform the learning experiences of the students worldwide [and] the benefits appear to outweigh the

limitations" (Wheeler, Yeomans, & Wheeler, 2008, p. 994). In blogs, participants can post comments but not change the content. This is different in wikis in terms of many users working

at the same time. Wikis are important because they allow group work, develop feelings of cooperation and responsibility. In addition, the wiki enables students to exchange information as well as exchange information. Therefore, the wikis, which are very easy and effective to use, have an acceptable effect in teaching (Mindel &Verma, 2006). One important advantage of using wikis in foreign language writing is that it is suitable for process writing and revision. This allows students to work towards the final document, while all intermediate copies are retained.

2.3. Blogs

According to Göktaş (2009), a blog is a web-based tool that allows users to create web pages without any design knowledge, write articles about these topics and add comments to other users. In other words, individuals can obtain and provide information through blogs, make comments, interact with other individuals. They can edit their own pages, give information about themselves and make updates. Blogs are web pages that can be easily created and updated. As Cych (2006) states, the students see and read the diaries and the writing of the other students in the classroom. Thus, each participant can share his / her own thoughts as he/she wishes. Through the diaries, students can share their personal opinions online. Students' personal diaries can sometimes be used as development files. Also, students can meet students outside the classroom through the diaries. In this way, individuals will also increase their obedience and responsibility towards each other. On the whole, they are easily used by students, do not require any technical knowledge, and the contents can be individualized by students; for this reason, it may be preferable to use blogs at different levels of education (Usluel & Mazman, 2009).

2.4. Electronic mails

According to Kinkead (1987), e-mails allow a forum for peer critiques, supporting oral peer group work. Barson, Frommer, Schwarts (1993) assert that a task-based approach is the most effective way to achieve successful cooperation between students. In other words, teachers should ask students to work on challenging and meaningful projects together. According to Gonzales by making use of e-mails language learners benefit from the advantages of a low-anxiety writing environment. This allows communicating their messages while continuing a dialogue format. In a study conducted by them, they found that the e-mail journals had a positive effect on the amount of language generated by the participants. It also helped the participant to develop positive attitudes towards learning and practicing the target language.

Gonzalez-Bueno (1998) mentions the following features that characterize the foreign language produced via e-mail: more language use, more different topics and language functions, success in language accuracy, more similarity with the spoken language, and more student-initiated interactions. After investigating the effect of international e-mail friendship on writing skills, Yavuz Erkan (2004), found that the participants had positive attitudes towards writing and writing through e-mail writing.

2.5. Edmodo

Edmodo is one of the Web 2.0 tools that are appropriate for the teaching of L2 writing. Apriani (2015) found that Edmodo is useful for developing learners' writing skills. This tool enables learners to reach other easily and thus the learning process can be done collaboratively. It is easy to make use of Edmodo in the classroom easily because the interface of the program is

similar to Facebook which is very popular among learners. According to Cauley (2012), "Edmodo is an educational website that takes the ideas of a social network and refines them and makes it appropriate for a classroom. Using Edmodo, students and teachers can reach out to one another and connect by sharing ideas, problems, and helpful tips" (p. 1). One advantage of Edmodo for teachers is that it allows teachers to monitor their students interactions easily both inside and outside of the classroom. Therefore, all in all, Edmodo can be used for collaborative writing.

2.6. Corpus Tools

As a result of the advent of computer technology and the developments in the processing speed and storage capacity of electronic data, the corpus (pl. corpora), has caught the attention of researchers in the educational setting. A basic definition of a corpus can be an electronic collection of written and/or spoken text. Using a corpus is also used as corpus consultation (Varley, 2009) or data-driven learning (DDL). Corpus provides language learners with an environment in which the learner has many options to find the correct answer to grammar and lexical related questions. Johns (1994) called this process of retrieving the correct answer by the learners as data-driven learning. More specifically corpus tools can be used as an authentic data source of vocabulary, grammar structures, and writing. DDL is defined as "the attempt to cut out the middleman as far as possible and to give the learner direct access to the data" (Johns, 1991, p. 30). In other words, in the DDL method, the rules are not given explicitly to the students. Contrary, the students are expected to reach patterns themselves by accessing multiple language samples, which is essential for the success in foreign language writing.

Research has shown that vocabulary knowledge is one of the most crucial features that determine writing quality (Walters & Wolf, 1996). The teaching of multi-word expressions (idioms, collocations, formulae, chunks, and lexical bundles) is crucial in language use and learning (Biber & Conrad, 1999). Anthony (2005), for instance developed "a corpus analysis toolkit designed by the author for specific use in the classroom, that includes a powerful concordancer, word and keyword frequency generators, tools for cluster and lexical bundle analysis, and a word distribution plot" (p. 729). This tool can be used by writing teachers, learners and researchers. Moreover, previous research has shown that corpus tools have positive effects on the teaching of collocations (Kartal & Yangın Ekşi, 2018). It is important for non-native learners producing multi-word collocations of their own in writing tasks.

3. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Writing skill is one of the four basic skills in foreign language teaching and is acquired in order to be able to see what the students have turned into practice. However, most students are forced to do this. In other words, students do not write for pleasure or for other reasons than a course or exam requirements. In writing courses, activities aiming to improve students' writing skills need to take place more. It is thought that foreign language teachers taking the following suggestions into consideration in the preparation and application of an effective writing course will be important in increasing the success of language teaching.

When we look at the process and stages of writing in the second language, it is seen that it is longer and harder to acquire than the other skills. Therefore, writing skills should be emphasized in the second language teaching process. The difficulty of acquiring and using writing skills necessitates a conscious effort for individuals to have advanced writing skills.

Since the development of writing skills will be more effective and permanent in educational environments, the role of teachers and students in the language teaching classes is very large. The planning and implementation of an effective writing process will directly affect the success of writing education.

As Turkish students have problems mostly with productive skills in every level of education, this shows that there are several issues that are closely related to policy makers. One implication of the studies conducted on the productive skills in Turkey shows that listening, writing, and speaking skills should be assessed in entry and exit exams of high schools and university education. Coskun (2016) investigated the "'I can understand English, but I cannot speak' syndrome" (p. 1) in Turkey. In the study, it is concluded that one the major reason of this syndrome is the focus on grammar rules in English lessons without enough significance attached to productive skills. What is more, Kartal and Özmen (2018) found that even fourth-year Turkish student teachers of English have plans to improve their speaking and writing skills after graduation. This shows that the language education practice in turkey heavily focuses on teaching about the language instead of how to use the language.

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TEXTBOOKS REVISION IN TERMS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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Introduction

The place and importance of textbooks in language teaching has been the subject of research for years. Research shows that textbooks play an important role in the regulation and effective implementation of language teaching. The contents of textbooks with such an important role are also controversial and important. As it is known, language and culture are seen as two inseparable parts. Hence, culture is all the different characteristics of a society that combine it in terms of life, acceptance and understanding and different from other societies. In other words, language is the most important factor in transferring the cultural heritage of a community to the next generations and ensuring the continuity of society. Peyami safa, who emphasizes how important the language is, says "If a nation loses its language, it will lose everything." The same conclusion can be reached in the concept of culture. A nation that has lost its cultural heritage is supposed to lose everything. In this context, the content of the textbooks used in language teaching not only reflects the culture of that language but also introduces foreign cultures so that foreign language learners can compare both of them, find out the similarities and differences between cultures, empathize with different ones and gain intercultural communication skills.

In this context, language and cultural relations, intercultural communicative competence, the role and function of textbooks, and sample activities on the revision of textbooks in terms of ICC are presented in detail. The purpose of this book chapter is to recommend changes appropriate for intercultural communication in order to make the textbooks more communicative as well as compatible with the students' and teachers' needs and expectations in the World which is becoming a global village.

Culture

There are various definitions of culture in different sources and dictionaries. Taylor defines culture as "Culture, or civilization, taken in its broad, ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society'' **(**Taylor (1974, p. 1). Another definition is presented in The New Encyclopedia Britannica, Micropaedia, which seems to encompass all the elements that may be part of culture concept 'The integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behaviour. Thus, culture is defined as a whole of 'language, ideas, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, works of art, rituals, ceremonies, and other related components; and the development of culture depends upon man's capacity to learn and to transmit knowledge to succeeding generations' (p. 784). In broad terms culture means a set of skills, beliefs, language and point of views of a community.

Think it over

"In Turkey we normally get together with our families on Ramadan to celebrate Ramadan. What do other countries usually do on their special days?"

Many theorieshave been constructed by importants scholars regarding the interdependence of

Language and culture are discussed and analyzed with their implication for foreign language learning, second language learning and English language learning. These theories have been formulated by different schools of thought. These include semiotic frameworks (Kramsch, 2002; Halliday, 1978; Ware & Kramsch, 2005; cited in Kang young, 2009); schema theory (Vegas Puente, 1997; Tseng, 2002; cited in Kang young, 2009); cultural literacy (Hirsch, 1989; cited in Kang young, 2009); linguo-cultural didactics (Kodotchigova, 2002; Vegas Puente, 1997; cited in Kang young, 2009); cultivation theory (Tseng, 2002; cited in Kang young, 2009; and sociocultural approach (Brown, 2000; Hinkel, 2001; Hymes, 1974; Lee, 2004; Savignon, 1972, 2001, cited in Kang young, 2009). It is obvious that all culture based theories are interdiciplinary and have come from psychology, anthropology, education, and intercultural communication (Kang young, 2009).

Although culture has an important role in language teaching, integration of culture into language teaching has always been a debatable and challenging issue for teachers and language learners. Actually, language teachers are not expected to be experts in all cultural theories but the main point is their awareness of what this term covers and specifically what it means to the study of foreign language. In other words, teaching target culture with a few lessons which present just customs, holidays, songs and literature, is not sufficient to make students gain intercultural competence (Kovacs, 2017).

Foreign language speaker who has intercultural competence takes into consideration the situation, the circumstances, the expected level of formality, his partner's level of knowledge, and the culture-sensitive scenarios. Hence, in foreign language classrooms textbooks are expected to meet such needs of teachers and language learners. However, related research have revealed that there are contradictory results about the issue.

It has been revealed that internationally distributed ELT textbooks contain American and British culture and their viewpoints (Ilieva, 2000; Ndura, 2004). On the other hand, some locally produced textbooks were dominated by source culture and lacked of sufficient content to improve intercultural communicative competence (Shin et al.2011).

As intercultural communicative competence's (ICC) roots back on the idea of knowing cultural differences and similarities, embracing others as they are and being emphatic? empathetic or sensitive to differences, culture identification is crucial**.** Patrick Moran (2001, pp. 15-18) suggests four categories for culture identification;

- Knowing about, relating to cultural information facts about products, practices and perspectives of the target culture as well as students' own;
- Knowing how**,** referring to cultural practices in the everyday life of the people of the target culture;
- Knowing why, constituting an understanding of fundamental cultural perspectives, beliefs, values and attitudes;
- Knowing one self, concerning the individual learners' self-awareness. In other words, students need to understand themselves and their own culture as a means to comprehending the target language culture.

Another categorization is made by Chao which is presented below;

The main categories of culture (Chao, 2011)

Cultural Categories	Explanations
Source Culture (SC)	It refers to Pan-Chinese culture (China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong).
Target Culture (TC)	It includes English-speaking countries (Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the UK and the USA).
International Culture (IC)	It includes cultures of all countries in the world (European countries, countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia) except for pan-Chinese and English-speaking cultures.
Intercultural Interaction (ICI)	It includes the comparison, reflection, or awareness of the differences and similarities between the local/source and the target /international culture through activities such as case studies, problem-solving, and role play to help students develop positive attitude, knowledge, skills and awareness in international communication.
Universality across Culture (UC)	It includes general knowledge/content that is not specific to any particular culture or country.

Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

English as lingua franca has increasingly gained an importance all around the World. Across the Globe students, immigrants, teachers, business people, artists, directors etc. are involved in face to face intercultural communication. Moreover, English does not belong to the white English or Americans anymore because it is possible to see that non-native speakers of English speak the language with another non-native speaker in an intercultural setting. Growing technological changes make it easier to contact with people virtually all around the World too

(Osman, 2015). According to Crystal (2003) and Graddol (2006**),** integration of intercultural awareness and skills to various contexts where English is learned and taught is more important than teaching domains of language. Intercultural communicative competence's objectives, aims and activities should be integrated into English curriculum so that students can become intercultural speakers. According to Byram and Fleming (1998) becoming an intercultural speaker involves being able to reconcile and mediate between different perspectives in any specific interaction. Additionally, intercultural speakers have attitude, knowledge and skills which are needed in intercultural encounters. In this perspective various definitions of ICC have been made by important scholars. It is defined as "the ability to decentre and take up the other's perspective on their own culture, anticipating and where possible, resolving dysfunctions in communication and behaviour" Byram (1997, p. 42). Another definition is made by Liu et al. as "intercultural knowledge and intercultural communication skills do not come naturally; they have to be acquired through conscious learning" (2011, p. 26). Additionally, various models have been devoloped to therotize ICC. These models have been devoloped to reveal key elements of ICC, to make it more comprehensible and accessible and to draw attention to what it refers for foreign language lessons if an intercultural approach is aimed. The two of these models will be presented below. One of the best known models is supplied by Byram in 1997. Most of ICC definitions are based on his model. Byram states that he designed his model to help teachers of languages understand the concept of intercultural competence.

Intercultural communicative competence requires certain attitudes, knowledge and skills to be improved, in addition to language learners' linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence. These components of ICC are identified by Byram and Zarate (1997, p.11) within foreign language education as follows: ''savoirs' (knowledge of Self and Other), 'Savoir comprendre' (skills of interpreting and relating), 'savoir être' (intercultural attitudes), and 'savoir faire/apprendre' (skills of discovery and interaction). Moreover, Byram distinguishes 'savoir s'engager' (critical cultural awareness) as the main point of his model of ICC (1997, p.54). Byram illustrates each component in detail;

savoir être, which is concerned with attitudes and values and consists in showing curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own;

- savoirs, which refers to the knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction;
- savoir comprendre, related to the skills of interpreting and relating, that is to say, the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own;
- savoir apprendre/faire, connected to the skills of discovery and interaction or the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction;
- savoir s'engager, in relation to critical cultural awareness and/or political education, which means having the ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (Byram,1995, pp. 57–66, Byram 1997, pp.31–54).

Think it over

Can some of Byram's savoirs more widely be represented in textbooks than others?

Another important scholar Ruben (1976) identifies seven dimensions of intercultural competence:

Display of respect describes an individual's ability to "express respect and positive regard" for other individuals.

- Interaction posture refers to an individual's ability to "respond to others in a descriptive, non-evaluative, and nonjudgmental way."
- Orientation to knowledge describes an individual's ability to "recognize the extent to which knowledge is individual in nature." In other words, orientation to knowledge describes an individual's ability to recognize and acknowledge that people explain the world around them in different ways with differing views of what is "right" and "true."
- Empathy is an individual's ability to "put [himself] in another's shoes."
- Self-oriented role behaviour expresses an individual's ability to "be flexible and to function in [initiating and harmonizing] roles." In this context, initiating refers to requesting information and clarification and evaluating ideas for problem solving. Harmonizing, on the other hand, refers to regulating the group status quo through mediation.
- Interaction management is an individual's ability to take turns in discussion and initiate and terminate interaction based on a reasonably accurate assessment of the needs and desires of others.
- Lastly, tolerance for ambiguity describes an individual's ability to "react to new and ambiguous situations with little visible discomfort" (Ruben, 1976, pp. 339-341).

To summurize Ruben's perspective, ICC comprised of the "ability to function in a manner that is perceived to be relatively consistent with the needs, capacities, goals, and expectations of the individuals in one's environment while satisfying one's own needs, capacities, goals, and expectations" (1976, p.336). Due to these models of ICC, it has aims that have to be achieved by language teachers and learners. Goals of ICC are stated by Fennes and Hapgood in 1997. According to them one need**s** to have intercultural communicative competence;

- to have an understanding of self-perception;
- to have an understanding of one's own culture, its values, lifestyles and patterns of behaviour, as well as those of other cultures; to know the influence of cultural values on behaviour;
- to become conscious of stereotypes and prejudices, to accept and value cultural differences;
- to be open towards what is perceived as foreign; to communicate with others using their ways of expression, both verbally and non-verbally; to adapt behaviour in another cultural setting;
- to be willing to deal with culture-based conflict (pp. 60-62);

Think it over

Do you think that teaching culture is more important than developing pupils' ICC? What are the differences between these two issues?

Textbooks and ICC Relations

"I remember my first day as a teaching assistant in front of a class of 150 students. I had no training, many years had passed since I took that first general course, and I needed every ounce of help I could get. The text and the instructors' manual were my foundation, the rock on which I built my course. Correctly or not, they defined the field for my students? and for me? " (Ballentine, 1988, p. 409).

As the example shows, textbooks are the most important helpers and guides of the teacher. For language learner textbooks are also one of the important sources of contact they have with target language. It has a role of framework, guide and facilitator that helps them to organize, activate and facilitate language learners' learning. Textbook is defined as 'a book that contains detailed information about a subject for people who are studying that subject' in Cambridge Dictionary. Another definition is made by Graves 'the textbook is a book used as a standard source of information for formal study of a subject and an instrument for teaching and learning (2000, p. 175). It needs to be pointed out that no ready- made textbook will perfectly suitable for every language program. Some language teachers mainly rely on textbooks while some others reject textbook approach to language learning. The main point is adapting and modifying textbooks for students' levels, expectations and needs. Coursebooks are used universally but learners and teachers do not understand the same thing in different countries. Practical use and symbolic function of textbooks can vary from one educational context to another (Kumar, 1986). Some countries use private publishers' textbooks, in some others state authorities merely recommed suitable textbooks. Moreover, some countries prefer locally produced textbooks due to cultural content of internationally produced textbooks. As mentioned before, cultural content of textbooks and teaching target culture is a debated issue among scholars. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) state that cultural features that can be used in ELT textbooks are of three types:

'source culture materials' that use students' native cultura lartefacts as content,

'target culture materials' that include the cultures of English speaking countries (mostly Western countries),

'international materials' that embrace diverse cultures from around the world (p. 204).

Newby (1997) and Freebaim (2000) classified textbooks as international/global textbooks and local/locally produced textbooks. International textbooks may include either culture-specific or culture-generic representation of cultural information and be produced for international market. On the other hand, local textbooks are produced by or with non-native authors and these textbooks adjust closely with the requirements of the national curriculum and have a formal approval from the Ministry of Education of a specific country (Skopinskaja,

2003). Although there are contradictory ideas about the use of textbooks, these have survived decades of conspicuous educational change and still are essential teaching material**s**. It seems that textbooks contribute to better teaching experience but a qualified teacher should notice that desirable results depend on how language teacher use the textbook rather than its content. There are advantages and disadvantages of using textbooks. These are presented below. According to Graves (2000, p175), and Basturkmen (2010, p. 149) here are the advantages of textbooks;

- It provides a syllabus for the course because the authors have made decisions about what will be learned and in what order.
- It provides a road map for the students because they know what to expect and they know what is expected from them.
- It supplies a set of visuals, activities, readings, etc., and so saves the teacher time in finding or developing such materials.
- It supplies teachers with a basis for assessing students' learning. Some textbooks include tests or evaluation tools.
- It may include supporting materials (teacher's guide, cd, worksheets, and video.)
- It provides consistency within a program across a given level, if all teachers use the same textbook. If textbooks follow a sequence, as within a series, it provides consistency between levels.

Graves (2000, p175), and Basturkmen (2010, p. 149) state such disadvantages of textbooks;

- The content or examples may not be relevant or appropriate to the group and they may not reflect the students' needs since textbooks are often written for global markets and often do not reflect the interests and needs of students.
- They may contain inauthentic language, since texts, dialogs and other aspects of content tend to be specially written to incorporate teaching points and are often not representative of real language use.
- The content may not be at the right level.

Think it over

How do various types of tasks carry different potential in developing pupils' ICC?

In terms of intercultural communication and cultural perspectives of language teaching textbooks writers and material developers should take into account learners' needs and their own life experiences. In this manner language learners' identification and association of cultures can be achieved. Lafayette (1997., p. 128-134) also developed six basic principles for integrating language and culture both in FL teaching materials and in FL classrooms, as follows:

"Cultural objectives and activities must be planned as carefully as their language counterparts and be specifically included in lesson plans.

- Cultural components must be tested as seriously as their language counterparts.
- Textbook photographs must be considered as viable teaching content.
- Language teaching must emphasize the teaching of content as much as it does the teaching of forms.
- The teaching of culture must extend beyond factual learning and include community resources, experiential learning and process skills.

All in all, textbooks should deal with source culture, target culture and international materials in a balanced way. Cultural information should be accurate and temporary, which is presented in textbook. Content should be prepared without stereotypes and should be handled critically. Content should provide realistic pictures of foreign socities and their cultures. Ideological thoughts and ideas should not be integrated into content. Facts should not be presented without context. Historical content should be provided explicitly (Byram, 1989). It is obvious that evaluating a textbook in terms of intercultural communication and cultural aspect is not an easy task to be accomplished for language teachers. In teacher training, student teachers may be helped to develop critical thinking, projects and useful activities may be carried out aiming for analysis, evaluation and discussion and comparative study of cultural content and important skills of ICC in textbooks. Because a coursebook does not only aim to develop cultural knowledge, which refers to target culture in foreign language education, but also aims to provide skills of ICC (Siekpiskozup, 2017). These skills assist in communicating with interlocutors from different cultural backgrounds and open attitudes towards both differences and similarities. Textbooks content should be revised due to the aims of ICC, if language teachers want to raise intercultural speakers. Some useful suggestions for these aims will be provided below. First of all, according to the aims of ICC language learners need to have an understanding of self-perception. Learners' source culture should be presented explicitly and supported with various tasks. For example, bride breaks a pottery in wedding day to increase richness and plentifulness of her family in Turkey. However, such a custom does not exist in target culture. Here the case is American or British culture. It can be designed as a speaking activity for language classrooms. First a video can be shown to students. Then a brainstorming activity may be carried out for key vocabulary of the video. Then students talk about the custom, its roots and meaning for the society. Another aim of ICC is to have an understanding of one's own culture, its values, lifestyles and patterns of behaviour, as well as those of other cultures and to know the influence of cultural values on behaviour. Cultural values effects on behaviour are an important point that members of a community share same set of behaviours in similar conditions. If we continue with wedding theme, one of bride's sister or brother (if she doesn't have a sister or brother one of her relatives' son or daughter or a child) sits on bride's hope chest. Groom and his father give some pocket money to child to make him/her stand up from the hope chest. This is a pattern of behavior which is common in Turkish weddings. Another example is Turkish weddings traditionally lasts for three days while in American or British culture it is like a ceromony and usually lasts for a few hours. Another example is the duration of weddings. While Turkish weddings last for three days, such ceremonies in American and British culture last for only a few hours. These two customs can be presented to students with related pictures and a free writing activity can be carried out. Hence, language learners improve the ability of knowing their own culture and others' cultures. Other aims of ICC are to become conscious of stereotypes and prejudices; to

accept and value cultural differences. Two different customs have been presented to language learners but teacher should be conscious of sterotypes and prejudices. In some countries there are various customs and traditions in wedding ceremonies. In this phase teacher should present other countries' wedding customs and prevent sterotyping. For example, in Korea tradition dictates that the groom has his feet beaten with fish or a cane before his first night as a married man to test his true strength and character. In parts of India women born as Mangliks (an astrological combination when Mars and Saturn are both under the 7th house) are apparently "cursed" and thought to be likely to cause their husband an early death. In order to counter this, they first have to get married to a tree that needs to be cut down to break the curse. International cultural materials should be provided to reflect cultural settings. First, pictures of these traditions may be shown to students and then a pre-prepared handout may be given to each student. A reading activity may be carried out through the handouts. Another aim of ICC is to be open towards what is perceived as foreign; to communicate with others using their ways of expression, both verbally and non-verbally; to adapt behaviour in another cultural setting. A group discussion can be carried out to make students gain these skills. Because various customs from other cultures have been shown to students and different types of activities carried out in language classroom. Additionally, a role-play activity may be planned for this aim. Role cards can be prepared before the lesson and then students role-play one of the customs. Another aim of ICC is to deal with cultural conflict. Differences may cause conflict or misunderstanding between interlocutors. Language learners should be open towards differences and handle with culture-based conflicts. A role-play activity is suitable for improving such a skill.

Think it over

To what extent are different types of tasks represented in textbooks?

Additionally, authentic materials of various cultures should be integrated into textbooks' content, which offer authentic cultural experiences to language learners. These may contain television shows, news broadcasts, films, the use of different websites or printed materials such as travel brochures, photographs, newspapers, magazines, restaurant menus, etc. Different tasks can be given to students such as completing charts while watching or listening to the authentic materials. After watching or listening to classroom discussion, group discussion or pair work can be carried out about characteristics or cultural values of different cultures. Similarities and differences among cultures can be discussed (Kovacs, 2017)

Specific elements of various cultures should be presented and integrated into coursebooks' content too. Collocations, idioms and proverbs are among the important cultural assets that reflect the cultural portrayal of a society. With few words phrases and proverbs in which many concepts and rituals are described occur within the process of existence of societies, and some

of them may be forgotten over time, and new ones may arise in the face of new situations and formations (Sarıtaş, 2012). According to Peterson and Coltrane (2003) using proverbs as a way to explore culture provides a way to analyse the stereotypes and misperceptions of the culture, additionally it provides many opportunities to students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture. If these terms defined for a better understanding, collocation means "the habitual juxtaposition of a particular word with another word or words with a frequency greater than chance" in English Oxford Living Dictionaries. In the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, idiom is defined as "an expression which functions as a single unit and whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts". Proverb is defined by the English Oxford Living Dictionaries as "a short, well-known pithy saying, stating a general truth or piece of advice". Collocations, proverbs and idioms are effective cultural tools which are used to transfer feelings and thoughts of a society by means of brief way from one generation to another one. In addition to this, social events, customs and traditions have been introduced through these terms.

Suggestions and sample activity

Learning Objectives

- To draw out, compare, and analyze the commonalities and differences of various interpretations and perceptions surrounding culture, opening the door to a subsequent dialogue about difference.
- To increase language learners' awareness of their own idiosyncratic or culturally determined interpretations and explanations of other individuals' or groups' behaviour, as well as their attitudes about and responses to situations such as those described in the critical incidents.
- To identify cultural differences that might have contributed to particular problematic cases, misunderstandings, or conflicts or have influenced the various interpretations and explanations of the language learners.
- To assist language learners in comprehending the diversity that exists among members of each culture as well as the normative differences between cultures.
- To support language learners in achieving the necessary understanding to perform in a culturally appropriate and effective manner in similar situations.
- To expand language learners' awareness of the nature of characteristics and behaviours they should learn about and motivate them to continue learning.
- To provide the basis for engaging in role play and other class activities that will build skills for handling problematic and everyday intercultural situations.

Sample tasks may be helpful to develop language teachers' textbook writers' and material developers' understanding about how ICC can be improved in language classrooms. Future language speakers and teacher candidates may not be afraid of miscomunication and intercultural encounters. To provide this result, culturally challenging situations need to be simulated, role olay activities need to be carried out and then a careful analysis of the task with the help of teacher should be carried out in language classrooms (Siekpiskozup, 2017). Additionally, questions and exercises should be taken place to encourage learners about devoloping and formulating their own understanding of intercultural communication and social interaction in intercultural settings. By this way language practice activities play a role of making students more compenent speaker of English in term of intercultural communication. According to Fenner and Newby (2001) question and exercises trigger students' active involvement in the tasks and activities. Another important point is preparing tasks which provide experimental learning or 'learning by doing'. Experimental learning is one of the most effective approaches to develop ICC skills of language learners (Barret et al. 2014). Hence, 'when pedagogical approaches, methods and techniques encourage learners to become actively involved in experience, discovery, challenge, analysis, comparison, reflection and cooperation […], learning activities tend to be very effective as they engage learners as whole persons and address their intellectual, emotional and physical potential" (p. 38). In this perspective various types of tasks can be integrated into textbooks' content. These tasks are provided below;

- Comprehension tasks
- Reflection tasks
- Discussion tasks
- Role-playing tasks

Activity 1: Role-Play

Steps of the activity

Divide the class into small groups and introduce the activity by asking students to brainstorm the differences between weddings in their home country and foreign countries. These differences can refer to any aspect of clothing, customs and traditions, etc. The teacher then shares some of these interesting ideas with the whole class. To expand this further, the

teacher classifies some of the ideas by putting them into categories such as “True,” “Somewhat True,” and “Not True.” The purpose here is not to criticize the students’ answers, but to provide them with a realistic image of what weddings in different countries are like. This information will be necessary for successfully completing the role play.

Give the students a handout with a list of useful expressions that can be used when participating in a wedding ceromony in a different country. Explain expressions as needed, going over points such as key vocabulary and pronunciation. Also, explain that students will perform a role play.

Give each group a handout which presents various types of wedding from all around the World. Do not give the same handout to every group, but strive for as much variety as possible.

Before the role play, direct the students to take time to study their handouts and key expressions and to practice several times with their group members, changing roles between bride, groom and wedding guest.

Perform the actual role play with the teacher playing the role of bride or groom and students that of guests. (An alternative is for students to play roles as the teacher watches and assesses.) Students are expected to communicate in English with both the teacher and fellow group members throughout the role play. The activity is structured this way to better simulate real-world situations, where we interact not only with bride or groom but also with the people we are going with. It can be a minor challenge for a teacher to also find time to assess students’ performance. We found it best to take a minute or two between role-play sessions to grade the previous group before moving on to the next one.

Language focus of role play

A great variety of language forms and functions can be practiced through a wedding ceromony role play such as;

- Family and wedding vocabulary and pronunciation (Bride, groom, mother in law, a bunch of flower, guest list, bridemaid, best manhoney moon, fiancee, breaks of the engagement, etc).
- Polite requests (“Could I have…?”/ “Would you mind…?”).
- Listening skills (bride’s father normally gives a speech, then the best man gives a speech (which is often a funny speech designed to embarrass the groom), and the bridegroom and / or the bride give a short speech to thank their guests).
- Wishes (we wish you happiness, live happily ever after, congragulations, etc).

Intercultural points of role play

In addition to the language points, wedding role play includes a great deal of potential as a springboard for intercultural understanding. For example, when asked about students’ ideas of Turkish wedding ceromony students inevitably mention about the wedding ceromony’s duration. Hence, it lasts three days in many part of the country. By seeing a range of different wedding ceromonies, students achieve a more realistic perspective towards different cultures. The role play illustrates that it takes more than linguistic mastery to interact effectively in a different culture.

Activity 2: Interview with a foreign student

Steps of the activity

Invite two foreign students into your language classrooms. These students may be Erasmus students or students from other countries. Before the interview, show an interview video to your students.

Then divide the students into two groups.

Tell the students that they are going to have to interview with a foreign student and then write a paragraph that introduces the student to the class.

Tell the students that they have 10 minutes to come up with 10 interview questions for their quest student.

Tell them that their questions must be the ones that help reveal information about theirquest student.

Give examples of good questions, such as "What is the most fun you have ever had in our country and why?" or 'When you have to handle with a misunderstanding in this country how do you cope with it?'

Also give examples of bad questions, such as, "What is your favorite food in our country?" This is a bad question because it doesn't help us learn much about our guest student other than the one-word answer that he/she gives.

Suggest that students use open ended questions.

After the students have come up with their questions, give them 15 minutes to interview with guest student. Students should take short notes to help them remember the answers.

Give the students 10 minutes to write a paragraph about their guest students.

Writing Prompt or Class Discussion:

Here are some optional questions for writing prompts and/or class discussion.

Did you find out new information about your guest student when you interviewed him/her?

What did you learn about his culture? Are there similarities or differences with your own culture?

What question(s) helped you learn the most (or the most interesting thing) about your guest student?

Is it good to know only people who are like you? Or is it also helpful to know people who are different than you are?

In what ways would it help you to know a lot of different people?

Language focus of interview

Vocabulary and pronunciation: student will learn different vocabularies.

Llistening skills: students will watch a sample video and listen to the conversations between interviewer and interviewee, they will listen to guest speaker as well.

Writing skills: students will write a paragraph about guest speaker, what he/she likes, How he/she handlesss with misunderstanding and differences between cultures.

Speaking skills: students will interview with a foreign student, it will enhance their communication skill in target language.

Intercultural points of interview:

Interviewing with a foreign student will be an experimental learning to language learners. Hence, it provides real life experience to students who are eager to speak in target language. Actually, the foreign students come from different cultural backgrounds or they may be native speakers of English. In the first case, both interlocutors are non-natives and use English as a medium of communication in an intercultural setting. It will be in intercultural encounters and will help students develop ICC. In the second case, students will have the oppurtunity to get familiar with another culture as well.

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STUDENT EMPOWERMENT INSELF-ASSESSMENT PRACTICES

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Introduction

Over the last decade there has been a growing concern to introduce critical perspectives in interpreting practices in adult or higher education. This concern is more evident in answering "How should students be assessed?" because assessment has the function of gaining or keeping back qualifications more than any other aspects of education. The judgement made on the evaluation of individuals' worth according to their results of assessment ensures importance and significance of assessment practices for individuals. This judgement is what makes assessment have a central role in education.

Further, it is due to this judgement that assessment embodies power relations which determine and control the possibility and extent of actual changes in education. That is why, assessment can be described as "a primary location of power relations" (Reynolds & Trehan, 2000, p.267) and "the most political of all educational processes" (Heron, 1988, p.85).

Traditionally, in a classroom the teacher alone has the power to make every decision, and students do not actively participate in assessment practices. It is because of the fact that the traditional assessment perceives student learning as an individual process (Anderson, 1998).

However, within higher education over the past 20 years there has been growing interest in challenging these assumptions of traditional assessment by the new movements in assessment practices suggesting "a reconceptualization of how learning occurs" (Anderson, 1998, p.6). While doing it, the current movements in assessment literature espouse learning as a collaborative process in which both students and teacher are lifelong learners equipped with the necessary skills to evaluate their own performances. Through the appearance of the current movements, how power exercises against students in assessment has also become one of their main concerns. While doing this, these movements question the dominance of the teachers' power by allowing

students to exercise some of that power for themselves. One of these movements using the notion of lifelong learning and student empowerment as basis is self-assessment (Tan, 2007).

It is argued that self-assessment practices claim to provide independent and life-long learning by putting the students at the heart of their own learning processes. In other words, self-assessment practices encourage students to develop the capacity for engaging in lifelong learning by reflecting continuously on their own learning. Meanwhile, student self-assessment practices are also advocated as a means of 'empowering' students in the assessment process in order to make them take responsibilities for their own learning (Tan, 2012). Moreover, there is a call that self assessment practices should be emphasized in the classrooms for life-long learning and student autonomy, whereas it is uncertain that teachers understand and practice student self–assessment in a way that can enhance student empowerment (Tan, 2012). Recently, the assumption that self-assessment practices will automatically empower students in the assessment processes has started to be questioned (Reynolds & Trehan, 2000; Tan, 2004).

Moved with the conviction that student self –assessment should be utilized in a way that can enhance student empowerment for their own learning, this chapter asks two main questions: first, "What kind of power types might exist in self- assessment practices?" and second, "How can student empowerment in student self-assessment practices be enhanced for students' own learning?". Through the identification of 'self-assessment practices', 'empowerment' and 'power types in self-assessment practices', this chapter is assumed to contribute to the development of assessment literacy of teachers on how they can use self-assessment as a tool empowering students while, at the same time, leading them to look at self-assessment practices from a more critical perspective in order to become life-long learners.

Self-assessment Practices

'How am I doing?', 'Is this enough?', 'Is this right?', 'How can I tell?', 'Should I go further?' 'What is wrong?' are among the critical questions that individuals ask themselves when they evaluate their behaviours, thoughts, skills, actions and decisions. These questions tend to encourage individuals to view their practices in a critical way, which is required for lifelong learning and reflective skills. Therefore, in the current era of education, student self-assessment is much more than checking students own answers (Boud, 2013).

Though it is possible to encounter various types of self- assessment practices, in a general way Boud and Falchikov (1989) define it as "the involvement of learners in making judgements about their achievements and the outcomes of their learning" (p.529). A number of benefits for students can be associated with student-self-assessment. According to McMillan and Hearn (2008), student self-assessment practices tend to contribute students to "1) monitor and evaluate the quality of their thinking and behaviour when learning and 2) identify strategies that improve their understanding and skills" (p.40). Essentially, those practices provide students the opportunity to identify their own learning and performances, and to plan what they can do to improve their own learning. That is to say, gaining critical perspectives to judge their own works actively, those practices tend to enhance not only students' autonomy but also their deep and lifelong learning in a democratic society (Leach, 2012).

In addition to the benefits of self- assessment practices for students, those practices might enable teachers to gain insights into what is working and what is not working in classroom by listening to students and negotiating with them about their own learning. Thus, when student

self-assessment practices are organized and implemented effectively, they tend to become significant tools which not only promote students' lifelong learning but also assist teachers in being thoughtful, and creative when assessing and guiding students' learning and performances (Anderson, 1998).

However, together with the benefits of student self-assessment practices, some barriers to self-assessment can be traced in self-assessment literature. In classrooms, there might be some students who prefer to be assessed by teacher because they fear from doing something wrong. Moreover, some students might not feel that they have the necessary skills, confidence or ability to judge their own works in self-assessment practices (Leach, 2012).

All these benefits and barriers need to be considered in the implementation of student self-assessment practices. Bearing in mind that those practices include power relations which tend to control students' learning, the way how they are used determines the outcomes of student self-assessment practices. Regardless of this, there is a common and popular argument that student self-assessment practices guarantee student empowerment due to the active participation of the students in reflecting on their own work and learning critically. This conventional argument is based on the potential of self- assessment practices to allow students to exercise some of teachers' power for themselves. In this regard, it is assumed that reducing the teacher's power over students is the core of student self-assessment practices. Nevertheless, there is a recent warning on whether student self- assessment practices automatically result in student empowerment. Tan (2004) has approached this assumption with caution because he has asserted students' participation in the assessment process has the potential to control, rather than empower students. Therefore, he asks "How can student self-assessment be practiced in a way that empowers its students instead of disciplining or controlling them?" (p. 652). So as to get the answer of this question, what is needed for Tan is to understand the types of power that might exist in self assessment practices.

Therefore, this chapter presents some insights on what empowerment means before discussing the notion of power types that might exist in student self assessment practices.

Empowerment in Self- assessment Practices

Theoretically, the notion of empowerment is link with individuals' well-being to mutual struggle and collaboration to create sensitive community in larger social and political context. Empowerment is mostly associated with strengths, wellness and capabilities. Thus, empowerment oriented processes are the practices, actions, activities, structures or outcomes that make individuals gain knowledge and skills by collaborating with others (Perkins & Zimmermean, 1995).

The concept of 'empowerment' is not a stable notion because what is empowering is not the same for everyone. A process which is empowering for some individuals might be disempowering for others. That is why, empowerment has ample of variety of definitions and adoptions (Leach et al., 2001). In general sense, in this chapter empowerment can be defined as a "process by which people gain control over their own lives, democratic participation in the life of their community, and a critical understanding of their environment" (Perkins & Zimmermean, 1995, p 570).

In the era of education, learner empowerment which means learners' gaining control of their own learning has started to be declared. In this respect, learner empowerment is regarded as a facilitating energy for life-long learning (Napan et al, 2005). According to this perspective, in

order to get the control of their own learning, learner empowerment encourages and motivates students to take direct actions as individuals or as members of the groups by reflecting and negotiating on the classroom practices in a democratic atmosphere.

In order to implement the student empowering processes, there are some variables needed to be cautious about. Student characteristics such as personality and contextual factors such as the empowering behaviours of teachers are among these crucial variables that play role in students empowerment (Houser& Frymier, 2009). In the classroom environment, these variables need to be critically considered in classroom practices so as to ensure student empowerment.

As stated above, in assessment literature, it has been a fashion to advocate student self-assessment practices as tools guaranteeing student empowerment. This argument is supported by the assertion that they allow students to exercise some of teachers' unilateral power. However, the recent literature has warned that it might make students subject to greater control or power in the classroom (Tan, 2009).

In fact, the potential of student self-assessment to empower students depends on how it is utilized. There is widespread acknowledgment that student self-assessment can be practiced in contrasting and different ways (Boud, 1995; Tan, 2008; Taras, 2008). Burgess et al (1999) state that how self- assessment is utilized determines whether it is a process that empowers the students or that is imposed by teacher. By the way, some discussions on how student self-assessment can empower students instead of controlling them have appeared in the assessment literature. Through this discussion, as stated above, Tan (2004; 2009) has emphasized that student empowerment can only occur if the types of power might be exercised over students in self- assessment practices and how these notions of power enhance or undermine student empowerment are first understood.

Power Types in Self- Assessment Practices

In the literature, there are three contrasting notions of power in student self assessment: sovereign power, epistemological power and disciplinary power (Tan, 2004; 2009; 2012). Each type of power explains how power is exercised in student self- assessment in ways that enhance or restrict student empowerment.

Sovereign power

Sovereign power is defined as "making one's will determine the actions of others regardless of what they would will" (Schmitt, 1991, p.105). Theoretically, it is grounded on the power relation between sovereign rulers and subjects. Sovereign power occurs where A has power over B and can make B do something that B would not otherwise do. Hence, the notion of sovereign power cannot be shared because it is not divisible. Only one individual can posses the sovereign power in a certain time (Tan 2004).

Accordingly, in assessment practices, the teacher' unilateral power over students cannot be divided but only be given another individual. Therefore, sovereign power in assessment can be defined as the unilateral power residing only with teacher. However, student self- assessment has the potential to provide the opportunity for students to possess teacher's power.

In the discussion of sovereign power in student self- assessment practices, the teacher and student are two groups who can exercise power, and only one group can reign this power. This discussion is based on the answer of 'who has the power to control assessment and knowledge

being assessed: the teacher or the student?' because only one assessment is considered valid. In this respect some options are provided, the first one is student-teacher mark agreement and the second one is ensuring that "student self assessment marks are subservient to the teacher's assessment" (Tan, 2004, p.654).

The notion of sovereign power in self-assessment places the teacher and the student in a direct struggle for power in the assessment practices. If teachers are not willing to leave their own sovereign power, self-assessment for students becomes an act of student autonomy ultimately controlled by teacher's unilateral power. Because sovereign power cannot be shared with students, student self-assessment practices in which teacher holds the sovereign power cannot be defined as student empowering practices (Tan, 2004). However, such self-assessment practices integrating the teacher's unilateral power provide some crucial insights into power relations between teacher and students in the classroom (Taras, 2016).

Epistemological power

The power held by institutions and hegemonies can be defined as epistemological power. In contrast to sovereign power, it is not explicitly passed by an individual to utilize it against the others. It is not fixed. It can be shared and negotiated between various individuals and groups (Tan, 2009, Taras, 2016)

In student self- assessment, epistemological power is not held only by teacher because teachers are also subject to encounter power. Hence, there is no need for a struggle between students and teachers on whose assessment is eventually decisive and summative. Students and teacher can negotiate and share control over how the students' self-assessment marks and the teacher's assessment might be used in summative assessment. This means that either student's self-assessment or teacher's assessment need no longer be only summative. Student self assessment does not threaten the teacher's judgements, but leads students and teachers to collaborate in the assessment process to get new insights on student's work (Tan, 2004).

However, the sharing of power between teachers and students in self assessment is still restricted by the power of institutions and hegemonies. When students are empowered by their teachers in self-assessment practices, epistemological power of hegemonies might limit student autonomy and power that students exercise. Epistemological power therefore allows students to share power and learn independently in self assessment practices but only to the extent that the fixed boundaries of hegemonies permit. This means if the students put the power of hegemonies in jeopardy in self assessment practices, they cannot enjoy any form of power in student self-assessment. Thus, teachers with a notion of epistemological power might have limited success in making their students enjoy empowerment in student self-assessment practices (Tan, 2004).

Discourse or Disciplinary Power

The disciplinary power is grounded on the notion of discourse which can be defined as "forms of regulation of social meaning and social actions" (Tan, 2004, p. 657). Discourse power is not repressive, rather it is productive. Disciplinary power is not viewed with the identification of power one posses over others. Neither is it about putting individuals against hegemonies (Tan, 2004). This means it rejects the ultimate power which is only identifiable with individuals.

Therefore, disciplinary power is not interested in who is subject to power or who holds the power, but on how power is produced (Gore, 1995).

Hence, in the domain of student self assessment, the crucial question is "what specific practices actualize relations of power in pedagogy" (Tan, 2004, p.658). Because both students and teacher are subject to the discourse(s), they utilize their own discourse to generate power in self assessment practices. However, this does not simply guarantee student autonomy and empowerment that enable independent learning because discourse power relies on knowledge in order to control its subjects. This means that during self-assessment practices, the acquisition of knowledge might make them be subjects to measurement, categorization, normalization and regulation of knowledge while students may want to free themselves of power in order to assess themselves (Edwards & Usher, 1994).

At this point, Tan (2004) warns about complex academic discourse(s) in the application of student self-assessment processes. He asserts that student self-assessment processes include a routine of practices might expose students to even more discourses than it is intended to eliminate. The paradox of disciplinary power in student self-assessment is that by providing students with more autonomy to judge their own work, more need to be known by students in terms of how they view themselves and what they have done. Thus, students may not understand the knowledge due to their struggle to understand the discourses in self-assessment practices. This problem evidently shows itself when discourses in self-assessment practices start to compete during those practices.

By the way, in the context of disciplinary power, students then become subjects to greater control and power as a result of attempting to exercise more autonomy in their self-assessment practices. Therefore, the teacher's practice of unilateral assessment tends to reign students to the teacher's control over what they should learn and do. In sum, if the context is not arranged effectively to implement self-assessment practices, the acts of such practices might have the potential to subject students to even greater discipline and control. (Tan, 2004).

Conclusion: Suggestions for student empowerment in student self-assessment practices

In sum, considering the nature of the student self-assessment practices and the potential types of power that might exist in those practices, teachers should be careful about the design and implementation of student self-assessment in their own classrooms so as to achieve student empowerment. In the light and support of what is discussed above, some obvious guidelines and suggestions will be provided for teachers who desire to bring student empowering self-assessment practices into their classrooms successfully and effectively for students' learning:

1. Power issues in student-self-assessment practices are among the notions needed to be evaluated before the implementation of those practices, not to be avoided. What is required is appreciating the productive pedagogical potential of power in student self-assessment practices in order for students' life-long learning.
2. Thus, the focus in student self-assessment practices should be on exploring how power can be utilized for the benefits of students' learning.
3. Student self-assessment practices should be judged in terms of their benefits to students and not in terms of how much power or autonomy students have enjoyed. This means that student self-assessment practices should not be utilized for the sake of autonomy, but for the sake of students' learning

4. However, when student autonomy is the issue, what needs to be considered is how the autonomy in self-assessment contributes to students' learning. In this light, autonomy in student self-assessment should not be viewed as a goal, but as a means to students' learning.
5. Additionally, during self assessment practices, it is not enough simply to convey students that they have the power to self-assess their learning and what they have done. What is needed is that teachers should convince and assist students to exercise autonomy and power to enhance their own learning.
6. Teachers should state students the purpose and contribution of student self-assessment practices clearly. It is therefore essential that teachers carefully analyze students' needs for their own learning that is expected to be met by offering self-assessment practices.
7. In addition to this, teachers should be sure about whether students know exactly what they are supposed to do in self-assessment practices.
8. Teachers considering to integrate student self-assessment practices to their own classes should review and judge their own motives and agendas. What teachers should question is whether student self-assessment practices ensure to provide students more effective learning opportunities.
9. The division of the power in student self- assessment practices should not be at the core of those practices. Teachers should critically examine the potentials of student self-assessment practices in terms of liberating or disciplining students on the way to become life-long learners.
10. Student empowerment in student-self assessment practices can only be achieved if the way how power is exercised over students in those practices is identified in a critical and effective perspective.
11. Student self-assessment practices should enhance student learning beyond pleasing and satisfying the individual teacher and the hegemonies. That is to say, in order to make students enjoy empowerment in those practices, there must be an emphasis on developing self-assessment abilities of students to control their own learning and helping them being life-long learners.

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VYGOTSKIAN SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY OF LEARNING

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Introduction

The roots of Sociocultural Theory (henceforth SCT) date back to 18th and 19th century German Philosophy and prominent philosophers; namely, Hegel and Spinoza. Marx and Engels were also significantly influential in Vygotsky's development of the Sociocultural theory. As a matter of fact, Vygotsky's theory is also referred as a theory 'grounded in Marxism' (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner in VanPatten & Williams, 2015). Wertsch (1991) claims that according to Vygotsky there is an interdependence between individual and social processes in learning and development. Initially, the mental functioning of the individual grounds on social sources and it is followed by two planes as the social and then the psychological. Simply put, the theory highlights the society and interaction within the society as an essential and indispensable contributor to learning, claiming that learning is actually social rather than individual in nature (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2004). It is mostly with Lantolf and Bruner's studies that the theory was provided with a largely accepted and popular overview after the 1980, and has become a recurring theme in general educational and psychological literature currently.

Main Principles of Sociocultural Theory

Vygotsky's SCT considers social interactions as the essence of cognitive development, which may differ among cultures. Learning and behavior are affected by individual, social and contextual issues. It is assumed that by nature humans are social and reflexive; therefore, their thoughts and behaviors are sensitive to the complexities of the social world around them. Thus,

the developmental pattern in an eastern society might be different from a pattern in a western culture.

Essentially, there are three main principles that summarize Vygotskian SCT. The first principle is that learning is social rather than cognitive or biological only. Secondly, human learning process is a mediated process. It is organized by cultural artifacts, activities and concepts (Ratner, 2002). These artifacts, activities and concepts are simple 'tools' for the mediated learning process that the learning environment provides. That is, SCT emphasizes the importance of different immediate settings in which the learners find the chance to receive the support of their environment during their learning process, be it family, friends, school or setting of social activities (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner in VanPatten & Williams, 2015). Vygotsky and his followers Leontiev, Lantolf, Wells and Wertsch focused on the interactive nature of learning. His holistic view centered on 'meaning should constitute the central aspect of any unit of study' (Vygotsky, 1978). Meanings are negotiated within the intersection of individuals, culture and human activity. He described learning as being embedded in social events through interaction with people, objects and events in the environment (Vygotsky, 1986 as cited in Kublin et al. 1998). Learning is not only a cognitive issue but also a social process. Especially the instructional settings that provide the learner with social and material environments during the learning process bear importance according to SCT (Engeström, 1987). The instructional contexts then should provide the learners with tools that they can use to solve their problems step by step, or sometimes with tools that may shape their thinking (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2004). While these tools may be literacy, they may very well be media or technology literacy, or technological devices or applications or programs that enable interaction during the dialogic construction of knowledge. The third principle is that to understand human learning behavior, researchers have to examine the human learning process more holistically rather than examining what is taking place in human mind, or what is observable in human behavior separately.

Some of the major constructs of the theory will be defined and exemplified below with specific reference to language learning, since when organizing a teaching environment, particular attention should be paid to settings that lend themselves to provide support for the developmental process of the learner.

Mediation and Self-regulation:

Vygotsky states that the ability to learn through interaction is unique to humans. During this interaction we readopt to our context using certain tools that are culturally determined. While language can be one of these tools, gestures are also considered to be tools according to SCT. With these artifacts, through the mediated process students are expected to regulate their own learning, which means monitoring and controlling their learning process. SCT assumes that the human mind can control its development through the use of these artifacts. This is a feature of the human mind that makes it distinctly different from that of other animals. The concept of mediation refers indirect relationship between physical and symbolic tools (Lantolf, 2001). SCT underpins that language is the most significant tool which plays a crucial role in an individual's life. Learning requires a social and mental process as a result of linguistically mediated interaction between the child and more able members of the society such as parents, teachers, and peers. Children make use of dialogues with the more knowledgeable member to find out about values, beliefs, norms and ways. Therefore, learning is a socially mediated process influenced mostly by the language itself. When social mediation and dialogic negotiation are combined, higher forms of mental functioning arise (Shabani & Ewing, 2016). The culture

where the child is born into plays a prominent role in the transformation of attention, memory, sensation and perception. These elements are called 'higher mental functions' which help an individual to enhance mentally. Simply put, humans can develop tools that help them think further. These tools or artifacts function like a 'buffer' between the learner and the environment (Tomasello, 1999). This process is called the mediation process. The mediation process makes use of some mediums to facilitate the development of learning. Any medium, whether it be abstract or concrete is called a tool in SCT. As stated earlier, language is one of the tools used in learning. It is one example of an 'object tool'. Writing is another example. The tools of learning have taken a new shape with the advance of technology. Just like PowerPoint slides are used to mediate learning, file sharing systems that lend themselves to be edited collaboratively function as tools in the mediation process. Google Docs, Sheets, and Slides make it possible for a group of learners to collaborate on online platforms not only by making it possible to share information but also by making it possible for the instructor- the more knowledgeable other in SCT- to guide students when they need scaffolding. Hence, the object tool makes interaction possible, which eventually leads to self-regulation. The interaction explicitly guides students to perform better or to learn more contributing to their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). ZPD is the imaginary distance that an individual can reach with the assistance of the tools provided or with the assistance of the peers or the guide. The assistance that the learner receives is called 'scaffolding' in SCT. It is only through interaction that serves as scaffolding by peers and the instructor that the students can reach their actual potential to learn. If eventually the students can gain control over their learning, making use of the mediational goals, they will be self-regulating their learning.

The rationale behind the formerly described learning development process lies in the distinction between humans and other animals again. Humans have the control over choosing which tools to make use of throughout their learning process when trying to reach their potentials. With the medium of these tools, humans can base their plans on rational analysis of their previous knowledge and actions (Arievitch & van der Veer, 2004).

The use of internet tools in learning is a pervasive tool in the 21st century since learning takes place not only in the classrooms but also online via the help of Web 2.0 technology. Web 2.0 tools make it possible for the more knowledgeable other and the peers to interact with each other, sometimes correcting each other, at other times guiding each other for correction.

One other major construct of the SCT is 'inner speech'. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) call the use of language as a medium of thinking and also as a medium of thinking about thinking (metacognition) 'private speech'. As we grow up our private speech becomes our inner speech since we do not voice our process of thinking out loud as adults. Vygotsky claimed that social relations turn into mental functions if they are internalized. The inter-psychological plane will turn into an intra-psychological plane. During this process, self-regulatory learning strategies of voluntary attention, logical memory, formation of concepts and development of volition will be used (Vygotsky, 1981, p.163). Several studies were conducted on the positive effects of using inner speech in learning a second language. Swain, Lapkin, Knouzi, Suzuki and Brooks (2009) studied languaging in Canadian university students learning French. Formerly, Lee (2008) studied Korean students studying Biology by videotaping their private speech when studying English. Ohta (2001) studied adult learners of Japanese recording their L2 inner speech. Studies have shown that the students who made use of L2 inner speech could be engaged in manipulating their learning process, and were better at constructing their own sentences because they practiced breaking down words and playing with sounds.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The introduction of the ZPD concept brought about a new perspective on education. This new perspective encompasses the learning process and also a new understanding of the evaluation process in practice. While the learning process puts more emphasis on interaction with peers and the more knowledgeable other, the evaluation process deemphasizes the product, and suggests 'dynamic assessment'. With the social nature of ongoing learning, the instructors are expected to create learning opportunities that give rise to future development rather than assessing the present proficiency of students. Students' emerging capacities in their maturation process is sanctified in the SCT of learning where corrective feedback plays a major role. ZPD has been expanded and modified together with the concept of scaffolding (Vygotsky did not coin the term 'scaffolding' but his followers through the application of ZPD to educational contexts). Lantolf (2000) restates Vygotsky's '*zone of proximal development*' as the zone between the learner's actual performance and the level of potential development (see Figure 1).

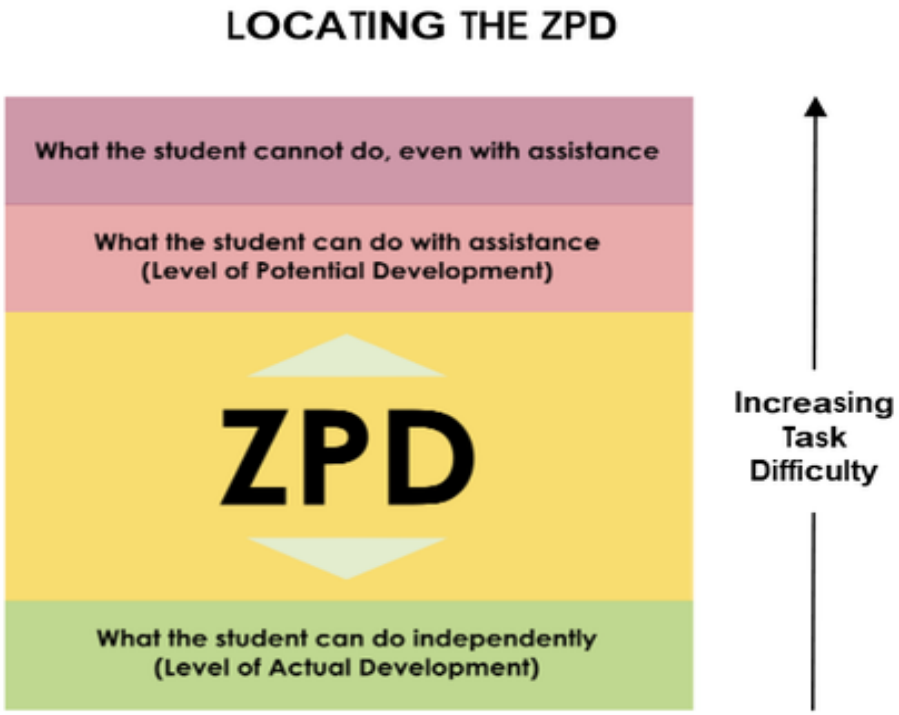

Figure 1. Locating the ZPD (Lui, 2012)

Lantolf and Thorne (2007) consider it as 'a metaphor for observing and understanding how mediational means are appropriated and internalized' (p. 17). Collaborative learning, discourse, modelling and scaffolding are strategies for supporting the intellectual knowledge and skills of learners and facilitating intentional learning.

Feedback from other students and the instructor is what helps learners to achieve more than they could without support. Thus evaluation is not a static practice, it is a continuing practice. 'Dynamic Assessment' is a continuum of providing the learners with scaffolding by other and self-regulation in activities and tasks so that learners can reach their ZPD. Facilitating progression is the teachers' role in the Sociocultural Approach, where teaching is integrated in assessment (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner in VanPatten & Williams, 2015). The explicit or implicit feedback given must be developmentally appropriate for the learners' present proficiency and competence. Ohta (2001, p.76) reports that students perform better when they are assisted,

that is they can reach their ZPD through 'collaborative dialogue'. In a collaborative dialogue where they verbalize their understandings from the materials- also called *languaging* by Swain (2000)- students share their expertise. Shared expertise is greater than an individual expertise. Hence, Vygotsky suggests that students are tracked over longer periods.

Dynamic Assessment

In dynamic assessment, the quantity and the quality of the mediation needed is adjusted as the student performance changes. In fact, even in relatively longer periods than academic year terms, development may not be observed, but the responses the students give to mediation may become more frequent and the quality of the responses may improve. Feuerstein's studies on the contribution of instructional interventions that are designed to provoke development support Vygostkian Dynamic Assessment (Feuerstein, Feuerstein, & Falik, 2010). When the instructors attune the amount and quality of scaffolding according to students' needs and traces development throughout a period of time, Dynamic Assessment takes place. Poehner (2009) paid utmost attention to collaboration during learning by tracing student development prior to independent performances. Studies that investigate the effects of dynamic assessment usually take the following steps during teaching to modify the degree of scaffolding: First the teacher guides the students through the expected task, then the next phase provides a lessened degree of scaffolding. The objective is that eventually the students reach and acquire the capacity to engage in unguided learning. That is the scaffolding provided is dynamic depending upon the needs of the learners, the students in the end self-regulate their learning, needing less and less scaffolding in time. The aim of assessment is not to evaluate the product or proficiency, but to help students reach their ZPD with scaffolding and evaluate the reached capacity after the interventions to see the 'latent capacity' (Kozulin and Gindis, 2007, p. 356). Although Vygotsky did not specify any teaching or assessment methods, 'the ZPD provided an indication of time and resources that might be needed to move individuals toward set curricular standards' (Lantolf & Poehner, 2010, 14). On the other hand, learner progression shows discrepancy. This gives rise to the question of the ways to support learners who are at a different point than the others. Therefore, dynamic assessment practices depend on the quality of mediation with through ongoing instruction. In short, the aim of assessment is to determine the amount of scaffolding to be provided, to support learning. In SCT, assessment and learning are intricately intertwined.

Conclusion

SCT in teaching and learning was initially systematized and applied by Vygotsky and his collaborators in Russia in the 1920s and 1930s. They claimed that human activities take place in cultural contexts and all these are mediated by language. Vygotsky stands out among other theorists in terms of his multifaceted approach to human development as in his time the psychologists tended to put forward simpler theories to explain human behavior. However, during his lifetime his work was not released for 20 years. His work was accessible to the Western world in the 50s and 60s. His approach has gained remarkable popularity among multinational scholars. Vygotsky's concepts of ZPD, mediation and self-regulation and dynamic assessment focus on the social and collaborative modes of learning. Starting with ZPD, his theory suggests that there is a remarkable difference between the level of development of an independent learner and of a learner supported through interaction and collaboration with more capable members

of the society. Mediation is the use of symbolic tools to resolve a problem or attain a goal, and language is the most significant symbolic tool in the mediation process. Thus, the concept of scaffolding comes into play to facilitate the novice by an expert, peer, parent or teacher to move the learner's current knowledge, performance or skill to a higher level. SCT has influenced language education as well as other fields of education. Its implications are visible in the social context of language learning as interaction is the indispensable key agent of language learning. Learners are provided with mediational tools to promote their potential and to become self-regulating learners.

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RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MOOCS AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

In the age of technology everything is constantly changing and human beings are supposed to adapt these current and instant changes to live in harmony with them. The first reason of the world's undergoing such changes is that our world is now a 'VUCA world'. VUCA is an acronym whose components are volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014). It may not be trouble-free to deal with the 'VUCA world' because the World is relatively different from how it was even 20 years ago. However, thanks to developments in technology human beings can better adjust to new conditions that VUCA world provides. Because people are surrounded with technology in today's world, obviously it is not highly difficult to achieve this goal. Collins and Halverson (2009) point out that the education world is undergoing a second revolution, too. Digital technologies are the main causes of this revolution as they are transforming our opinions about learning and schooling (Collins & Halverson, 2009).

Matt Britland (2013) also states that classrooms will be changed because the world itself will be the classroom thanks to the cloud and mobile devices, which will allow learners to have an easy access to the information sources and plan their way of learning independently. Currently there have already been such tools letting learners learn something anywhere they wish. As innovative tools, Massive Open Online Courses, MOOCs now provide what the future suggests.

Definition of MOOC

MOOCs, standing for Massive Open Online Courses, have been a growing trend since they were first offered by George Siemens and Stephen Downes in 2008 (Aydın, 2017). The first reason of their being so popular is that they allow a large number of people to be enrolled in a

course just through the internet. To be more precise, MOOCs can accept an unlimited number of participants, and anyone may take part in the course as long as there is a proper internet connection (Canvas Network, 2018). It seems easier and more convenient to participate in a MOOC rather than going to the school or college every day. However, being enrolled in a MOOC does not mean just watching some videos.

Cormier and Siemens (2010) define MOOC as a potential by-product of open teaching and learning. As they suggest, the term 'MOOC' was coined in return for "Connectivism and Connective Knowledge" course given by Siemens and Downes (Cormier & Siemens, 2010). The "Connectivism and Connective Knowledge" course was first opened up for twenty-five students who registered and paid to take the course for credit. Afterwards, the course was made accessible to other learners. The participants enrolled in the course later had access to course lectures, discussion forums, and weekly online sessions. They were not interested in the course credit but the number of them was over 2,300. Such a pleasing result can be a motive for us to participate in a MOOC since you can have the same opportunities as you are enrolled in a course held face-to-face. The crucial point here is to be autonomous enough to complete the MOOC successfully.

Features of MOOCs

Definitions given previously in fact reveal the common features of MOOCs. However, for clear understanding the acronym 'MOOC' can be explained thoroughly. 'M' refers to being massive in this acronym as it was mentioned before. 'Massive' as an adjective is defined as being very large in size, amount, or number (Cambridge Dictionary, 2018) so it can be concluded from this broad definition that a larger number of people can participate in MOOCs. The first 'O' stands for 'open' which might be the vital component of MOOCs since making the teaching and learning process open for everyone is a crucial and critical aspect of education. Cormier and Siemens (2010) discuss openness in three ways: open educators, open curricula and open learners. As the facilitators and guides of education process, educators should be open for collaboration and communication. They need to be willing to collaborate with their colleagues share their ideas, experiences and problems with them since there are a variety of teaching contexts and each of them has unique conditions. Moreover, they should be open for developments and improvements so as to keep themselves up-to-date because we are living in a 'VUCA world' and everything can change rapidly. Like educators' being open for conveying information with others, curricula can also be open to provide information. It is noted by Cormier and Siemens that because the content can be available for everyone and learners can easily search for it, they are free to create their own curriculum, and such an expectation is highly realistic (2010). And finally, as for open learners, it can be suggested that by making use of MOOCs learners can have the freedom of planning their own learning according to their pace of learning, the subject area they are interested in and the conditions they live in. It, of course, does not always mean that all the learners will be motivated to join in MOOCs. However, in today's world everybody has an easy access to the Internet and nearly everyone has smartphones, which makes taking a course online possible. And, this facility comprises 'online' element of the acronym 'MOOC'.

To make it more clear, in the light of definitions and explanations given so far, the common features of MOOCs can be listed as follows:

The number of participants who can be enrolled in a MOOC is unlimited. A large number of people can take the advantage of studying through MOOCs.

- The materials used in the MOOCs, content of the courses and discussion forums are available to each participant. The participants can easily access them just using their smartphones or computers.

The participants are, somewhat, alone when enrolled in a MOOC. That is, since they are not in a real classroom environment, they and educators are not in the same real environment. So, participants are responsible for their own learning. However, they are able to consult with the facilitators and ask questions during the process. The crucial point here is that the participants should be willing to be autonomous learners.

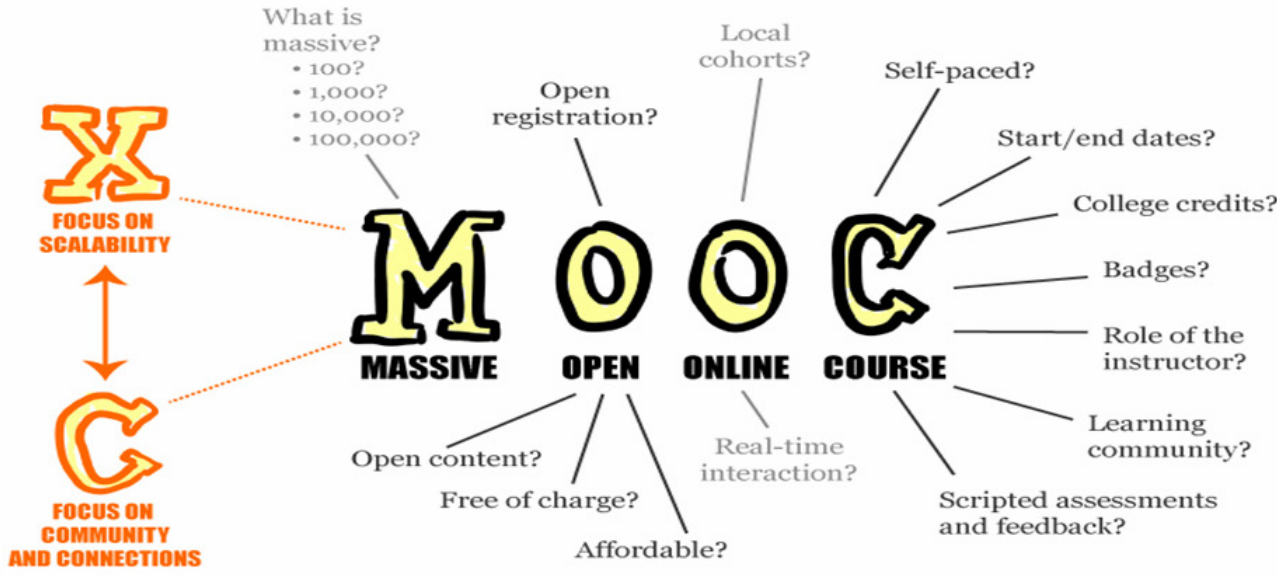

Figure 1. Components of a MOOC. (CC By Mathieu Plourde, 2013 #digedcon #moocposter)

Types of MOOCs

MOOCs, as the name implies, have four main components. However, they can differ according to the methods used to deliver the course, context the course is delivered in or aims of the course, so there is not just one MOOC type. Instead, MOOCs are classified in two main types: xMOOCs and cMOOCs. In addition to xMOOCs and cMOOCs, recently new types of MOOCs have emerged (Clark, 2013; Lane, 2012) as well.

cMOOCs vs xMOOCs

MOOCs which came into the picture first can be described as cMOOCs. When defining cMOOCs, it is crucial to clear up the acronym. In this acronym, 'c' stands for connectivist. According to connectivism, "learning and knowledge rest in diversity of opinions" and learning can also take place in non-human appliances through specialized nodes or information sources (Siemens, 2005). Moreover, Siemens notes that learners can nurture and maintain connections to facilitate their own learning by gaining the skill of seeing connections between fields, ideas, and concepts (2005). So, it can be concluded that the focus of cMOOCs is more on the connections between learners rather than on the content they learn together (Rosselle, Caron & Heutt, 2014).

On the other hand, getting in touch with the other learners may not be easy in xMOOCs because a large number of participants can be enrolled in such courses because of the commercial prospects of xMOOCs (Tu et al., 2013). The content itself is also the target in xMOOCs (Rosselle, Caron & Heutt, 2014). That is, acquiring the content is more important than networking or task completion when compared to cMOOCs, and xMOOCs are likely to use instructivist pedagogy (Tu et al., 2013). For better understanding, the differences between cMOOCs and xMOOCs can be displayed as follows:

Table 1.

Differences between xMOOCs and cMOOCs (Das et al., 2015)

xMOOCs	cMOOCs
○ **Instruction is led through pre-determined, instructor-led, structured and sequenced weekly activities.** ○ **Short, content-based videos, readings and problem sets are the commonly used materials.** ○ **Quizzes (auto-graded), peer-graded assessments are utilized for assessment.** ○ **Participants can join in discussion forums but participation is optional.** ○ **They are delivered via third party platform provider such as *Coursera* and *edX*.**	○ They are social, technical systems of learning where the teacher's voice is not an essential hub but a node in an overall network. ○ Participants are supposed to create and explore a topic area in an 'atelier' environment. ○ Participants create unique products such as blog posts, images, diagrams and videos. ○ Discussion forums and other ways of social networking are the key elements. ○ Facilitator aggregates, reviews, summarizes and reflects on activity in daily/weekly newsletter. ○ "Boot-strapped" platforms and collaboration tools are utilized to deliver the courses.

Network-based, task-based and content-based MOOCs

As it was mentioned previously, MOOCs have certain components and two main types of MOOCs are in question now. However, some other classifications of MOOCs have just started to show up. Lane (2012) divided MOOCs into categories according to their dominant goals. The first category of MOOCs is network-based. Lane defines network-based MOOCs as the original MOOCs, the pedagogy of which is based upon connectivist or connectivist-style methods (2012). So, network-based MOOCs can be regarded as cMOOCs since they share common characteristics specific to connectivist MOOCs. As the second category, Lane (2012) formed task-based MOOCs, which give prominence to skills necessary to complete certain activities. In task-based MOOCs, several different options can be used to complete the tasks but participants are supposed to do a variety of assignments so that certain skills can be performed. The pedagogy of task-based MOOCs can be stated as a mix of instructivism and constructivism (Lane, 2012). The last category of MOOCs, content-based MOOCs have similarities with xMOOCs. In content-based MOOCs, as the name implies, the goal is to acquire content and the pedagogy of these MOOCs is instructivism. Furthermore, as for content-based MOOCs, it can be suggested that a huge number of participants are allowed to be enrolled in these courses. That's why, Lane points out that mass participation may mean mass processing (2012). Figure 2 shows the categorisation made by Lane (2012), and it also gives information about sample tools used for the specific aim of the MOOC.

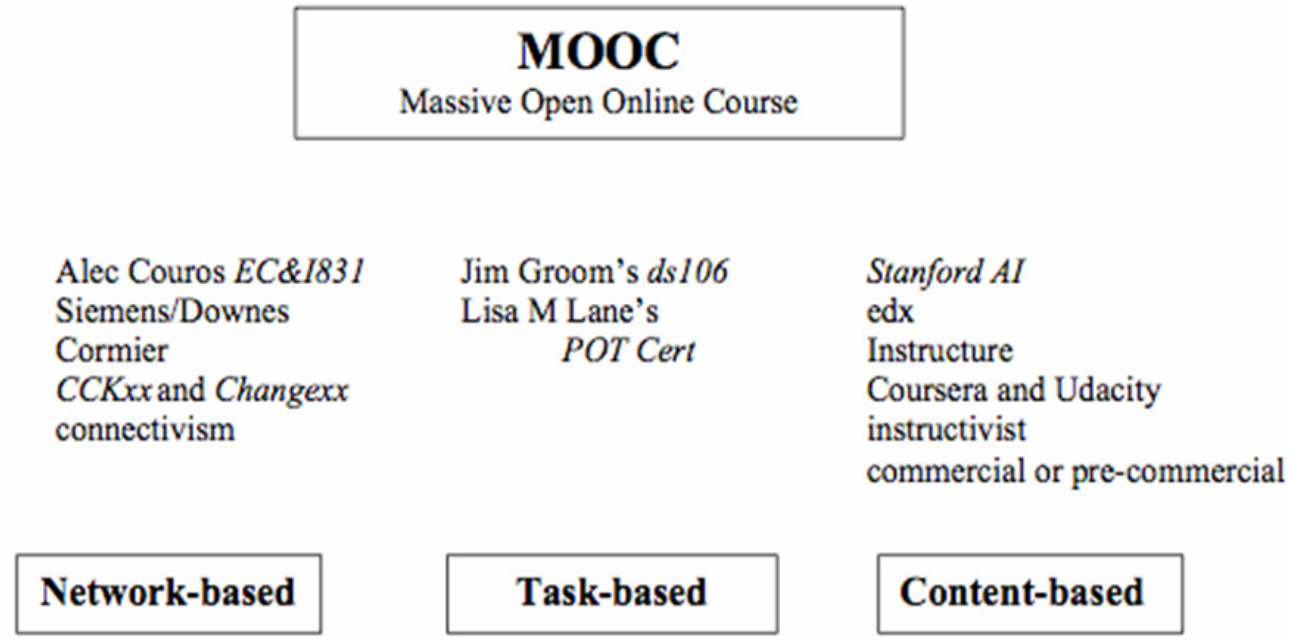

Figure 2. Classification of MOOCs by Lane (2012).

Classification of MOOCs according to their learning functionality

Clark (2013) argues that there are a great many of MOOCs but they have certain differences in terms of the pedagogic perspective they adopt or their learning functionality. Additionally, in Clark's view, MOOCs will possibly 'inform and shape what we do within or without an institution' and for this reason, it is crucial to define the taxonomy of MOOCs according to their pedagogic perspective and learning functionality (2013).

Clark (2013) proposes 8 types of MOOCs which can be listed as follows:

1. **transferMOOCs:** Such MOOCs basically take the existing courses into a MOOC platform. In pedagogic point of view, they are led by teachers, and the point that attracts learners to be enrolled in such MOOCs is their being delivered by a well-known institution or an academic. They have similarities with the traditional academic courses. 'Coursera' can be regarded as a transferMOOC to a larger extent when the pedagogic assumption of this platform is taken into account.
2. **madeMOOCs:** They are more innovative, and they have more crafted and challenging assignments. Thanks to advanced and innovatory software-driven interactive experiences, learners can acquire a skill or skills by studying as peers and assessing themselves with their peers. Furthermore, they tend to be more vocational.
3. **synchMOOCs:** The reason why these MOOCs are called synchronous MOOCs is the 'time' criteria they tend to have. Namely, they have a fixed date to start and a clear end date, and it is also possible to see set deadlines for assignments and assessments within these MOOCs.
4. **asynchMOOCs:** As for asynchronous MOOCs, it can be stated that they have a reverse condition of synchMOOCs. They, for the most part, do not have fixed start and end dates. They can be better for the participants connected to the courses from different time zones since it is allowed to take the courses anytime and anywhere. This feature of asynchMOOCs makes them more advantageous because participants can continue at their own pace and they can also be more relaxed in these MOOCs.

5. **adaptiveMOOCs:** Adaptive algorithms, used to present personalised learning experiences, name adaptiveMOOCs. The structure of these MOOCs are not linear and flat. Instead, personalised paths let participants change the process of the course or improve the course content.
6. **groupMOOCs:** 'Group MOOCs start with small groups of students studying collaboratively.' Clark (2013) states. When students study as a group and continue taking courses collaboratively, attendance can be ensured. Additionaly, 'participants have mentors and they also rate each other's commitment and progress' (Clark, 2013).
7. **connectivistMOOCs:** Connectivist MOOCs are 'cMOOCs'. They, namely, adopt connectivism and participants are supposed to make their own materials and share knowledge produced by themselves with others.
8. **miniMOOCs:** As the name implies, miniMOOCs last shorter than other types of MOOCs. In other words, it can be noted that the prominent characteristic of miniMOOCs is the 'short' timescale. So, participants are supposed to complete courses in a relatively shorter time when compared to other types of MOOCs, and that's why they can gain more intense experiences once they have been enrolled in miniMOOCs.

Let me be creative!

Imagine that you are given a chance to create your own MOOC. You have everything you may need: money, computers, a large experienced staff and so on. And, you are head of the MOOC team. What kind of a MOOC will you design? What will the features of this MOOC be? For what purposes can it be used? And, what kind of a course will be delivered via this MOOC?

Use of MOOCs in the World

Although MOOCs have come into our lives very recently, a number of participants prefer to be enrolled in a MOOC instead of taking courses delivered face-to-face. They possibly think it saves time because they are free to take the courses without going to a school or a college, the only think they need to do is to turn on their computers, decide which MOOC they will take and start. They are also freer to complete the tasks or assignments that they are within traditional courses. Because of all these positive sides, numerous MOOCs are now in use.

Coursera (https://www.coursera.org/) can be stated as the biggest MOOC provider in the world (Shah, 2017). It includes 11 major areas, from language learning to information technology. Learners can get certificates and even Master degrees after completing the courses successfully. Canvas Network (https://www.canvas.net/) is another MOOC platform offering various courses. Besides these two MOOCs originated in the United States, there are many other MOOC providers in the United Kingdom. FutureLearn (https://www.futurelearn.com/) is one of them, and it offers a variety of courses under 13 main categories and earning a postgraduate degree is also possible with FutureLearn. China also has a MOOC platform named XuetangX (http://www.xuetangx.com/global). It is described as the world's first Chinese MOOC platform, letting unlimited number of learners participate in more than one thousand courses. Edraak,

an initiative of Queen Rania Foundation (https://www.edraak.org/en/) is a MOOC provider founded in Jordan. It provides original Arabic courses and lets Arab be enrolled in courses developed at top universities such as HarvardX, MITX, and UC BerkelyX thanks to its partnership with edX (https://www.edx.org/), which is the second biggest MOOC provider in the world.

Besides these countries, there are other countries funding MOOCs (e.g., India, Japan, Ukraine, Italy and France). Most of them provide free online courses from well-known institutions, which quite possibly makes learners more motivated and encourages them to be autonomous learners. Additionally, gaining access to them easily makes these courses appropriate to various types of learners.

MOOCs in Turkey

In the world it is quite common to study through MOOCs nowadays because many attempts are made to encourage global students to continue their education via distant courses, which are supported by certain pioneer Europe-wide institutions (Goksel Canbek & Hargis, 2015). On the other hand, in Turkey MOOCs are not used very commonly and there are not many MOOC platforms. Notwithstanding that quite a few endeavours have been made previously to contribute to online learning e.g., 'Distance Learning Centre' (UZEM) by İstanbul Technical University, 'Internet Based Education' project (İDE_A) by Middle Est Technical University, masters with thesis programs founded and supported by Anadolu University (Bozkurt, 2017), Ergüney (2015) states that first MOOC platform of Turkey was launched in 2013 under the name of 'e-üniversite' (http://www.e-universite.com.tr/).

In the following years, many programs were founded within open education faculties of Anadolu University, Atatürk University and İstanbul University. However, the courses that such programs provided did not include all prominent features of MOOCs. The most apparent differences may be that learners can be enrolled in these programs after taking certain examinations and paying some money. However, in comparison with MOOCs, learners do not have to sit for any exams to take a MOOC and they mostly do not pay any money.

Regarding current MOOC platforms and providers in Turkey, AKADEMA (http://akadema.anadolu.edu.tr/) launched by Anadolu University and AtademiX (http://atademix.atauni.edu.tr/) developed by Atatürk University can be mentioned as the ones which correspond to all characteristics of MOOCs. Nonetheless, there are many other platforms providing online courses and programs and when completing them successfully, learners have also the chance of getting certificates. Khan Academy (http://www.khanacademy.org.tr/) is one of these providers. It is in fact a platform to be used by learners from all around the world but the Turkish version of it enables Turkish learners to take courses without having difficulties at all. 'Kariyer Akademi' (http://www.kariyerakademi.net/) and 'E Kampüs' (https://e-kampus.com/) are other providers of online courses and certificate programs but they differ in terms of cost issues.

Use of MOOCs while learning foreign and second languages

It is a well-known and commonly-held fact that speaking a foreign language can give people a head start, especially when competitive environment, people encounter while applying for a job, is taken into account. Moreover, as it is also emphasized by Seidlhofer (2005, p. 339), 'it cannot be denied that English functions as a global lingua franca.' Accordingly, not surprisingly quite a number of adults and young adults attempt to learn English and wish that their children

learn English as a second or foreign language. Before mentioning why there has been a tendency to learn English all over the world, it can be better to clarify the term 'lingua franca'. Seidhofer (2005) defines 'English as a lingua franca (ELF)' as communicating in English in a context where different speakers of different mother tongues come together. Turkish, French or Moroccan people can easily understand each other if they speak English. So, it can be concluded that people now want to speak English fluently because speaking it can put them in a superior or favourable position in both the education or business life and social environments, which is a personal reason explaining English language's popularity. Additionally, governments also try to reduce the age of starting to learn English for certain political factors. It is possible to state that it is aimed to have children learn English as early as possible because it is desired to catch up with developed countries or be streets ahead of other countries in terms of education as well. As it was mentioned previously, parental wishes can be regarded as the other factor effecting the starting age.

Although an early start can be a good way of learning English, there is not a limit regarding the optimum age of learning a foreign or second language. Anyone can begin to learn something however old or young he or she is. Fortunately, today's world, thanks to technological developments in several areas, offers many options to get off on the right foot. Teachers may be seen as the most trusted people when learning something and learners, unfortunately, rely on them to gain knowledge to a great extent. However, learners may have a chance of studying on their own if they are able to use the developments to their advantage. MOOCs are one of these options which enable learners to make decisions on their own learning. Within the previous sub-headings, the types of MOOCs, MOOC providers and what kind of courses are provided in these platforms have been mentioned in detail. It also has been stated that learners can be enrolled in a variety of courses and they can take even Master degrees through MOOCs. Language courses are among the most favoured ones and MOOC providers offer several language learning courses. For instance, in *Coursera* there 139 courses on language learning and *edX* provides 32 language learning courses. It is a bit disappointing to say that the number of language learning MOOCs in Turkey is not as high as that in the United States or the United Kingdom but current language learning MOOCs can be regarded as strong motivations to develop MOOCs dealing with learning languages. Not being obliged to attend the courses in a classroom might be encouragement for learners because most of them find it difficult to go to college every day. Moreover, taking a MOOC without paying any money at all can be another effective reason for them to decide on MOOCs in order to learn a language.

However, learners may need support from the knowledgeable others since they might not know how to get access to MOOCs and how to make use of them effectively. For this reason, the first step of prompting learners to take a MOOC is to persuade them to be responsible for their own learning – that is to say, if learners are aware of what they will gain owing to being autonomous learners, they can be willing to *take charge of their own learning* (Holec, 1981, as cited in Little, 2007, p. 15). In fact, the statement given in italics defines the term 'learner autonomy'. And, although being autonomous was associated with learning something on their own previously, it covers not only learning on their own but learning for themselves as well (Little, 2007, p. 14). Because within MOOCs learners are not in the same environment with their instructors, the very first necessity of being a MOOC learner can be met by taking responsibility of learning, without being heavily dependent on teachers. Furthermore, as the second step of being a successful MOOC learner, it is extremely beneficial to make use of certain learning

strategies. Ellis (1994, p. 529) defines strategy as 'mental or behavioural activity related to some specific stage in the overall process of language acquisition or language use'. Accordingly, learning strategies are 'operations used by learners to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information, specific actions taken by learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations' (Oxford, 2001, p. 166).

Oxford also proposes 6 types of learning strategies, namely cognitive, mnemonic, metacognitive, compensatory (for speaking and writing), affective and social (2001). Each type of learning strategies suggests highly advantageous ways for learners to make progress in accordance with their goals, to foster their autonomy and make their learning more fruitful and gainful. However, metacognitive learning strategies can be described as the ones mostly related to learning through MOOCs because metacognitive learning strategies include self-knowledge strategies, being able to plan the learning process according to their own needs and interests and handle language tasks effectively (Oxford, 2001, pp. 167 – 168). Once learners have begun to think their learning over, the process of learning through MOOCs will be exceedingly profitable and productive. Therefore, individuals who have the intention of being enrolled in a MOOC should remember that they are supposed to organize their own learning and they should do that for themselves, not only by themselves.

Advantages of MOOCs

Massive Open Online Courses can be described as the latest innovative methods of learning. Thanks to various MOOC providers, learners can easily find a number of courses in a variety of areas. To be more precise and clear, it can be better to list the advantages of MOOCs as follows:

Unlimited number of participants can be enrolled in MOOCs. This feature of MOOCs allows everyone to continue their education even after taking their bachelor degrees and supports lifelong learning.

- MOOCs are mostly free. Their being free enables equality of opportunity and people of all level of income are able to receive education owing to this feature of MOOCs. It should be noted that there are certain paid MOOCs but the number of paid ones are not that high, so learners can find free MOOCs without difficulty.
- A variety of courses are provided in several MOOC platforms, which lets participants decide on the most appropriate MOOCs to their needs and interests.
- Although they are not in the same real environment with their classmates and instructors, by joining in discussions and forums they can meet many people from different countries, so they can get the chance of knowing other people's learning conditions, contexts or problems and they can propose solutions all together.
- MOOCs help learners develop a sense of autonomy by encouraging them to organize their learning by and for themselves.

Use of MOOCs fosters gaining learning strategies. Because learners are not guided by a teacher as they are in the classroom environment, they need to organize the way they learn on their own so they will need certain strategies to deal with problems they encounter during the process.

Implications for teaching and learning

As it was mentioned earlier, there are many MOOC providers and a number of MOOCs in use. Individuals can use them to learn history, science, mathematics and languages. Owing to various areas, degrees and certificates, learners are able to choose the most suitable ones to them and go on their education quite easily. This can actually enlighten the reason why they are becoming more popular, and it is likely that their popularity will increase in the following years. For this reason, to keep themselves up-to-date teachers of English also should be aware of MOOCs and their use because they can be relatively useful when used effectively.

In the countries where English is learned as a foreign language, learners cannot get the chance to communicate with native speakers, so their interaction with English can remain limited with the activities conducted in classroom environment. There may be some enthusiastic learners who practise language outside the classroom. However, to a great extent, many of the students do not create opportunities for themselves to practise the language outside of the classroom. There might be several reasons why learners prefer studying only at school or college but one of the reasons can be explained with the overuse of Internet. In today's world, nearly all the people have smartphones and they are always online. They are sometimes so busy checking social media accounts that they even forget talking to their friends and family members. However, teachers can get support of the Internet for a better purpose – that is to say, considering many people who love using the Internet, using it for educational purposes can be a good suggestion. In addition to learners, teacher can use MOOCs for their professional development because there are many MOOCs dealing with teaching English as well. For instance, *Coursera* offers 89 courses on learning English and they include teacher training MOOCs, too. On the other hand, in *edX* there are 26 MOOCs focusing on learning English.

So, it can be suggested that beyond using social media accounts or sending e-mails, the Internet indeed gives human beings educational opportunities to improve themselves. And, if guided and supported in an effective way, learners of English can also take the advantage of living in a world surrounded by modern technological devices. Additionally, teachers of English can better use the Internet and catch up with recent developments in their field by making use of MOOCs.

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PROJECT BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ITS CONTRIBUTION IN SPEAKING SKILLS OF LEARNERS

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Introduction

There has been a tendency in teaching pedagogies with a focus on more learner-centred approaches in the name of constructivist approaches in which learners construct knowledge by their own effort.

Project based learning (PBL) which is also a learner-centred approach requires participants to be active during the process and to construct knowledge. With its distinct process, PBL proves itself as an approach that involves wide ranging techniques. PBL involves *centrality* that depends on the curriculum, *a driving question* which encourages students to search for solutions, *a constructive investigation* involving inquiry on the topic, storing knowledge and resolution of the problem, *autonomy* in which students have choice during the process and *realism* with authentic problems and solutions (Thomas, 2000). At the end of the process a project is presented as a solution for the problem and it is presented to real audiences. PBL emerges on the area of foreign/second language teaching as Project Based Language Learning (PBLL) which aims teaching a foreign language by applying the same principles of project based learning process. As language learning requires learners to be active during the process, PBLL is a favourable and effective approach in teaching a foreign language applicable to almost all levels of learners starting from preschool education to higher education.

Background

The origins of PBL can be traced back to Rousseau's humanism which believes in the value of experience in the learning process (Smith, 2005). From a different view, Dewey's methods can also be regarded as a starting point since he was in favour of implementing practical courses with the aim of learning by doing. Later Bruner (1960) and Piaget (1972) whose individual constructivist theories influenced the practice of PBL developed the discovery approach

to learning. Later, Vygotsky's ideas led ways to the enhancement of learning in classrooms providing maintaining the applications on behalf of PBL.

Today, due to the developments in cognitive science and tendency in placing the learners at the centre of learning, PBL is preferred as a constructivist approach centring the learners at the heart of learning with the principle that individuals learn better when they learn by doing. Some organisations (BIE, for instance) have been set for the spread of PBL for more successful learning outcomes in education aiming to support teachers to prepare successful projects for more effective learning in all areas of life.

What is PBL?

PBL is defined as "a teaching method in which students gain knowledge and skills by working for an extended period of time to investigate and respond to an engaging and complex question, problem, or challenge" (http://www.bie.org/). In other words, in PBL, students are engaged in learning knowledge and using skills during a process of inquiry designed around complex and authentic questions with carefully formed tasks and products related with the fields of study.

According to Katz and Chard (1989), PBL can be applicable to various fields in education. It is possible to integrate other disciplines or fields of study in the curriculum- language, mathematics, social sciences, science and fine arts in PBL. The investigation of authentic problems can also be involved on a specific topic with a probable extension of time over a period of days or even weeks during the process of PBL. (Blumenfeld, Soloway, Marx, Krajcik, Guzdial and Palincsar, 1991; Katz and Chard, 1989).

In order to respond to the requirements of the implementation of PBL and to border the lines of a 'project', Thomas (2000) proposed five criteria:

1. **Centrality:** The projects are considered to be central to the curriculum. The topic areas inside the syllabus are recommended to be implemented.
2. **Driving question:** A driving question is a force that impels students to search for solutions. The projects are shaped around a driving question or authentic problems.
3. **Constructive investigation:** An authentic implementation of PBL involves inquiry on the topic, storing knowledge and findings, decision making activities, problem solving, discovery, and the processes of building a model.
4. **Autonomy:** Projects entail the autonomy, choice, effort, and responsibility of the students due to the fact that projects are student driven.
5. **Realism:** In the process of a PBL, authentic problems are at the centre of investigation and the projects are designed as a solution to these problems. It is more effective when the learners feel the authenticity and utility.

Steps in projects

The process of the implementation of PBL includes some steps to be accomplished. These steps that are to be taken from the beginning to the end are described below.

Steps in Projects (Moursund, 1999; Thomas, 2000; Erdem, 2002)

	The steps
1	Identification of the problem
2	Identifying the information needed to understand the problem
3	Defining the purposes
4	Forming the groups
5	Identifying the work schedule and the steps
6	Generating the measures and instruments for assessment
7	Identifying resources for the collection of the information
8	Generating possible solutions
9	Analysing the solutions
10	Assessment of the process
11	Reporting the findings
12	The presentation of the project

PBL in Education

PBL is an approach that is applicable in all grades in education. A project work can be implemented with all learners including K-12 students and learners in higher education. The approach requires the collaboration of the participants and teachers for the project. When the process is completed, the product is evaluated by the administer of the project work and learners can also evaluate their own work questing what they have done, what they have learned and what they will do next. Finally, the product is presented to real audiences.

Focusing on the importance of projects, Larmer and Mergendoller (2010) proposed two criteria for a project to be suitable for the purpose; firstly, the students need to take it seriously and attribute a meaning to the project and second, the project needs to undertake an educational purpose with a well designation and implementation. Hence, they suggested seven essential factors for PBL following as a need to know, a good driving question, student voice and choice, 21st century skills, inquiry and innovation, feedback and revision and a publicly presented product.

Blumenfeld et al. (1991) restricts the essential elements just to beginning and end points stating that a driving question and artifacts (products) are two important components of projects to be implemented.

Katz (1992) also asserts that projects have some requirements such as achieving the goals set at the beginning, having a comprehensive title, including an interesting and incentive proposition or question, being authentic with availability to be implemented in a classroom or school environment. However, Katz (1992) also notes that it is the role of PBL rather than the title of the project that is important. A useful process of PBL leads students to an interactive environment in which learners think, dream, question, investigate, and design. Some of the benefits of implementing PBL in education are listed below.

PBL improves participants' autonomy, designation, creation, and producing skills.

- PBL improves self-confidence and self-respect of the students.
- PBL develops their skills of investigation and thinking.
- PBL increases cooperation and individual work.
- PBL enables learners to achieve vital, cognitive, and self-control skills.

- PBL forms the attitudes of the learners towards learning, and the ability to use technology (Erdem,2002; Hamurcu,2003).

The implementation of PBL in Language classes

Foreign language teaching is an area that requires the combination of two or more approaches with various techniques that are applied individually or combined together depending on the purposes of teaching and the goals and levels of the learners. Teachers' preferences on the area also influence the selection. Different approaches can be used for even different skills of language learning. However, as revealed by most of the studies, it bears positive outcomes in terms of effective language teaching to include constructivist approaches which are commonly student-centred. PBLL is one of these constructivist approaches in which language learners engage in activities, cooperate, interact, and learn by doing.

Legutke and Thomas (1991) define PBLL presenting the following key features: negotiation, experiential task-based learning, self-determined action by individuals and by group, focus on process and product, and holistic outcomes.

As described by Smith (2005), negotiation is the act of achieving a consensus among ourselves and the 'significant other' on the subject of the work or idea. In PBLL, negotiation refers more of a task enabling practice in L2 use. Task in PBLL is at the centre of the activities and it enables learners with an opportunity of improving language skills in use through with the collaborative interaction between the participants.

Learners also need autonomy during the process of PBLL, bearing a similar meaning with the proposal that language is social rather than structural. Self-determined action by individuals can be illustrated as a learner-centred environment in which prior knowledge of the learners, learner beliefs and learner agendas are taken into account. Prior knowledge can both be used to develop what was previously learnt and also to engage the attention of the learners in a relevant past experience. Thus, when the content is related to their past experiences and adds to what they had learnt, it can be useful to move the learners forward. Learner beliefs influence what they will learn and how actively they will take part in the completion process of tasks, and learner agendas which describe their goals in learning a foreign language or their reasons for participating the process of PBLL.

Self-determined action by groups commonly refers to collaborative learning that enables learners to learn in a social-interactive environment including negotiation with peers and with the chance of making use of the zone of proximal development to improve language competencies. That 'sociocultural' dimension was also reported by Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller (2002) to result in a more effective language learning process. That the participants take active roles in the process by presenting the product, PBLL maintains to develop the individual as a social being improving their sense of responsibility. Learners not only gain knowledge about the topic of the project, but also their linguistic knowledge and use develops simultaneously.

In order to implement a well-designed PBL process, Beckett and Slater (2005) introduced two key components of the project framework; *'the planning graphic'* including the language form, the function of the skills and vocabulary, and the content of the topic, etc. and *'the project diary'* in which the process is noted daily in terms of the activities completed during the project work.

Teacher's Role

PBL is an approach that requires the leadership of a teacher who is eager for the process to be completed successfully. A teacher who believes that PBL will be effective genuinely will surely lead and motivate his/her students. But at first, the teacher need to have a substantial knowledge about PBL and be experienced on the implementation of PBL in classroom environment, and also to select topics in accordance with the content of the courses. It is explained that (Blumenfeld et al., 1991; Chard, 1999) the teacher, as a leader of the process has some definite roles before starting the process of PBL, at the time of the implementation and after the completion of the project. In the table below, some of these roles are noted:

Before starting the PBL process, teachers should	During the process	At the end of the process
Plan the process with participants	lead students to make them realise, use and improve their own learning strategies in order to implement the process successfully	Assess the process via tests, checklists, and/or rubrics.
Be prevailing to the field of study	Encourage students for solutions to the problems and investigation	Coach the students for the presentation of the project
Have a detailed knowledge about the project content	Provide adequate guidance and feedback during the implementation of the projects	Ask students to evaluate the process
Put forward interesting ideas on the illustration of the content	Provide detailed directions in order to supply the needs of the learners	
select topics that appeals to students' interests and experiences	Increase students' motivation	
Be ready to manage and implement the stages of the project	Offer alternatives for students	
	Allow them for free thinking	
	give feedback and use scaffolding while learning	
	Explore new information together	

Nunan (1995) noted that the activities in PBL can be a way of increasing motivation of the learners. When a learning environment accommodates the various agendas of the learners and provides them with relevant learning opportunities, then it can be asserted that motivation can be maintained or even enhanced. Collaboration not only increases motivation, but it also results in a number of advantages over other approaches to language learning. Teachers also need to design and plan projects that motivate learners with related activities and strategies. The more motivated the teacher is, the more motivated the students are. Thus, the teacher is responsible for setting an attractive and interesting PBL process in order to promote motivation, to encourage inquiry, and to take risks and thoughtfulness (Blumenfeld et al.,1991).

PBL and Speaking Skills

During the process of Project based approach, the teacher(s) and the students talk and interact. They plan the process, offer changes, ask for help, collaborate during the activities, evaluate the product, give a speech while presenting the project, etc. Essentially, PBLL has parallels with Communicative Language Teaching Method for the reason that they both have similar theoretical bases in language teaching. Learners learn best when they engage in activities and both approaches can best be applied in a social and interactive environment. Thus, it is possible to note that PBLL improves communicative skills of learners as it urges them to use the language during the tasks, and especially as the presentation part requires oral presentation.

Legutke &Thomas (1991) identified that PBLL is not an attempt 'to integrate a communicative component into a traditional language programme', but in fact 'a strong form of CLT'.

PBL provides an environment that is supported by Sociocultural Theory (SCT). As Ellis (2008) wrote SCT regards language learning as 'dialogically based'. As Artigal (1992; cited in Ellis,2008) proposed Language Acquisition Device is located in the interaction between the speakers rather than the brain. Henceforth, acquisition results from interaction in the classroom. Interaction can provide learners with feedback from both the teacher and the peers, scaffolding through which learners internalize knowledge dialogically, and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in which adult guidance or more capable peers contribute to language learning.

Viewing these terms in general, it is possible to conclude that PBL, which occurs in an interactive environment uses the advantages of SCT enabling learners to develop their speaking and also listening skills.

Recent studies on the effectiveness of using PBL on communicative abilities of foreign language learners provide satisfactory and significant effects (Awang and Daud, 2015; Yang and Puakpong, 2016; Putri, Artini and Nitiasih, 2017). According to these studies PBL improves enthusiasm, confidence, creativity among learners. It enhances communicative skills of students, progresses learners' level of language abilities. On the part of the teacher it promotes teaching motivation and satisfaction.

Studies in Turkey combining the Project Approach with foreign language learning also reveal favourable results on the effectiveness of implementing PBL in foreign language classes. These studies conclude that implementing projects provide an active learning environment supporting the communicative abilities of learners (Türker, 2007; Cuma, 2012).

Discussion

The study in the area of PBLL revealed outstanding results in terms of the effectiveness of the approach in language learning. It also brings many advantages to the process of PBLL when applied in classroom instruction. As suggested by the constructivist approaches, the instruction reveals better results when learners engage in activities in a learner-centred learning environment in which students especially learn by doing. Foreign language learning requires the active engagement of learners in the classroom and PBLL provides an interactive environment where learners are eager and motivated for learning, active during the process; investigating, findings solutions, cooperating, producing, and presenting the product. Moreover, during the application of PBLL, the interactive environment contributes to the development of certain language skills such as speaking. In an environment, where learning through feedback, scaffolding and ZPD are provided, a sociocultural learning is supported. Thus, taking the advantage and effectiveness of PBLL into account, implementing projects in an interactive and native-like classroom environment proved to be an effective and successful method for foreign language teaching. A good language learner (Brown, 2007) should be motivated for learning, need to take active roles in activities in language learning, should be willing to communicate with peers, teachers, or –if possible- with native speakers with a stable relationship in an interactive learning environment. Henceforth, bearing the requirements for a successful language learning and the effectiveness of PBLL, in order to get better and more effective results in foreign language teaching, it is advisable for language teachers to implement projects under the principles of PBLL in a process which involves a social-cultural functions of language learning, cooperation

and interaction among learners, certainly with a principle of learner-centred environment of learning by doing.

The table below presents a sample of a programme of the application of a project work in a classroom where English is taught as a foreign language especially for primary school students. Some various planning forms designed by BIE are available at http://www.bie.org/objects/cat/planning_forms.

The application of the activities in a week in the project work (a sample)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="4">PROJECT DESIGN OVERVIEW</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Name Of Project: Health is Wealth</td><td>Duration: 40 minutes per 5 days</td></tr>
<tr><td>Course: English</td><td>Teacher: ….</td><td>Grade Level: 5th grade</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Knowledge and Understanding</td><td colspan="3">Learning the names of some of the sports in English</td></tr>
<tr><td>Success Skills</td><td>Critical Thinking/ Problem Solving: What should we do to be healthy and wealthy?</td><td colspan="2">Collaboration: The students exercised some of the sports in groups.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">Project Summary</td><td colspan="3">On the first day the teacher asked the students what they could do to be healthier and noted the question on the board. After examining the answers of the students; they decided that doing sports is an essential way of keeping health. Then the teacher and the students talked about types of sports that they enjoy doing. They also discussed why health means wealth. Then the teacher asked students to investigate what can be done in the classroom as a project work.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">On the second day, the teacher entered the classroom with colourful cartoons which shows sports activities. She wanted the children to look through the pictures. The children looked at the pictures and described what kind of sports they were. The students also talked about what they can do as a solution to the problem. They decided to perform a collection of sportive movement that builds health. They decided which sports they can perform. They also decided to design a sports corner for the performances.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">On the third day, the teacher prepared a programme of the sports and students started working for the show. They also used some materials for the corner such as pictures, slogans, etc. they also brought real sports equipment such as balls, rackets, helmet, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">On the fourth day, the teacher and the students continued to working for the show repeating the names of the sports. They also added some more items for the corner.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">On the fifth day, the students performed their performances on the corner for guests from other classes by introducing each sport with movements and explanations. The teacher and the students discussed and evaluated the process at the end of the project.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">What should we do to be more healthy?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Driving question</td><td colspan="3">What should we do to be more healthy?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Entry event</td><td colspan="3">The students brainstormed on what can be done to be more healthy.</td></tr>
</table>

Products	Team/Individual: preparing a sports corner and performing some sports activities	Specific contents and skills to be assessed: some of the sports activities and movements ( )
Making products public	After the designation of the corner, the students invited other classes into their classroom and performed their movements with descriptions. Later, photographs of the projects work were taken and the photos were also exhibited at the school craft corner and on the website of the school for other teachers and visitors.	
Resources needed	On site people, facilities: classroom teacher, the students, classroom, exhibition corner	
	Materials: cartoons, colourful cartoons and papers, pictures, crayons, glue, scissors, camera,	
Notes:	The students enjoyed the project, especially when they were performing the actions.	
Final Products (presentations, performances, products, and/ or services)	The final products were both the sports corner and the performances of the students.	
Learning Outcomes/Targets (knowledge, understanding & success skills needed by students to successfully complete products)	The students were expected to learn the names of the sports activities and describe orally what kind of sports they are and how they are played/performed.	
Checkpoints/ Formative Assessments (to check for learning and ensure students are on track)	The students were assessed by the teacher.	
Instructional Strategies for all Learners (provided by teacher, other staff, experts, includes scaffolds, materials, lessons, aligned to learning outcomes and formative assessments)	If possible, the activities can be performed for a large audience, a sportsman can be invited to the classroom, a trip to a sports centre can be organized.	

The table below presents a sample of the procedure in the same project work above. It includes the theme/topic of the project, some of the target words that are aimed to be learned by the students, activities and materials used during the process, a sample of the assessment by the teacher after the project work.

The procedure in the Project work

Week	Theme/topic	Target words	Activities	Materials	Assessment
1	Sports activities	Sports types (football, volleyball, etc.) sport equipment (ball, gloves, skis, etc.) sport wear (helmet, googles, skiing boots, etc.) sports activities (shuttle, push-up, running, climbing, etc.)	Brainstorming, Art craft activities, Acting real performances	Flashcards, crayons, drawing paper, worksheet, real objects	The teacher asked the students some questions about the names of the sports and wanted them to make short explanations about them.

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NEW APPROACHES TO FEEDBACK FOR WRITTEN WORK

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Introduction

Writing is considered to be one of the most important skills in language development as it is also a habit of people's daily lives. When educational contexts are considered, it can be said that ability to write well is the key to success in academic life. As Saville-Troike (1984) states, "The language skill which is most likely to develop ... [academic] competence is *writing*" (p. 217). It is a task that follows certain rules and conventions so it takes time to learn and improve the skill. When writing in a second or foreign language is considered, another challenge is added on top of all these rules: to deal with the grammar and vocabulary of the language. However, students of writing classes are not alone anymore in their language learning journey with the introduction of the process approach to writing. Novice writers can now receive feedback on their drafts, which helps them come up with better versions of their writing. In this regard, feedback is accepted as an integral part of learning and vital for the improvement of writing as a language skill. Although process-based classrooms are embraced by both learners and teachers, both parties have their own reservations regarding the feedback provided for any piece of writing. While teachers are mainly concerned about what type of feedback to give when, students are worried about not being able to make sense of the feedback provided and not being able to revise their work accordingly.

Writing as a social construct

As opposed to the product approach to writing, the process approach to writing views writing as a social activity in which writers act as active participants in the process. This perception of writing necessitates some kind of an interaction between the teacher and the student. The novice writer gets feedback from the teacher as he moves through multiple drafts to improve his work, which turns the writing process into "a constantly evolving mechanism"

(Zinsser, 1998, p. 16). In such a system, the teacher holds the role of a guide, coach or "the more knowledgable other" as the Vygotskian (1978) sociocultural theory proposes. The job of this expert is to help the learner through *scaffolding* to become better writers. The tool used by the teachers in this scaffolding process is called 'feedback', which is regarded as one of the nine events of instruction by Gagné, Briggs and Wager (1992). They regard feedback important as it "provides the learner with information about performances and sets in motion the process of reinforcement" (p. 189). Being able to see what revisions might strengthen their writing paves the way for learners to become better writers. Hounsell (2003) also argues that students "learn faster, much more effectively, when they have a clear sense of how well they are doing and what they might need to do in order to improve" (p. 67). This concept of mutual relationship between the learner and the teacher raises the writers' awareness of audience and enables them to understand the interactive nature of writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Leki, 1990; Reid, 1993).

Although teachers might seem as having the key role in this process, the role of the learner should never be underestimated because "scaffolding is technically always guided by the learner" (Walters, 2003, p. 305). In the end, it is the students who decide on what to do with the feedback received on a paper. Teachers are only the ones to decide when to withdraw their scaffolding practices and this can only be done successfully when negotiated between the student and the teacher based on the learners' proficiency in the language and improvement they have made in writing.

Types of Written Feedback

Although it is widely accepted that feedback is central for the development of writing especially in language classrooms, the research literature has not reached a consensus yet about what type of feedback to provide or who should provide this feedback and when feedback should be given. More important than these is the worries of teachers about not making use of its full potential. Due to these concerns, teachers adopt various types of feedback practices depending on the type of the writing task, the proficiency level of the student and individual variables.

Some researchers questioned the value of giving feedback on local errors and blamed the practice for not helping students make fewer errors (Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992). It was even claimed that correcting local errors on students' papers leads to making more errors on further drafts (Truscott, 1996). Mentioning that there is little evidence to show that gammar correction is helpful, Truscott suggests abondoning the practice altogether. However, there has been some evidence to the contrary as well. Chandler (2000) and Fathman and Whalley (1990), for example, found out that feedback on local issues improves learners' ability to recognize and fix their errors; even on future compositions (Ashwell, 2000). In some other studies, the improvement students made due to receiving feedback on language errors was found to be statistically significant (Ferris, 1995; Ferris, 1997; Lalende, 1982; Sheppard, 1992).

The effectiveness of teacher feedback has been investigated not only in L1 contexts but also in L2 contexts. In his L1 study, Beason (1993) found out that high school and college students improved their drafts based on teacher feedback but they did so selectively. Consequently, he stated his perception of feedback and revision as valuable pedagogical tools. There were, however, some studies conducted in L1 contexts again but yielding different results. After contrasting various types of techer feedback (oral vs. written, explicit vs. implicit), Knoblauch

and Brannon (1981) concluded that none of these different modes had much impact on students' final drafts. Similarly, Hillock's (1986) L1 study also showed that "teacher comment has little impact on student writing" (p. 165). Some of the reasons underlying these results as mentioned in these studies are teachers' feedback being of poor quality, vague or sometimes even ambiguous, which leads to students not understanding or misunderstanding the feedback.

Zamel (1985) draws similar conclusions for L2 contexts and basically criticizes writing instructors for being "inconsistent in their reactions", making "arbitrary corrections", writing "contradictory comments" or providing "vague prescriptions" (p. 86). A pleasant picture, however, is provided by Hyland and Hyland (2006) in their state-of-the-art article by highlighting the fact that research into feedback practices was in "its infancy" in those years and was mainly "rudimentary" (p. 84). In the 21st century, however, research in this field came a long way.

Students' Expectations

While it is important to keep feedback providers in mind, feedback receivers should not be disregarded. What they expect and their preferences should be taken into account for feedback to be effective. When asked about their opinions regarding this issue, they commented that they prefer lots of comments (Leki, 2006). They even wanted all their errors to be marked (Leki,1991). To meet students' expectations, writing practitioners have tried using various types of providing feedback on local errors, namely underlining/circling the error, using a code to mark the error or even correcting the error. Though there has not been a consensus on which type is the most effective, students sometimes chose to correct the problem themselves (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001). However, especially low proficiency students might feel at a loss when they cannot correct their mistakes or when they do not know how to do so, which might lead to demotivation (Leki, 1991; Roberts, 1999; Chandler, 2003).

It can be concluded from many study results that students appreciate teacher feedback and would like their teachers to be open and clear in their comments to make the best use of their feedback. As some students claim, they sometimes find teacher feedback to be difficult to understand and request written feedback to be accompanied by oral feedback. When written feedback is backed up by oral feedback, it is recycled, which strengthens its power on the students. Oral feedback can be in the form of oral conferences where students will be able to clarify some points that assumed to be ambiguous or contradictory by asking for further comments or explanations from their teachers or they can be online with the use of computer technologies available. In oral conferencing, meaning and interpretation are constantly negotiated between the learner and the teacher (Williams, 2002). In online feedback practices, however, different forms of computer packages can be used to give automated or teacher-driven feedback. In some studies, oral/audio feedback was compared with written feedback and proved to be complementary (Alexeeva, 2012). However, some reservations were also stated by teachers related to technical problems such as recording or uploading heavy files (Atieya, 2012).

Who to give feedback

In many studies, results revealed that students expect their feedback to come from their teachers (Enginarlar, 1993; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock and Lefkowits, 1994; Leki, 1991; Radecki and Swales, 1988; Rennie, 2000; Truscott, 1996). When compared with peer feedback, teacher feedback was found to be preferred to a great extent by learners (Hyland, 2000; Long, 1992;

Paulus, 1999). The reason proposed for this in Zacharias' (2007) study was students' belief that teachers have a better knowledge of grammar and vocabulary compared to their peers. In Long's (1992) study, students stated preferring teacher feedback as their comments are more consistent. However, in the same study, students also mentioned that feedback from their peers might prove to be useful if "peers made sincere efforts to supply useful feedback" (p. 16). Peer feedback may only have negative effects when students lack communication skills. Writers of a piece may sometimes be hurt by their peers' feedback due to the language used in the feedback or the way that feedback is communicated. Therefore, it should be acknowledged that peer response is not a substitute for teacher feedback but an important support for the drafting process. As stated in Vygotskian approaches to learning, mediation and interaction with peers help to improve the writing skill so there should always be some room for peer feedback in any writing class.

As equally important as the students are the teachers in a writing class. Their role should never be underestimated as they are the ones who guide this intricate process by their invaluable feedback. Ramsden (2003) views feedback as a marker for quality teaching. However, providing feedback on a piece of writing is one of the most demanding, time-consuming, yet thankless tasks. While teachers complain about the burden giving feedback bears on them, students are concerned about not being able to satisy their instructors despite the revisions they make on their papers. Zacharias (2007) addresses this issue and says, "there seems to be a mismatch between the students' and the teachers' perception in the use of feedback" (p. 39). This clearly indicates that what teachers perceive of feedback and what they expect out of it might be interpreted in a different way by the students. Cavalcanti and Cohen (1993) also focus on the misfit between the expectations of teachers and students and attribute this to the "unclear, incorrect or unbalanced" nature of the feedback provided (p. 84).

However, with just the right type of timely feedback, better results could be obtained from any feedback session. It should not be forgotten that "the provision of feedback on students' writing is a central pedagogic practice" (Coffin, Curray, Goodman, Hewings, Lilis & Swan, 2003, p. 102). In this regard, teacher feedback sometimes becomes a teaching tool. In a way, writing teachers talk to their students through their feedback and as Straub (1996) puts it "it is how we receive and respond to student writing that speaks loudest in our teaching" (p. 246).

Vengadasamy (2002) claims that "many teachers treat the teacher response stage as a copy editing stage where they embark on an error hunt" (p. 2). About two decades ago, Sommers' (1982) and Zamel's (1985) study results also pointed at teachers' preoccupation with error correction. Even when there was some feedback on content, it was in the form of short, vague descriptions which were difficult for students to understand or interpret. Similarly, Lamberg (1980) and Knoblauch and Brannon (1981) raise their concerns about feedback on form as it is not worth the effort and time spent. For students, such a practice turns into a proofreading venture rather than be an instructional tool.

Rather than be busy with surface level errors, teachers should pay more attention to content and organization of a paper. Gilbert (1990) also shares this view and mentions that response to writing should begin at content regardless of the number of language errors. Learners should first learn the basics of L2 writing before they can fine-tune their language. Campbell (1998) advices teachers to focus on local errors only after content and organizational issues are addressed. The reason for this is the fact that when teachers focus on surface level errors, students have tendency to focus on them more (Chapin and Terdal, 1990). Such an attitude disregards the

basic principles of the process approach to writing but emphasizes the end-product (Hamp-Lyons, 2006). Though feedback on content is crucial, it is mostly used very frequently especially in tertiary level institutions where students learn English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as the instructors are usually the experts in their fields and, therefore, comment more on subject-matter than language related problems.

Students' Reactions to Feedback

A lot of studies have been carried out in language classrooms to learn about students' reactions to teacher feedback (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Enginarlar, 1993; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991). In Radecki and Swales' (1988) study, the results yielded that students' negative attitudes towards and misconceptions about writing may be changed with the guidance of their teachers. Majority of the participants of their study appreciated teacher comments that allowed them "to rethink a piece of writing" (p. 364).

Some students, on the other hand, feel quite negative about teacher feedback and show negative reactions to writing in general. In McLeod's (1987) study, students stated perceiving their writing teachers as "capricious individuals" with high expectations which can never be met fully (p. 430). Owing to this reason, many students perceive success in a writing class as not much linked to ability and effort. Sometimes students state considering teacher feedback just to please the teacher to get a better grade (McGee, 1999). In Zacharias' (2007) study, students also stated preferring teacher feedback as they perceived teachers to have control over their grades.

One reason for writing apprehension is receiving a heavily marked paper. Hendrickson and Semke (as cited in Enginarlar, 1993), endorse that overt correction of student writing has a negative effect on the quality of subsequent drafts and student attitudes to the writing skill as a whole. Similar results have been obtained from the studies of Lalende (1982) and Robb, Ross and Shortreed (1986). They also concluded that students become demotivated after receiving a heavily marked paper. Although teachers might have valid reasons for providing such detailed feedback, with writing appropriation, ownership of writing can be "stolen" from a writer by the teacher's comments (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 88). As can be seen, teacher feedback is a very slippery field of language teaching, which might have detrimental effects on the leaerners if not applied well.

Writing and Self-efficacy

It is clear that teachers' comments on written work is a factor affecting students' attitudes towards writing. As Higgings, Hartley and Skelton (2001) put it, "students makes an emotional investment in an assignment and expects some 'return' on that investment" (p. 272). Providing feedback for such a personal product should be dealt with caution as student writers are affected by the comments. Motivation is the key factor affecting learners' writing improvement. Guenette (2007) emphasizes that "any type of feedback that does not take the crucial variable of motivation into consideration is doomed to fail" (p. 52). When feedback is immediate and constructive, students see the value of it and feedback becomes a motivational tool for improvement but when there are harsh comments or only criticisms of the content or organization of the paper, students may develop writing apprehension, which might affect their self-efficacy beliefs. Students desire to receive praise together with criticism for their work (Dessner, 1991). Such positive feedback not only has a motivating factor but it also leads

students to show similar performances in their further writing attempts. However, as Hyland and Hyland (2001) state, for praise to serve its purpose, it should be genuinely deserved. If given just for the sake of writing something positive on a student's paper, feedback diverts from its instructional purpose.

The ultimate aim of any writing instructor would be to help their student writers build learner confidence in their writing literacy development. When students have a sense of control over their writing skill, they will be able to decrease their anxiety and feelings of helplessness, which will increase their motivation and willingness to perform better in return. In this way, learners of L2 writing will start taking responsibility of their own learning and this will influence their self-esteem positively (Bandura, 1993). Bandura (1986) states, in general, "students who develop a strong sense of self-efficacy are well-equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative" (p. 417). In especially the case of writing, Pajares (2003) found out that students' self-efficacy beliefs are instrumental to their ultimate success as writers.

Electronic Feedback Options

Student engagement is one of the key factors in a language class and when teachers do not engage their students in their classes, they run the risk of being outdated or traditional. The use of technology is one way of achieving student engagement and involvement. As technology has improved at an immense rate, the field of education started to benefit from it in many aspects. From computer assisted language labs to Web 2.0 tools, teachers look for ways of integrating technology in their instruction. One reason for this is the changing profile of the students. Today's students are basically digital natives, who are already equipped with 21st century computer literacy skills.

In writing classes, teachers basically choose to give electronic feedback which is considered easier and more convenient compared to written feedback given on papers. Among some of the softwares used for this purpose are the word processing with self-editing features and commenting practices, the Turnitin program that provides options for both written and audio feedback or even some software options that make video feedback possible.

Students have positive perceptions regarding written e-feedback as they find the tools such as email submission (Ho and Savignon, 2007) or blog-based revision (Çiftçi and Koçoğlu, 2012) convenient. In Arslan and Şahin-Kızıl's (2010) study, the findings revealed that blog-integrated writing instruction might lead to greater improvement in students' writing performance. Ward (2004) is also in favor of blogs as they "provide a genuine audience, are authentically communicative, process driven, peer reviewed, provide a disinhibiting context and offer a completely new form with unchartered creative potential" (p. 3). Dippold (2009) also explains the advantages of blogs in his research by mentioning that they allow for access to drafts by teachers and students at any time and place to give feedback. The use of blogs as an instructional tool will be useful in a writing class as students are already familiar with them in their daily lives.

Electronic feedback proves to be useful for teachers as they offer automatic preset feedback or quick mark options for language revisions. The availability of track changes, for instance, enable novice writers to "make a cognitive comparison and notice the difference between the error and the suggested form" (AbuSeileek and Abualsha'r, 2014, p. 88). Without teachers paying much effort for marking surface level errors, they can turn their attention to providing more feedback for content and organization of the paper.

Educational technologies also allow for some synchronous forms of giving feedback. Students and teachers can sometimes work on the same piece of writing simultaneously. Through Google

Docs, for example, multiple users make comments on a document at the same time. When compared with asynchronous feedback practices, synchronous feedback was considered to facilitate more successful self-correction (Shintani, 2016) as it led to "better grammar learning and fewer fossilized constructions" (Shintani and Aubrey, 2016, p. 296).

Some asynchronous e-feedback forms can also be promising due to some reasons. Turnitin is a software basically used to detect plagiarism; however, the availability of providing audio feedback on the program makes it convenient for teachers especially for comments too long to explain (Kotska and Maliborska, 2016). Another form of asynchronous feedback, screencast feedback, also has the option of audio-visual mode of e-feedback and found to give students an opportunity to practise their listening skills together with writing (Ali, 2016). However, screencast feedback has some drawbacks such as the need to be online to access feedback (Harper et al., 2015) or the need for a better sound quality (Ali, 2016). Once these drawbacks are overcome, students generally respond positively to such feedback.

Implications

Providing feedback is such an important practice in the teaching of language learning that it should be treated with caution. Language learning is a gradual process that takes time and mistakes are a natural part of this process and should be tolerated patiently. As "teachers do not give feedback in a vacuum but create a context for their remarks", they need to create an interpersonal link between themselves and the writer and target the individual needs of each student (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 86). The aim should be to make students independent critical reviewers or readers of their own writing who can intervene to make changes in their work wherever necessary.

To this end, teachers should constantly look for ways of employing various feedback practices. Good feedback is immediate and constructive, which guides students about how their work can be improved. This feedback may come from students as well as teachers. The value of peer response should not be underestimated so it should be used in writing classes frequently, at least to provide students with peer assistance in their earlier drafts. Then it should be supported by teacher feedback so teacher and peer feedback should complement each other.

It is obvious that process approach to writing is widely accepted as beneficial as it leads to improved writing ability and better end-products. However, providing feedback to students' writing is one of the most demanding, time-consuming and exhausting practices for a teacher. When high number of students in classes is considered, the practice becomes more tiresome. In such a situation, teachers need to find some alternative ways to support writing instruction and to provide more effective feedback. Benefiting from technology is one way of easing teachers' job. For example, computer assisted packages can be used to promote self-editing skills, which will lead to student autonomy in return. This enables teachers to focus their attention more on content-related problems. In this regard, e-feedback is preferred mainly by teachers due to its practicality.

Teachers must integrate e-feedback in their instruction not just once but they should make it an integral part of teaching and the learning process. Technological tools can offer greatest benefits if they are well-integrated into the curriculum and closely matched to instructional purposes (Hyland, 1993; Warschauer, 1999). In order to do achieve this, no matter what techniques or tools teachers use, students need to be trained on how to make sense and use of

this feedback. Unless this is accomplished, learners cannot benefit from the educational value of e-feedback and it cannot go further than being another burden on the shoulder of the students.

While the potential benefits of e-feedback are numerous, it is important for teachers to tailor these options to suit for the needs and interests of students coming from different backgrounds. Although in many contexts, students prefer e-feedback practices, they cannot be used in educational settings where there is a lack of computers or the access to the internet. Even when schools are technically-equipped well, it is the teachers who are going to decide "how to harness these affordances best for particular goals and learners" (Chang, Cunningham, Satar & Strobl, 2017, p. 414).

In conclusion, as technology is an integral part of students today, the question for teachers is not *whether* to use e-feedback options or not but *where, when* and *how* to use it best for students with various backgrounds in different contexts. It is apparent that computers can never replace teachers but they can be used to assist teaching. They also prove to be great tools for learning as students today live in a digital era where they have strong computer literacy skills. The use of technology in language instruction is one way of engaging students in the language classes and creating a non-threatening environment.

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THE COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES (CEFR): LEARNING, TEACHING, ASSESSMENT

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This chapter of the book aims to present an overview of the aims, scope and content of the 'Common European Framework of Reference' (CEFR) with a specific focus on the utilization of the document in the field of foreign language teaching. The concrete output of the CEFR; namely, the English Language Portfolio (ELP), and its main uses both as an instructional and as a self-assessment tool have also been touched upon. The pros and cons of integrating the CEFR and the ELP into an educational context, particularly the Turkish educational context, and some points to consider in doing this are also covered within this chapter.

Introduction

As a direct consequence of reasons such as globalization, technology, international and inter-continental mobility, trade and economy as well as scientific research and tourism, teaching and learning of foreign languages have become more significant than ever in the 21st century (Sarıçoban, 2001). The world has become more multilingual and multicultural as a result of the 'global village' concept. Countries that have been populated with multilingual citizens replaced the traditional nation states that were associated with single languages. An evidence for such an assertive statement has been provided by McPake, *et al.* (2007), who argue that there are at least 440 spoken and more than 18 sign languages currently being used in 21 European states, in addition to the dominant languages. As Broeder and Wijk clearly state, "more and more Europeans are using other languages instead of or in addition to their official 'national' language" (2012, p. 16), as a result of which multilingualism and multiculturalism becomes a truth of European people's lives. In this context, establishment of a common basis that will enable all the stakeholders to describe and harmonize all the dimensions of foreign language learning and teaching has become inevitable.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

The need for a common set of levels or points of reference to function as standards in the field of foreign language teaching has been recognized for nearly three decades and many national as well as international scales and frameworks have been developed (North, 2008). The most well-known and perhaps successful of these has been the CEFR. Initially designed as a scale, the CEFR has in time evolved into a framework in that the CEFR has had a local, national and international scope and it has covered the whole processes of language teaching, learning and assessment (Jones & Saville, 2008). The CEFR has been defined as a document that "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1). The CEFR is mainly a descriptive document in that the competences and skills that a language learner needs to acquire for effective communication in the target language have been identified in a detailed fashion within the document. However, language learners are not the only intended users of the CEFR because foreign language teachers, course-book writers and designers, teacher trainers, examiners and educational administrators have also been targeted as potential users of the CEFR.

The main aim of the framework is to enhance international cooperation and coordination in the field of foreign language teaching by presenting a common basis that describes the objectives, content and methods employed throughout the process of foreign language teaching in an explicit and transparent way. In addition to enabling international communication and networking, the CEFR also aims to promote the reflection and decision-making skills of its users (North, 2007). It should be noted that the CEFR is not a language-specific or context-specific framework; on the contrary, it is a "a concertina-like reference tool that provides categories and levels that educational professionals can expand/contract, elaborate/summarize, adopt/adapt according to the needs of their context" (North, 2008, p. 221), implying that it can be used in any context in teaching or learning any language although it has initially been produced in the European context. Other aims of the Council of Europe language policy are:

- to equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation not only in education, culture and science but also in trade and industry.
- to promote mutual understanding and tolerance, respect for identities and cultural diversity through more effective international communication.
- to maintain and further develop the richness and diversity of European cultural life through greater mutual knowledge of national and regional languages, including those less widely taught.
- to meet the needs of a multilingual and multicultural Europe by appreciably developing the ability of Europeans to communicate with each other across linguistic and cultural boundaries, which requires a sustained, lifelong effort to be encouraged, put on an organized footing and financed at all levels of education by the competent bodies.
- to avert the dangers that might result from the marginalization of those lacking the skills necessary to communicate in an interactive Europe (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 3).

In order to achieve these aims, instead of prescribing a particular method, the CEFR presents options, encourages its users to reflect on their existing practice and to verbalize what they do by raising questions and urging the users to find answers in relation to their specific contexts. In line with this, an *action-oriented* approach has been employed by the CEFR and the users

of the framework are considered as *social agents*, "in other words members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 9). More specifically, the contextual, emotional, cognitive, and volitional variables along with the full variety of abilities that are unique to and applied by the learner as a social agent have been allowed for by the action-oriented approach of the CEFR.

The action-oriented approach promoted by the CEFR argues that language is continuously used to fulfill communicative acts, which may be external and social (*e.g.* chatting with family and friends, holding formal meetings, writing personal or official letters) or internal and private (*e.g.* any kind of reading, planning an apology for a mistake committed). In addition, any communicative act involves any of the four language activities (reception, production, interaction, and mediation); however, the user of the language will have to resort to his/her communicative language competence when s/he is to take part in language activity. Accordingly, the context in which any communicative act is carried out will impose certain conditions and constraints and four main domains of language use envisaged by the CEFR are: *public*, *personal*, *educational*, and *occupational*. Sociolinguistic and pragmatic components of communicative language competence have also been embedded in the context. Therefore, even though the CEFR avoids from even recommending a particular language teaching method, "its approach to the description of language use nevertheless reminds us at every turn that communicative language use plays a central role in communicative language learning" (Little, *et al.*, 2007, p. 14).

Over and above its action-oriented approach, the CEFR claims to be a *comprehensive* (encompassing full range of language skills and use), *transparent* (formulated in a clear and explicit way and easily comprehensible), and *coherent* (free from internal contradictions) framework. It should also be noted that the CEFR, instead of imposing a single uniform system, also claims to be a *flexible*, *open*, *multi-purpose*, *dynamic*, *user-friendly*, and *non-dogmatic* framework for language learning and teaching, suggesting that the users can apply it to diverse and unique contexts by making the necessary adaptations. A striking example for the flexibility and openness feature of the framework is provided by the Council of Europe, "…a school teacher may find it quite unnecessary to take noise levels into account, but a teacher of airline pilots who fails to train them to recognise digits 100 % in appallingly noisy ground-to-air communication may condemn them and their passengers to death!" (2001, p. 6).

The CEFR includes a *descriptive scheme* covering the ingredients of effective language use and a *definition of communicative proficiency* categorized in three bands and six levels - A1 and A2 (Basic User), B1 and B2 (Independent User), C1 and C2 (Proficient User) (Little, 2007) (see Figure 1.).

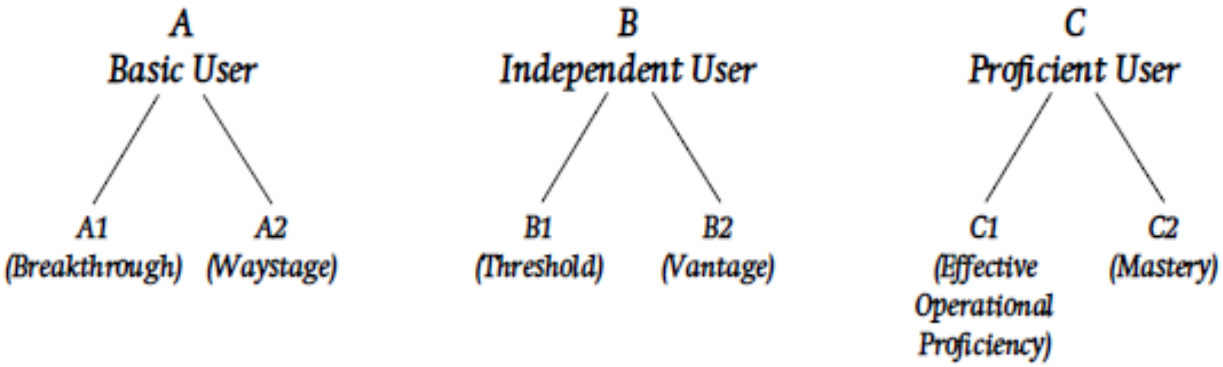

Figure 1. The Common Reference Levels (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 23).

The six level classification offered by the CEFR may at first seem as a revised and extended version of traditionally employed tripartite scaling of language learners – *elementary*, *(pre-/ upper-) intermediate*, and *advanced*. However, the CEFR also provides us with clear and detailed descriptors for these levels, which makes it possible for all the stakeholders to speak the same language in the process of identifying the level of a language learner, an activity or a course-book. In the following table, a global scale for Common Reference Levels has been presented. It should be noted that the framework breaks down these global levels into five skills (namely, *Listening*, *Reading*, *Spoken Interaction*, *Spoken Production*, and *Writing*) and classifies them in six levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2) with the help of the ELP.

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Table 1. Common Reference Levels: Global Scale (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24).

The European Language Portfolio (ELP)

The story of the European Language Portfolio (ELP), like the CEFR, goes back to the Rüschlikon Symposium held in 1991. As a direct outcome of this symposium, the necessity of developing a Common European Framework of Reference for language learning and an ELP has been agreed upon. Accordingly, following about a decade of drafts and projects, the ELP was released in 2001 at the first ELP Seminar held in Portugal (Little, *et al.*, 2011). The lack of harmonization in foreign language teaching procedures within Europe and the urgent necessity to enable European people who speak different languages and come from diverse cultural backgrounds to communicate with each other effectively paved the way for the ELP (Mirici, 2008). The ELP has been published as "a document allowing learners to record and reflect on their language learning and cultural experiences" (Kelly, *et al.*, 2004, p. 118). The focal aims of the ELP are:

- The deepening of mutual understanding and respect among citizens in Europe;
- The protection and promotion of linguistic and cultural diversity;
- The development of learner responsibility and learner autonomy;
- The promotion of life-long language and intercultural learning aiming for competent plurilingual and self-confident European citizens;
- The clear and transparent description of competences and qualifications to facilitate mobility and personal growth (Scharer, 2000, p. 4).

The principles of plurilingualism and intercultural learning are integral components of both the CEFR and the ELP. According to the Council of Europe (CoE), plurilingual and pluricultural competence is "…the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures" (2001, p. 168) and these two competences have a composite and intertwined structure. Additionally a sharp distinction has been made between multilingualism and plurilingualism by the CoE. In plain words,

"the plurilingual approach emphasises the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples (whether learnt at school or college, or by direct experience), he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 4).

On the contrary, it is possible to promote multilingualism simply by varying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system and encouraging the students to learn more than one foreign language. Such an understanding of plurilingualism has led to a paradigm shift in foreign language learning and teaching in that, instead of an 'ideal native speaker' model who has mastered one or more foreign languages in an isolated fashion, the plurilingual approach aims "to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 5). This '*linguistic repertory*' is to be employed for effective communication and the linguistic abilities in this repertory are collectively put into use, for instance, to make sense of a text in a foreign language. It should be noted that when a learner starts learning a second/foreign language, the process is not the same as first language acquisition since the learner is already competent in his/her native language and a reciprocal interaction between the native

and target language(s) can be observed, which reminds us Selinker's (1972) '*Interlanguage Hypothesis*'. In addition, acknowledging the close link between language and culture, the Council of Europe highlights the interrelation between plurilingualism and pluriculturalism by stating that "in a person's cultural competence, the various cultures (national, regional, social) to which that person has gained access do not simply co-exist side by side; they are compared, contrasted and actively interact to produce an enriched, integrated pluricultural competence, of which plurilingual competence is one component, again interacting with other components" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 6). As a result of this process, the learner is expected to develop an awareness of the relation between the '*world of origin*' and the '*world of the target community*' and to avoid cultural or national stereotypes which are unjustified.

There are currently 145 validated ELPs for 33 countries and 10 of these validated models belong to Turkey. A portfolio has to cover and display a certain set of principles in order to get validated. To put it more clearly, the ELP should promote life-long language learning and learner autonomy with the help of self-assessment and be closely correlated with the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2006). In addition, the ELP should belong to its user, which "helps to give children a commitment to and ownership of their learning" (Council of Europe, 2006, p. 4) and any kind of language competence obtained in formal settings as well as in informal settings is to be covered by the ELP thanks to its tripartite composition. To be more precise, the ELP comprises of three main parts:

- *a language passport*, which summarizes the user's linguistic identity by concisely documenting second/foreign languages (L2s) learnt, formal language qualifications gained, important experiences of L2 use, and the user's assessment of his/her existing proficiency in the L2s he/she is learning;
- *a language biography*, which is used to set language learning goals, monitor development, and record and reflect on significant language learning and intercultural experiences; and
- *a dossier*, which can serve both a process and a display function, being used to store work in progress but also to present a selection of work that in the user's decision best embodies his/her L2 proficiency (Little, *et al.*, 2011).

More specifically, the *language passport* section, which covers the owner's language-related competencies and formal qualifications as well as intercultural gains, can also be used for either the teacher's or an external institution's assessment. Details such as when, why, and by whom the assessment has been conducted are also registered in the language passport. The *language biography* section, on the other hand, functions as a record of the learner's personal language learning history, and aims to involve the owner in planning future learning, and encourages plurilingualism (Cummins & Davesne, 2009; Egel, 2009). Finally, the owner of the ELP concretizes what s/he has learned so far in the *dossier* by documenting and exhibiting his/her gains such as his/her written works and CDs that include his/her oral experiences or language certificates.

With its three-part structure, the ELP fulfills two primary functions: a *reporting* function and a *pedagogical* function. Its reporting function comes to imply that it accompanies the certificates and diplomas obtained by the learner from formal examinations and it provides concrete evidence of the learner's proficiency and achievements. The ELP carries out its pedagogical function by encouraging life-long learning, plurilingualism, cultural awareness, and learner autonomy (Little, *et al.*, 2011). In other words, it reports the linguistic and cultural skills the learner has gained and it motivates learners to improve their skills linguistically and culturally.

Another function of the ELP is to consolidate and accentuate the rationale behind the CEFR for learners, teachers and schools, and other stakeholders because "from the beginning the ELP was conceived as an implementation tool for the CEFR" (Little, *et al.*, 2007, p. 11). It should not go without saying that principles such as life-long learning, self-assessment, plurilingualism, learner autonomy, intercultural learning and reflective learning have been frequently highlighted by the CoE as well as the CEFR and the ELP. As has been noted by Little, *et al.*, "learner autonomy depends crucially on reflection and self-assessment" (2011, p. 18), which comes to imply that these principles cannot be separated from each other and they should be conceived collectively.

In close relation to learner autonomy, learning strategies to be employed by foreign language learners have not gone unnoticed by the CEFR. Learning strategies have been considered as one of the determinant factors for effective second/foreign language learning (Oxford, 2001) and have been defined as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques – such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task – used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). In a similar way, the CEFR covers these skills under the sub-heading of '*study skills*' and lists the following sub-skills:

- to maintain attention to the presented information;
- to grasp the intention of the task set;
- to co-operate effectively in pair and group work;
- to make rapid and frequent active use of the language learnt;
- ability to use available materials for independent learning;
- ability to organise and use materials for self-directed learning;
- ability to learn effectively (both linguistically and socioculturally) from direct observation of and participation in communication events by the cultivation of perceptual, analytical and heuristic skills;
- awareness of one's own strengths and weaknesses as a learner;
- ability to identify one's own needs and goals;
- ability to organise one's own strategies and procedures to pursue these goals, in accordance with one's own characteristics and resources (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 107-108).

Foreign Language Education and the CEFR & the ELP

As to the influence of the CEFR and the ELP on foreign language education, it is possible to argue that the two documents have evolved into dominant factors that shape the processes of foreign language learning and teaching, foreign language teacher education, curriculum and course-book design as well as implementation and interpretation of assessment. In the past, the proficiency levels of language learners used to be labeled with the help of terms such as '*elementary',* '*(pre-/post-) intermediate*', and/or '*advanced*'. Such a classification system led to many misunderstandings and confusion because there was not an all-accepted and common description for what a, let's say, pre-intermediate level language learner could do in writing or listening in the target language. However, a six-level (A1 and A2 - *Basic User*, B1 and B2 - *Independent User*, C1 and C2 - *Proficient User*) categorization with clear and standard descriptors contributes to a more reliable and valid harmonization in terms of specification of the learners' proficiency levels. Another feature of the ELP that makes this specification more accurate and detailed is that, rather than the traditional four skills, the ELP divides the skill of speaking into

two; namely *productive speaking* and *interactive speaking*. It should be noted that performing a pre-planned speech is certainly different from interacting with others because in the latter, the speaker also needs to listen and understand what the other participants say and if a breakdown occurs during the communication, the speaker may need to make use of compensation strategies in order to repair the breakdown.

As a concrete example of the influence of the CEFR and the ELP on course-book and material design, it can be argued that many course-books today include a self-assessment corner with the aim of encouraging learners to reflect on their learning experience. In a similar way, many modern course-books include reading and/or listening texts or videos that present specific information as to the daily lives and customs of people from diverse cultures. The aim of this tendency is to develop the '*intercultural communicative competence*' of the learners by learning and appreciating the peculiarities of new cultures. This focus on culture helps learners develop their intercultural awareness and understanding by learning to see the world from another's perspective (Council of Europe, 2006). In addition to course-book design, the ELP and the CEFR have also been influential in terms of professional development of in-service foreign language teachers since many local, national and international workshops and seminars have been organized in order to familiarize the participants with the underlying principles and implementation of the documents.

As to the utilization of the ELP in the classroom, Council of Europe (2006) cautions against viewing it as an additional burden to the language teachers' already busy routines. Instead of this, the ELP should be seen as an instructional tool which essentially belongs to the students and the main task of the teacher is to guide his/her students. To do this, the teacher first him-/herself needs to become familiar with the content of the ELP and help his/her students understand the essentials and rationale of the ELP.

Criticism and Evaluation of the CEFR and the ELP

The CEFR and the ELP, in spite of their above-mentioned benefits, have also been criticized in many respects. First of all, it has been argued that due to the fact that the CEFR outlines the content and the implementation of foreign language instruction to a great extent, it may lead to washback in the process of assessment. In a similar way, Fulcher (2004) calls attention to foreign language teachers' tendency to consider the CEFR as a document that represents a universal acquisitional hierarchy in language teaching. In his view, teachers "begin to believe the language of the descriptors actually relates to the sequence of how and what learners learn" (Fulcher, 2004, p. 260). Furthermore, it has also been claimed that explaining the linguistic development of language learners on the basis of a continuum that starts from A1 level (Breakthrough) and ends at C2 level (Mastery) does not have sound empirical evidence. In the words of Shohamy and Menken, "there is little convincing evidence for the claim that language learning actually works in their prescribed clean, linear, and homogeneous fashion for all learners" (2015, p. 258). In response to this line of criticism, North claims that "an empirically proven interpretation of *difficulty*" (2008, p. 222) is found across foreign languages, educational sectors, learners and teachers. Moreover, with the aim of defusing such criticisms, the users of the CEFR and the ELP need to take the unique characteristics of the learning context and the learners into account.

Another issue that has frequently been questioned is the approach adopted by the CEFR and the ELP. The CEFR declares itself to be a non-dogmatic framework for language learning,

teaching, and assessment; however, as reported by Newby, "principles of the Communicative Approach are at the core of many aspects of its 'action-oriented' view of language" (2011, p. 76). However, if we accept that the ultimate aim of teaching foreign languages is to enable our learners to communicate in the target language, then there is not a problem with the approach employed by the CEFR. In a similar vein, the principles of self-assessment and learner autonomy, promoted by the CEFR and the ELP, have also been questioned on the grounds that the students may not be able to assess themselves accurately by overstating their performance in the target language and they may not take responsibility of their learning process. Nevertheless, the teacher can readily overcome this pitfall and enhance the reliability and validity of the assessment by asking his/her students to show that they can do what they claim (Little, 2007). On this issue, the CoE (2001) maintains that, except for high stakes examination situations, learner's self-assessment functions as a complement to formal tests and teacher's assessment. Echoing this view, Kırkgöz (2007) believes that a twofold and complementary system of formal assessment and self-assessment can also be employed by the teacher instead of evaluating language learners based on solely their self-assessment. It should also be noted that self-assessment is essential for to the effective use of the ELP and as Little, *et al*. (2011) clearly state, the more the ELP user practices formative assessment in the language biography section, the better s/he is to become at summative self-assessment in the language passport section. As a final note, self-assessment will possibly motivate language learners and help to raise their awareness by encouraging them to determine their strengths and weaknesses and to set their own learning goals relevant to their needs and interests.

The CEFR and the ELP in Turkish Context

Turkey has been a candidate country to the European Union (EU) since 1997; as a result, Turkey has been trying to catch up with the latest innovations and developments that occur in both European countries and the rest of the world. Turkey aims to understand and apply the most recent instructional trends and reforms employed by the member countries (Büyükgöze, 2015). Accordingly, Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) signed the treaty at the 20th Session of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education of the Council of Europe (CoE), Krakow, Poland, 15-17 October 2000 and agreed to adopt the CEFR for foreign language education curricula across the country (Mirici & Hergüner, 2015). Turkey, as a member of the European Council and in the process of membership to the EU, has adopted the policy of implementing European standards in every field; therefore, it is a must to implement the foreign language teacher education policies, developed by the CoE, in a proper fashion (Mirici, 2015). In line with this, Turkey has also participated in the piloting stage of the ELP since 2001 (Egel, 2009). Following this piloting stage, implementation of the ELP has been decided on and a new English language curriculum which is mainly based on the CEFR and the ELP has been introduced by the MoNE (Mirici, 2008). Two validated models of the ELP (one for 10-14 and one for 15-18 years of age groups) have been produced by the MoNE and a nationwide use of the ELP has been targeted (see http://adp.meb.gov.tr/). As to the tertiary level, the Higher Education Council (HEC) also implemented a comprehensive curriculum reform in faculties of education, which is based on the ELP and the CEFR together with European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) (Hişmanoğlu, 2012; Ogeyik, 2009).

As a direct result of these developments, many national and local seminars and in-service training sessions have been conducted by the MoNE with the aim of familiarizing language

teachers working for state schools with the rationale of the CEFR and the ELP. Not surprisingly, private schools have welcomed these innovations more quickly and willingly because the ELP and the CEFR help them attract more students and promote mobility for their students. As has been aforementioned, Turkey currently has 10 validated ELP models for different age groups and 7 of them have been designed and are owned by private institutions. To sum up, recognition and reception of change and innovation in education does not happen overnight when it is introduced in a top-down manner and an overall and exhaustive evaluation of the implementation the ELP and the CEFR in Turkish context is not possible yet; however, it seems that the two national organizations responsible for primary/secondary and tertiary education (MoNE and HEC, respectively) have welcomed the principles offered by the CEFR and the ELP.

Conclusion

Although the CEFR and the ELP have originated in Europe, both of these documents have influenced several aspects of foreign language learning and teaching globally to a great extent. The levels of language learners are specified in line with the six-level scaling offered by the CEFR and language teachers plan and conduct their instruction considering the detailed descriptors provided by the ELP in relation to their context. Similarly, material and course-book designers take into account the principles such as inter-cultural learning, learner autonomy and self-assessment that have been underscored by the CEFR and the ELP. Last but not least, large examining bodies as well as classroom teachers keep the innovations presented by the CEFR and the ELP in mind while administering assessment. As they have been employed in many diverse ways in many diverse contexts, an all-inclusive assessment of the CEFR's and the ELP's total effect is not possible yet; nevertheless, the fact that the CEFR and the ELP have yielded a variety of models and uses across the world thanks to their flexibility reveals their actual value (Little, *et al.*, 2011).

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DIGITAL STORYTELLING AND ITS CONTRIBUTION IN SPEAKING AND WRITING SKILLS OF STUDENTS

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Introduction

The popularity of the integration of digital storytelling into the educational context has grown recently due to developments in technology. Digital storytelling is not only used in education, but it is also used for other areas such as medical, law, businesses, etc. Digital storytelling has wide wings which stretch through all parts of education such as educational institutions, schools, libraries, nursing schools, community centres- from preschool through graduate school. It can also be designed for almost all content areas including mathematics, social sciences, art, language teaching, etc. In order to integrate technology into the classroom, to design sharable and re-viewable outputs for training, to improve language teaching, to incorporate visuality into the classes, to inform learners about the content areas, etc., the use of digital storytelling is highly recommended by many researches (Robin; 2006; Lambert, 2010).

Background

In 1990, Joe Lambert founded the Centre for Digital Storytelling (CDS) which provides training and assistance for people interested in digital storytelling. CDS also works to develop and disseminate the Seven Elements of digital storytelling that directs implementers through a systematic procedure. These elements are essential as they are reported to be a useful starting point to begin working with digital stories. These elements suggested by Robin (2006) are described below:

1.	Point of view	Reflects the perspective of the author
2.	A dramatic question	The answer is attained at the end of the story
3.	Emotional content	Serious issues that affects the viewer personally and emotionally
4.	The gift of your voice	A way of personalizing the story
5.	The power of the soundtrack	Music or other effects that strengthen the story
6.	Economy	Using adequate content for the viewer
7.	Pacing	Deals with the pace of the story

What is Digital Storytelling?

Digital stories present information on the life experiences of a person or on different topics by combining computer-based images, recorded audio narration- sometimes with text revealed- pictures, video clips, and music. Using computer software, these multimedia elements are combined to form a digital story in which a biographical narrative or information about a specific topic is narrated. The narration is saved in a digital format and can be uploaded to any digital devices or web browser where it can be played, shared, and downloaded. For an easy start to create a digital story, designing a story based on a single picture or a single photograph can be recommended.

In general, digital stories are short, spanning between 2-10 minutes. Robin (2006) defined digital stories as 'short personal stories created with digital technology tools that are then shared with others in order to present information, ideas and opinions on a range of topics and themes'. The digital stories can be in the form of

Narrated slideshow

- Audio Documentary
- Video Documentary
- Docudramas
- Animation
- Robin (2006) classified digital stories into three different categories:

Personal narratives, including accounts of different memories or events of an individual's life,

1- Historical documentaries, identifying dramatic events about past,

2- Stories informing or instructing the viewer on a certain topic.

Thus, a digital story can be about the life of an individual, about a historical event, or a definite topic that informs the audience. Commonly the digital story is concluded with a moral lesson or a radical change. The main character realizes something significant at the end, makes an inference or gives evidence about the change. The consequence is sometimes revealed with an emotional audio track and a stable photo. This is the point where the digital story is most impressive.

Steps in Digital storytelling

1. Start with an idea

   The students or the teacher begin/s with an idea that will direct the whole story.

2. Research/ explore/ learn

the storyteller investigates what s/he will write and narrate, on which aspect s/he will focus during the story, which digital tools will be used, and how the story will be created and presented.

3. Write – script, outline

The narrator puts down the script and outline of the of the story. It should have a meaningful and emotional side that will impress the viewer.

Storyboard/ plan

A storyboard is the written chronological representation of the elements such as images, text, narration, music, transitions, digital tools, etc. in a digital story. The storyboard is generated in order to organize and rearrange the content of the story.

Gather and create images, audio and video

The narrator collects the media that will be used in the digital story. Photographs, pictures, drawings, sound tracks, narrative recordings, video recordings, animations, etc. can all be utilized as media.

Put it all together

The narrator merges all the items together associated with the aim and planning of the process.

Share

The final product is shared through internet, web sites, or personal pages on the media.

Reflection and feedback

4. After the presentation of the digital story, reflection and feedback are taken from the viewers to enhance the process and to make recommendations and contributions for the narrator and other students who will create a digital story.

Digital Storytelling in Education

Digital story telling can be regarded as a constructivist approach as it requires learners to construct their own understanding through a process of conducting research on the content topic, writing a script, collecting materials, recording the audio narration by using technological tools. The result is a 'multimedia artifact' that presents the final product. Digital story telling is also learner centred in which the students are active in all phases of the work which can be implemented in pairs, in group, or in whole class. At the end of the story, a product that can be shared by many people is ready.

A variety of multimedia is combined in order to form a digital narration. Digital stories can be created by people anywhere and on any topic. In education both teachers and students can use digital storytelling. Teachers design digital stories for students to inform them about a topic or theme and students create stories as tasks given by their teachers or as projects. Teachers or students can use the practice in order to show it to other people all around the world.

In digital storytelling it is the story itself not the technology that should be focused on. It involves merging digital practice with literate work. This assigns a figurative duty on teachers to combine the literate world with the pacing technological developments that are suitable and innovative to use in education.

There are two essential components of storytelling:

1. A call to adventure: the story needs to be fantastic, interesting, informative, or noteworthy.
2. Problem solution involving transformation: a solution to the main problem should be suggested or displayed at the end of the story.

Benefits of integrating digital stories into classroom:

The integration of digital storytelling into educational environment has many advantages related to students, teachers, and teaching atmosphere. Some of the common benefits of digital storytelling over education is listed below.

- It ensures students remember what they have learnt and practice essential skills.
- It increases verbal and visual proficiency.
- It encourages use of creativity and imagination.
- It may help students to establish empathy for other people around or away.
- It makes students to feel more confident as communicators and users of technology. It also enables students to gain 21st century literacy skills both in content and media.
- Digital storytelling is the most effective when it is created by students -either individually or in groups- rather than teachers.
- It may develop students' social-self, understanding of democratic rights, empathy with other citizens and cultures. It also helps students make comparison between present and past.
- It facilitates discussions about current issues that occupy the public or mass media.
- It creates interaction between native people and immigrants in the country as a way of eliminating the distance felt by these people who live in the same country.
- It can raise interest on some of the issues such as family bond, friendship, education, social life, etc.
- When the topic is the life of a person, a digital story can be regarded as a pencil of light that reflects the characteristic, life style, feeling, or ideas of the storyteller.
- It develops certain areas that is experienced in the procedure such as making investigations on the topic, script writing which requires writing skills, voice-overs that improves speaking skills in front of a public, technical skill development through dealing with digital techniques, collaboration that improves social interaction and cooperation in group works, presentation to real audience and creativity expression (Pappas, 2013).
- Through digital storytelling, students become active producers of the digital world, not the passive consumers.

Digital Stories as a motivational tool

As countless numbers of studies proved (Dörnyei,1994,1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009,2013) motivation is one of the most important factor that brings success. Accomplishing a work that reflects a piece of the student develops his/her motivation. Thus, teachers seek ways for improving the motivation of students for a more effective and successful teaching and learning environment. In digital storytelling, some of the elements in the procedure reported to motivate learners. Thus, it is highly advised for teachers to involve tasks as digital storytelling

in the classes. Research indicates that using multimedia and technology and giving information about a certain topic that engages the students actively in the classes improve motivation in this process (Robin, 2006). Therefore, digital storytelling provides teachers and students with a real life experience of applying technology and digital programmes into the classroom.

Developing imagination can contribute to self-confidence and personal motivation of learners (Mallan,1992). Telling a story improves students' imagination which in turn develop problem solving competencies. A professionally designed digital story can keep the attention of the students and increase their interest on the area of exploring new information. The digital stories can be used to design well equipped courses with multimedia rich presentations. They also enhance current lessons with remarkable practice and facilitate comprehension about an abstract or conceptual theme or content. Thus digital storytelling can be a powerful tool to be used in classes.

Digital Storytelling as an Effective Instructional Tool for Teachers

Some educators may be volunteer to create their own stories in order to show them to their students to give information about a definite theme or show a section from their life. Here, in order to design a story that will serve as a model for students and to lend assistance for the learners when they are to create stories, the teacher also needs to be well acquainted with technology, be able to use new trend programmes or applications, be interested in photography, music and digital world. If the teacher feels some deficiency in using technological devices, he/she needs to meet these deficits.

Digital storytelling can be advisable for teachers who desire to save time and effort. It is argued by some researchers that when teachers integrate digital narratives into the classes their students get encouraged to engage in discussion and participation. It is also reported that topics that are explained through digital storytelling are effective on the comprehension of the related content (Sadik, 2008).

Digital Storytelling as an Effective Learning Tool for Students

Digital storytelling can be a useful practice for students in many ways both for educational and personal reasons. It is reported that digital storytelling excites students' attention and interest, increases motivation of students who were born to this technological era. The process may also enable students to discover their talent in producing and interacting by making investigations, organising the process, expressing opinions, finding solutions, and constructing narratives. Students can also improve their communication skills as they learn to save stories for an audience, and present their ideas and knowledge individually in a meaningful frame.

Although it may seem that most of the time is spent on technology at the beginning, some students understand that they will be authors of their own stories. Students may have the chance of critiquing their own and other students' work. This action in turn may contribute to the development of emotional intelligence, cooperation, and social learning.

Another issue that digital storytelling has some influences is improving writing skills through script writing and typing storyboards. It also maintains student engagement and reflection in the process. Some of the studies in the area confirm the usefulness of writing digital stories in developing writing skills of students (Foley, 2013; Smeda, Dakich and Sharda, 2014; Shelby-Caffey, Úbéda, and Jenkins (2014). They also reported that digital storytelling improved students' confidence and enhanced their social and psychological skills.

Sharing their work with their peers and with other viewers gives the students a chance of transmission of what they think about a specific topic, what they have learnt about an issue, and how they feel for an event that they experienced in the past. It can also promote their self emotionally and socially. Interaction and empathy develop in parallel with their interest in the social life. Students with diverse learning styles can feel more secure while engaging in digital storytelling.

As technology keeps on developing, integration of the technological applications for more successful teaching and learning environment increases respectively. Whereas traditional literacy involved the use of written materials such as books and worksheets; literacy in the 21st century requires literacy in reading e-books, receiving and sending e-mails, getting a line on online information, prepare and present work on software programmes, etc. Brown, Bryan and Brown (2005) have defined some skills what we call as 'Twenty-first century literacy' which not only refers to being literate in reading and writing but also being able to use technology, media, and visual arts.

- Digital Literacy – the ability to communicate with an ever-expanding community to discuss issues, gather information, and seek help;
- Global Literacy - the capacity to read, interpret, respond, and contextualize messages from a global perspective
- Technology Literacy - the ability to use computers and other technology to improve learning, productivity, and performance;
- Visual Literacy - the ability to understand, produce and communicate through visual images;
- Information Literacy - the ability to find, evaluate and synthesize information.

While producing a work of digital storytelling, the students improve their skills in using software dealing with text, images, audio, video and soundtrack, in using some digital devices such as scanner, digital camera, video recorder and converter. Moreover, students can improve their skills in music occupying themselves with microphones, audio, and sound effects. Thus, designing digital stories improve certain literacy skills of learners including:

- Research Skills: Documenting the story, finding and analyzing pertinent information;
- Writing Skills: Formulating a point of view and developing a script;
- Organization Skills: Managing the scope of the project, the materials used and the time it takes to complete the task;
- Technology Skills: learning to use a variety of tools, such as digital cameras, scanners, microphones and multimedia authoring software;
- Presentation Skills: Deciding how to best present the story to an audience;
- Interview Skills: Finding sources to interview and determining questions to ask;
- Interpersonal Skills: Working within a group and determining individual roles for group members;
- Problem-Solving Skills: Learning to make decisions and overcome obstacles at all stages of the project, from inception to completion; and
- Assessment Skills: Gaining expertise critiquing their own and others' work.

What are some Challenges to Students Creating their own Digital Stories?

There may be some challenges in the application of digital storytelling for students and teachers. Firstly, an unsuccessful storytelling would turn out to be a failure in digital storytelling. Some students may have some problems on how to create a digital story. Thus, students may get extra help from different resources that introduces effective techniques of investigating, analysing information, finding solutions and using technological devices needed. Secondly, the story producers need to be respectful for copyright and careful about privacy. Some photos may require permission from the owner and some people may not want to be shown or mentioned in a story. Some schools may also have some restrictions on the use of tools through filtering some of the programmes, while some may provide free service for students. Hence, the teacher should provide necessary information on the use and inform students about what they are allowed to do or not.

In order to prevent such troubles as copyright infringement, etc., it is recommended that students had better create their own content. They can take photos with a digital camera and they can record their own audio narration and video. There are also a variety of websites that permit users to utilize their content of media freely. While surfing on the net, students can learn to check on the usage rights of the websites and obtain free materials from the net.

Another important potential for digital stories is that they can be misused. Personal information, photos, or video clips can be end up on the internet, be copied and used illegally. Hence, students need to be informed about the issue by the teacher.

Students may be inexperienced at the beginning in how to create a digital story. Teachers need to consider in digital storytelling is that students who begin to create a digital storytelling may have to undertake several attempts to complete a whole digital narrative. The teacher can inform the students on not to give in and proceed every step carefully and painstakingly.

The application of digital storytelling in Foreign Language Classes

The use of digital storytelling in foreign language classes serves as a teaching tool that provides learners with practice in learning basic skills. A didactic aim is forwarded and students learn in a social, interesting, motivating, technology integrated classroom taking active participation during the process. Utilizing interdisciplinary technology by incorporating writing, reading, drama, and technology, digital Storytelling can be regarded as project based instruction providing opportunities for learner to deal with real life tasks that enables self-construction of meaning in order to personalize instruction (Jonassen, Peck, & Wilson, 1999).

Application in Language Classes

In foreign language classes, digital storytelling takes its place as a multidisciplinary practice that improves certain skills in foreign language teaching with the integration of technology as a modern application of the new era. Digital storytelling is considered project-based learning, following the premises of task-based language teaching with the use of multiliteracy approach in foreign language learning. Thus, it can be conceived as 'a distinctive and motivational technology motivated task' since digital storytelling involves micro tasks which form an artifact-the project- when connected together.

The application of digital storytelling can both afford multiple benefits to the learner and enhance their language learning process. Some of the studies concluded that experiencing

digital storytelling increases students' perceptions of their self-efficacy in completing a task in foreign language classes. Thus digital storytelling in foreign language classes can be regarded as a means to provide students with a project that enables the practice of 21st century skills.

Digital narratives contribute to the learners' development of digital competence. It not only develops foreign language learning skills, but also promotes conditions for the development of cognitive, social, and technological skills of students. Allowing L2 learners to express themselves in an emotional and thoughtful way, digital storytelling can be a favourable practice in foreign language classes.

Ten principles of digital storytelling

While getting prepared for the implementation of a digital storytelling, teachers need to consider the following principles which were suggested in order to contribute to students' foreign language learning context. these principles are simply called as 'I AM TOP CAMP' *(Interactive-Authentic-Meaningful-Technological-Organized-Productive-Collaborative-Appealing-Motivating Personalized.*

1.	Interactive	student(s)-student(s), student(s)-teacher interaction is possible
2.	Authentic	Creating and sharing personal-but meaningful stories
3.	Meaningful	Telling real stories that keeps the attention of the audience.
4.	Technological	Opportunity in gaining experience in technology use.
5.	Organized	Organising stories by creating, editing, adding, and deleting.
6.	Productive	Producing their own narratives related with the purpose of the story.
7.	Collaborative	Sharing with each other
8.	Appealing	Students' desire, motivation, engagement, and achievement is essential.
9.	Motivating	Increasing motivation
10.	Personalized	Being a part of the narrative's life, feelings, thoughts, and past experiences.

The studies conducted in the area of digital storytelling revealed noteworthy findings on its effectiveness in foreign language teaching. some of the studies revealed that it had positive effects on the improvement of students' reading ability, making the students engaged in the content of the story not only by promoting motivation and interest, but also by providing confidence in learning English. It is also reported that digital storytelling brought a sense of satisfaction, motivation, and confidence to students for learning the target language for communication. It was also observed that taking active part in classes, the students had a deeper understanding of the context. It was also reported that students in a foreign language classes can be provided with powerful literacy learning opportunities through digital storytelling (Ohler, 2006; Sadik, 2008).

The theme in a digital story is more influential when it has a personal touch on the viewers. This condition carried out by a digital story impacts viewers emotionally, causing them to feel empathetic. When the viewers find a piece from their own life or feelings in the narration, then it is possible to state that the story is impressive regarding the sense of the audience.

There are some factors that teachers need to consider while designing classes with digital storytelling. Using digital stories as effective tools in foreign language classes should always be based on the curriculum. Apart from biographical digital narratives, the stories can be related to a content topic within the core of the target language. These stories can be about historical events or about literature. It is suggested that the narratives be told in the first person and optionally in

the third person. Another important factor in foreign language classes is that contextualisation should be one of the purposes of digital stories which helps students understand the content more easily. Making students engaged in the content of the story, digital storytelling both promotes motivation and interest of learners and provides confidence in learning a foreign language.

Digital story telling not only adds to the literary development in foreign language learning, but also development students' skills in using the technology. In foreign language classes students have the opportunity to express their creativity dealing with sounds, music, graphics, images, and animations while creating and presenting a digital narrative.

Digital storytelling helps students gain social and cognitive development through collaboration and cooperation in the foreign language classes. In addition, it is expected that a foreign language learner can develop his/her listening and speaking skills as well as vocabulary enhancement (Kajder, 2006).

A teacher who will implement a digital storytelling process need to have the following requirements as having adequate knowledge about the content, skills of using technology and applying pedagogy. The focus should be on the intersection between these three (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). In other words, the teacher should be able to combine these elements for an effective leading for the students and the process of digital storytelling (Norman, 2011).

It is suggested that the procedure that will be held in the implementation of digital storytelling in foreign language teaching should follow the seven steps proposed by Robin (2006). The process should start with the definition of a point of view, then a dramatic question, writing an emotional content, gift of the students' voice, adding music and other effects, and using adequate content in a definite pace. At the end the digital narrative can be played for an audience to give information about a person, a historical event or a definite topic related to the curriculum.

Contributions of Digital Storytelling in Improving Speaking and Writing Skills of Foreign Language Learners

Essentially digital storytelling can contribute to all skills in foreign language teaching. Digital storytelling involves the combination of all skills in foreign language learning-reading, writing, listening, and speaking- thus students have the opportunity to practice these skills depending on the part of the digital story they are dealing with. The process of digital storytelling which involves working with technology and digital media, struggles on composing written texts for stories and presentation can foster literacy, practice in foreign language learning skills and 21st century skills. Practically, it improves students' writing skills in L2 while writing narrative scripts and speaking skills while narrating the story.

Making a written narrative at the first step has several advantages. Students can practice and develop their writing skills. Writing also spurs reflection that is so important to encourage in digital storytelling. A written narrative can be an artefact to be used for assessment purposes, either for the teacher or peer assessment.

It is reported that oral practices through storytelling improves speech and oral communication skills (Harriet & Martin, 2004). The interactive environment in the implementation of digital storytelling encourages students to talk, and discuss with each other. They also use other

communicative signs such as facial expression, gestures, and emotions. They feel self-confident in expressing themselves through stories.

Verbal proficiency is a favourable feat which relies upon the struggle of students for communicating effectively and fluently. Students need to use language meaningfully. Narrating stories in the target language necessitates Intermediate and Advanced level language functions which causes learners to engage in the presentational mode of communication in order to narrate their stories in a digital environment for an audience of peers. Digital storytelling lends itself perfectly to the use of speaking and writing skills with a combination of technological use.

Digital storytelling influences the students' intellectual, social and emotional development positively. Engaged in storytelling, students learn to learn, to participate in, and to understand narrative discourse especially improving their writing and speaking (Mallan,1992). Thus the integration of digital storytelling is highly recommended depending on the fact that telling stories 'increase pragmatic oral skills, the ability to use language in specific contexts for specific purposes leading to greater ability to write' (Brice,2004). Digital storytelling not only enables students to practice language in an expressive manner, but they also engage in real-world communication.

Discussion

Stories are narrated in order to give information about a person, historical event or a definite theme. Hence, stories in education are used for the same purposes however with a specific aim to make the topic more comprehensible. Digital storytelling is a new practice that has evolved as a way to transmit information via technological applications. Both the teacher and the students can design digital stories with a narrative told and saved by the help of pictures, photographs, music, effects, and videos. A teacher who will integrate digital stories into the classes need to have adequate technical and practical knowledge and experience about the process. If a teacher gives creating digital stories as a task for his/her students, he/she needs to inform students about the process. The students may be novice at the beginning and they may need guidance and instruction. It may seem that students will spend most of the time dealing with technology in order to create a digital story however, they will feel that they are the authors of their own stories. In the process of a digital story, the thing that should be focused on is the content of the story, rather than the technology. When the digital story is completed, it can be uploaded to related websites for more people to watch, share, leave a comment and give feedback about the story in order to shape the final product. The story is also presented to real audiences when the digital story is completed.

When created by students, digital storytelling is a constructivist learner-based approach requiring students to be active asking questions, making investigations, writing narrative scripts, editing the stories, revising, using technology and narrating the stories with suitable media such as photos, musical effects, or/and videos. Digital storytelling has many benefits in education. It maintains active engagement of the students, motivating them and developing their self-efficacy and empathy for others. It also provides students with a social, collaborative, interactive, and communicative environment for learning. Students are observed to be willing and proud of creating and sharing their own stories. Practicing digital storytelling is reported to improve literary skills referred as 21st century literary skills which are categorised as digital, global, technology, visual and information literacy. In digital storytelling, students are expected to comprehend the topic meaningfully.

Digital storytelling can be applied to many fields of content in education. In foreign language teaching, narrating stories has many benefits in association with developing language learning skills. Creating digital stories in the target language requires writing and speaking skills with the help of technology. Students' multiple speech draft recordings may enhance their awareness of speaking skills. It both improves students' language skills and technology use. During designing the written script, the students forms the narrative and can get feedback from the teacher before narrating it orally. The practice of writing narratives improves writing skills of students learning a foreign language. When they are to present the narrative orally, they may need to read the written script for many times. Thus, a process of creating digital storytelling improves writing and speaking skills of L2 learners.

Last, but not least it is highly recommended that teachers apply digital storytelling in order to design a learning environment that encourages students for active engagement in the classes, motivates students for learning, and presents a learner-centred and product oriented opportunity.

Once confined to desktop computers or laptops, now it is possible to create digital stories on mobile devices and web-based digital tools such as tablets, smart phones that can be used easily both by teachers and students. moreover, digital stories can be shared online with other people all around the world. As technology develops, the integration of digital storytelling into the classes will develop respectively. It is also expected that the prevalence of the use of digital storytelling in foreign language classes can promote further insights in how digital storytelling improves foreign language learning.

A SAMPLE OF A DIGITAL STORY NARRATIVE

The Way that Took me to an English Flower Garden

It was years ago that I first saw a group tourists who passed near my hometown. They usually stopped over the fountain for a break in their journey through Cappadocia to view the fairy chimneys that I had never seen before. The tourists wore different clothes, they had cameras and took photos around, gave us candies and spoke an incomprehensible language(s). I used to observe them as different faces completed a certain routine in front of the fountain every time. Thinking about their different way of communication, I just wanted to understand what they say and also be able to speak like them.

It was the first time that I met a foreign language class when I started 6th grade. I liked English, I enjoyed it and did my best to learn it as much as possible. When I started high school, I improved my English. As the season of tourists setting off for Cappadocia approached, I used to come across many tourists from Europe. Surprised at their different nationalities and ability to speak English, I found out that English was a lingua franca. The tourists were friendly, enjoyable, warm and kind. Then it became a hobby for me to communicate with them. I used to ask if they needed any help and whether they liked my country. We also talked about their country, work, and family. They took photos again and sent them back to my address sometimes with a few notes and sometimes with a few pages of letters. It was the summer that I got into English Language Department at the university when an owner of a hotel offered me to work as a tourist guide in her office. I had to refuse her request since I was about to realise my next dream: To become an English language teacher.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF VOCABULARY BOX IN THE ENGLISH PREPARATORY SCHOOL PROGRAM

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This mixed-methods study focuses on keeping a vocabulary box in ELT context. It also aims to explore the experiences and perceptions of adult learners at a preparatory school where *vocabulary box* was integrated into English classes. The data were obtained from 22 English preparatory school students studying at a private university in the Fall Term of 2016-2017 Academic Year. The findings indicate that the students were able to recognize *in-box* vocabulary items more than the *out of box vocabulary* items in the summative type of assessment. Moreover, the vocabulary box enabled students to retain the targeted vocabulary items easily as well as sustaining attention throughout class sessions.

Keywords: English Language Teaching, Vocabulary Teaching, Vocabulary Box, Vocabulary Recognition

İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK SINIFINDA KELİME KUTUSU KULLANIMI

Karma yöntemli bu çalışma İngiliz dili eğitiminde kelime kutusu kullanma odaklı olup hazırlık okulundaki yetişkin öğrencilerin kelime kutusu kullanımı ile ilgili deneyim ve görüşlerini ele alır. Veriler, 2016-2017 Güz döneminde, bir vakıf üniversitesi hazırlık sınıfında İngilizce eğitimi alan 22 öğrenciden elde edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, öğrencilerin sonuç değerlendirmede kutu içerisindeki kelimeleri kutuda olmayan kelimelere göre daha çok tanıdığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, kelime kutusu öğrencilerin hedef kelimeleri unutmamalarına zemin oluşturmuş ve kelime çalışmalarına önem vermelerini sağlamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Yabancı Dilde Kelime Öğretimi, Yabancı Dilde Kelime Öğrenimi, Kelime Hazine Kutusu

Introduction

As an ongoing process, vocabulary learning in English had been neglected for many years until the mid-eighties and it was thought that vocabulary had a poor relation of second language learning and teaching. However, the aspect of language teaching has changed remarkably and focus on vocabulary has appreciated. Wilkins (1972) mentions "While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p.111). So as to mention the importance of the vocabulary, Barcroft (2004) emphasizes the ability of using a language properly and fluently is based on grammatical knowledge and words and/or combination of words obtained over a period of time. It can be concluded that a good amount of vocabulary can convey the meaning with very few grammatical structures.

Due to changing world, needs and technology, English language teaching methods have been changed over years. By means of changing language learning and teaching methods, vocabulary teaching has changed its direction over many years. Kojic-Sabo (1997) expresses although acquisition of new words was thought as necessary in language learning, vocabulary studies were not adequate and just focused in the classrooms. Moreover, Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1979) depict students can acquire new vocabulary items from the context during the lesson.

Language learning strategies and vocabulary learning

There are various definitions for Language Learning Strategies (LLS). Oxford (2001) defines LLS as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information, specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (p. 166). With reference to Marefat and Ahmadishirazi (2003) learning strategies should be included in curriculum and teachers should help students on the strategies.

Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) may have an effect on learning vocabulary items. Dörnyei (2005) argues that language learners' beliefs about vocabulary learning have a crucial effect on mastering the target language. Zengin-Ünal (2015) also points language learners use vocabulary learning strategies in order to get the meaning of unknown words, store those words in long-term memory and use them both in oral and written form of the target language.

As language learning is a process, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) form a strategies-list including three categories and they are metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective. In view of Grenfell and Harris (1999), metacognitive strategies focus on language and learning process, cognitive strategies are based on both acquisition process and production of a language, and social-affective strategies deal social contexts, emotion and affection in language learning.

Gu and Johnson (1996) divide second language learning strategies into four; metacognitive strategies including identifying words to comprehend and using various explanations to make meaning clear, cognitive strategies based on background knowledge and linguistics structures, memory strategies including repetition and association, and activation strategies related to using new words in various contexts.

In the study based on similarities and differences between low and high achievers on using VLS by Bonsa and Wolde-Mariam (2014) the results reveal that high achievers use memorization strategies more than low achievers and many of the high achievers utilize cognitive strategies. Additionally, the list based on vocabulary learning strategies of high achievers conceive they utilize marking the new words, guessing the meaning and reading instructions to get the meaning of a new word.

Cognitive strategies contain language control or transform so they focus on mental process. As Zengin-Ünal (2015) indicates keeping vocabulary notebooks and repetition are examples of cognitive strategies. Since using a vocabulary box is related to both vocabulary notebook and repetition, it may be associated with cognitive strategies.

Vocabulary box

Language learners start to be familiar with the target language by learning vocabulary items. It may be concluded that vocabulary recognition has a crucial role in language learning process. One of the ways to foster vocabulary recognition is utilization of a vocabulary box.

There is no clear definition of what a vocabulary box is, it is used in some classes so as to encourage vocabulary learning, though. Cunningham (2003) emphasizes a vocabulary box may be used any time to revise vocabulary items. Vocabulary box may be related to both metacognitive and memory strategy of Gu and Johnson (1996). While vocabulary notes in the box enables explanations and example sentences to make meaning more clear, its utilization in the class helps learners to recognise and memorize vocabulary items.

Smith, Stahl and Neil (1987) compare the differences among vocabulary learning based on only definition, definition-sentence together and definition-sentence-picture; and indicate that statistically there is a significant difference between definition-only group and definition-sentence-picture group. It may be concluded that language learners need more details about a vocabulary item to grasp the meaning. Although pictures were not used in the vocabulary box in this study, the definition and example sentences in the vocabulary notes could be a guide for the students to recognize vocabulary items.

In their study, Lawson and Hogben (1997) investigate to what extent language learners utilize elaborate strategies in addition to repetition and classify the strategies as repetition, word feature analysis, simple elaboration and complex elaboration. The results show that students use the repetition in about two thirds of the opportunities, and repetition was mostly used by many learners. So as to avoid repetition in traditional ways, vocabulary box may be used as a stimulant to deal with targeted vocabulary.

This study aims to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. Does keeping a vocabulary box in class affect recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge of English language learners on written exams at tertiary level?
2. If yes, what are the effects of keeping a vocabulary box in class on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge of English language learners on written exams at tertiary level?
3. What are the views of English language learners at tertiary level concerning the negative and/or positive effects of keeping a vocabulary box on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge on written exams?

Methodology

Participants

The study was conducted with 22 preparatory school students from different departments of Çağ University, one of the private universities in Mersin, Turkey in the Fall Term of 2016-2017

Academic Year. All the students in the class got into the university depending on the results of *Higher Education Examination* (YGS), the first exam held for transition to higher education, and *Undergraduate Placement Examination* (LYS), the second exam in which the students passing the first examination take part to get into a university. Both YGS and LYS are held by the *Students Selection and Placement Centre* (OSYM) in Turkey at the end of each academic year. The total number of female students was 10 and the number of male students was 12. Their age ranged between 18 and 26. All the participants were in the same class and their level of proficiency in English was A1 Level according to *Common European Framework* (CEFR). Their level was determined through the placement test prepared and held by Çağ University Preparatory School. The placement test included parallel item types with *Foreign Language Exam* (YDS) such as grammar, vocabulary and reading questions; and all the items were in multiple choice format.

For this research, 22 participants were chosen since this was the number of the students in the class which one of the researchers has been lecturing. While choosing the participants, convenient sampling was used. Marshall (1996) expresses convenience sampling "is the least rigorous technique, involving the selection of the most accessible subjects" (p.523).

Context

Vocabulary box. The vocabulary box in the class was created by the English instructor/ researcher. It involves English vocabulary notes including word classes, word definitions (retrieved from an online monolingual dictionary or defined by the instructor), sample sentences (generally based on course book), and semantic relations of the targeted words. *In box* vocabulary items were the ones which exist in the box although *out of box* items did not exist in the box. *In box* vocabulary items were chosen by the instructor based on the students' questions. Although both *in box* and *out of box* items were discussed in the class, *in box* items were more available for students to review/repeat since they were in the class most of the time.

The vocabulary box was formed at the beginning of the semester and new vocabulary items about the course book were added every week. The instructor informed the students whenever she put a new item into the box. When a topic was related to the words in the box, the instructor asked the definition of vocabulary items or asked example sentences about a vocabulary item in order to trigger their schematic knowledge. The vocabulary box was also used as a time filler activity when there existed extra time.

The vocabulary box was placed on the instructor's desk. The students could always access to the vocabulary box; it was accessible in the class on the lessons, during the break and after/ before the lessons. The students were allowed to take photos of the English vocabulary notes if they wanted to review or list the words to reinforce their learning. However, they were not permitted to use the vocabulary box during the written exams.

The vocabulary box was integrated in the lessons as a classroom routine or a taboo game. The classroom routine was decided and shared with the students at the beginning of the semester. The classroom routine lasted 5 minutes each session and the aim was to enable students recognize course book based vocabulary items by using the vocabulary box. In the end of each session, the teacher randomly chose vocabulary notes from the box and asked students what the vocabulary item was by reading definition of items. The classroom routine also helped students to actively use the box during their free time. Additionally, the class played taboo with

vocabulary notes one lesson every week. The game was not real taboo because the students had beginner level of English, so there were not banned words as they are in taboo cards. In class taboo game, each student had three minutes and 10 vocabulary notes randomly chosen from the box. Their aim was to explain their classmates as many words as possible without using definition and example sentences on the notes. The student who explained the most vocabulary items were the winner of the week and won a small present for his/her success.

Course book. The participating learners studied an A1 and an A2 EFL course book. The students are supposed to use A1, A2, B1 and B1+ student's book for two semesters. As their level was beginner, they started with A1 course book. They finished A1 course book on 8th of November and started A2 course book on 9th of November 2016. As this study was conducted until the second monthly exam, the vocabulary items and written exams evaluated were only based on A1 and some units of A2 course books.

Courses. English language learners at the university have 20 hours of course book lessons in addition to four hours of listening and speaking, and four hours of reading and writing lessons in a week during fall semester. As course book lessons are 20 hours, they are shared by two instructors called partners. The partners use the same course book and they follow each other unit by unit. Although some units were not taught by the first course book instructor, who is also the researcher and organizer of the vocabulary box, the vocabulary items of these units were also added in the vocabulary box.

Written exams. There are two types of written exams at the university, one of them is monthly exam and the other one is pop quiz.

Monthly exams are held every month and there are three monthly exams in a semester. The dates of the monthly exams are announced at the very beginning of the semester. They are evaluated out of 100 scale rubric and they include listening, reading, writing skills and course book parts involving a vocabulary part.

There are six pop quizzes for course book in a semester, yet students are not informed about the dates of any pop quiz. The number of the pop quizzes is declared at the beginning of the semester. They are also assessed out of 100 scale rubric and they include general questions, grammar and vocabulary activities based on course book units.

Data collection tools

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were necessary in order to make statistical generalizations and get personal opinions about effects of using a vocabulary box on course book-based vocabulary recognition. The quantitative data were collected in the form of written exam vocabulary parts (quizzes and monthly exams) and qualitative data were obtained through an open ended questionnaire and a focus group interview.

Written exams. The vocabulary parts in the written exams included vocabulary questions in the form of filling the blanks and vocabulary items in the exams were all based on the course book. Pop quizzes lasted 50 minutes and monthly exams lasted one and a half hour.

Questionnaire. The questionnaire utilized in the study included open-ended questions to get students' views about using the vocabulary box. Inui, Murata, Uchimoto and Isahara (2001) state open-ended questionnaires have attracted notice as they obtain free opinions from respondents.

The questionnaire had a part at the beginning explaining shortly and clearly the research topic and aim of the study. The contact information of the researcher was given in this part. The

participants were informed that they should feel free to skip the questions for any reason if they did not volunteer to reply. It was also mentioned that the study is on a basis and the identities of the participants will be kept confidential.

The students started filling the questionnaire after reading the consent form located at the beginning of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered by hand in the class and it took around 15-20 minutes to fill out.

Focus group interview. The focus group interview was conducted with six students outside the class setting so that they could share their ideas about the vocabulary box in a more comfortable and informal environment. It enabled the students to brainstorm and explain their ideas in a more detailed way as they had a chance to agree or disagree about the effects of utilizing the vocabulary box. Kitzinger (1995) indicates this kind of interview is useful not only to obtain knowledge and experience of participants but also how and why they think in that way.

Design and procedure

In this study, mixed-methods research was used. As Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012) state, mixed method research can help researchers to explain and clarify relationship existing variables, investigate the relationship in a detailed way and verify relationship between variables.

The quantitative data were obtained from five written exams which were two monthly exams and three pop quizzes. The qualitative data were collected through the open-ended questionnaire and the focus group interview. They were conducted after the second monthly exam so that students could use the vocabulary box more.

Data analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from the participants. By using the open-ended questionnaire and focus group interview, descriptive results were obtained. Content analysis was used to analyse the data from the questionnaire and interview since it enables to classify many words as fewer categories. Content analysis is a kind of research method utilizing various procedures so as to get inferences from text (Weber, 1990).

The open-ended questionnaire and focus group interview were applied in this study as they could show more detailed results. In the questionnaire, the students were able to answer the questions with their own ideas so the answers were more subjective and personal. The group interview conducted in the study enabled the participants to talk more about the vocabulary box and share their thoughts about it. Moreover, it provided the students with opportunity of various ideas and it resulted in classroom discussion and brainstorming.

While transcribing the data of the questionnaire and group interview, member checking and colleague support were utilized. Koelsch (2013) defines member checking as enabling a participant to determine whether the researcher reports what s/he mentions or not. So as to increase validity and reliability of the study, the researchers made use of member checking. Moreover, the researchers and another departmental colleague worked together in theme coding process in order to sustain reliability of the data.

The quantitative data were attained from vocabulary parts of the written exams. In order to analyse quantitative data, Microsoft Excel and graphs were utilized. Therefore, it was realized which vocabulary items were recognized by the students in the exams and those vocabulary items were compared in terms of their being *in box* or *out of* the box.

Ethical considerations

All the participants were given a consent form and informed at the beginning of the study that they had a right not to participate in the study and participation was voluntary. The participants were informed about confidentiality of their participation in the study and their identities. Moreover, they were explained that they had a right to leave the study, quit responding the questionnaire or taking part in the focus group interview at any time they desired.

So as to prevent possible research bias, member checking and colleague support were utilized. To classify themes in the open-ended questionnaire, the researchers collaborated with other colleagues to avoid any kind of subjectivity.

Findings and discussion

In this study, the vocabulary parts of the five written exams were analysed so as to get responses to the research questions of the study. Therefore, bar and line graphs were used in order to explain the recognition rate of the students in a detailed way. As a result, findings of this research indicated that the rate of *in box* and *out of box* vocabulary recognition of the students on the written exams were different from each other. Furthermore, the perspectives of the students about using a vocabulary box in class were presented in detail in this section.

Vocabulary recognition rate

Laufer and Shmueli (1997) mention long-term memory can be affected by frequent exposure although it is not certain how many times and/or how often a learner should be exposed to a new word. The vocabulary parts in the students' written exams were analysed in order to find out whether utilizing a vocabulary box in class affects recognition of course book based vocabulary knowledge. The results displayed the students were able to recognize *in box* vocabulary items slightly more than *out of* vocabulary items on the written exams in general (See Figure 1). The results of this study were in parallel to the one by Laufer and Shmueli (1997) concluding words in the box could be kept in language learners' long-term memory due to exposure to the target language.

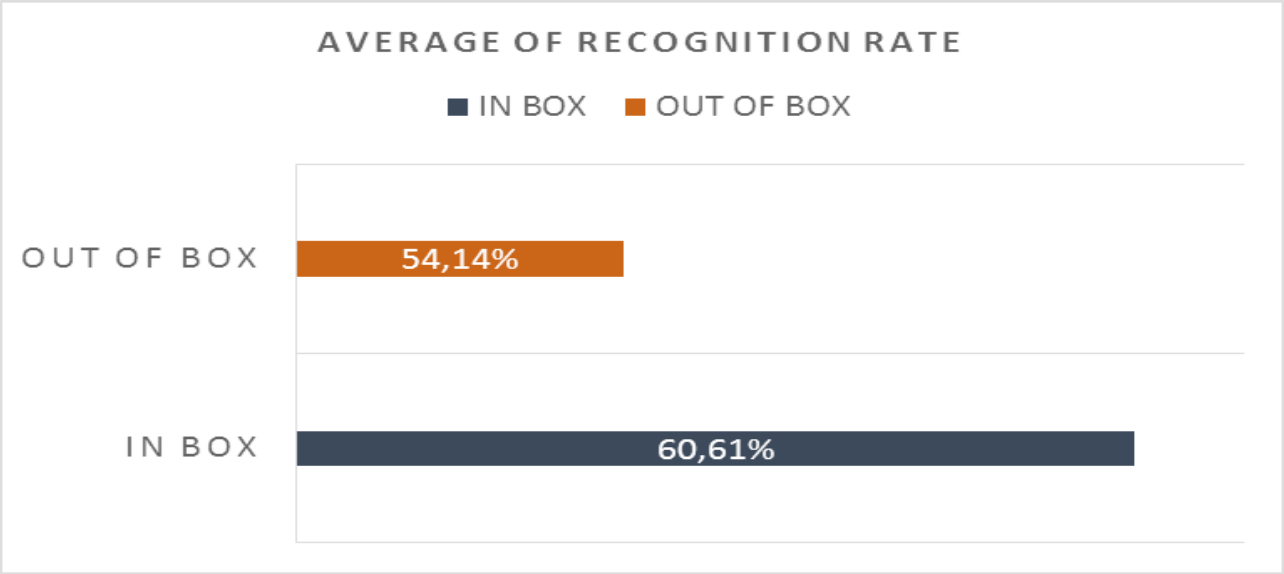

Figure 1. Average of vocabulary recognition rate.

Pop quiz I. In the first pop quiz, the students were asked to write the antonym of the targeted adjectives. The average score for vocabulary part was 3.46 out of five scale rubric. The recognition rate was the highest for the word *big,* yet the rate was the lowest for the word *wrong*. Since all the adjectives asked in the quiz were *in box* items, there was no possibility to compare *in box* or *out of box* vocabulary items. The recognition rate was 69.52% for vocabulary in general (See Figure 2). The study of Hulstijn, Hollander and Greidanus (1996) infer that incidental learning occurs more if students have an access to word meanings via glosses or dictionaries and in line with their study, the recognition rate of the participants in this study would improve when they accessed the target vocabulary more.

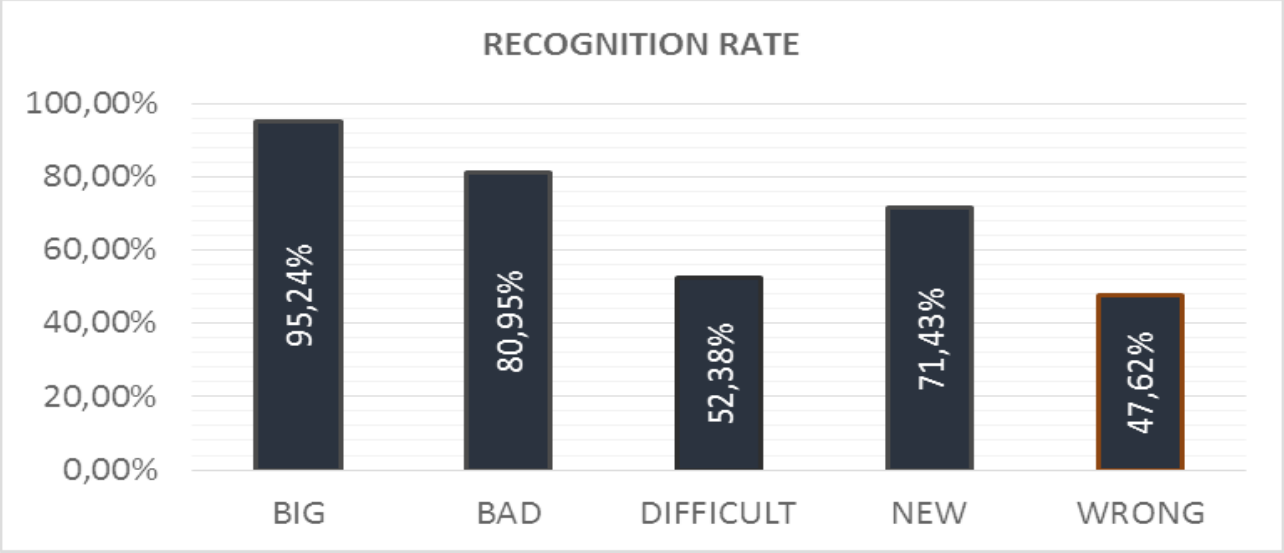

Figure 2. Vocabulary recognition rate of the pop quiz I.

Monthly exam I. In the exam, the students were asked to complete 10 fill-in-the-blank type of questions with the words given above the sentences. The average score for vocabulary was 4.52 out of six scale assessment rubric. All the students were able to fill the in box vocabulary items (İn box should be written in italic) *village* and *wake up* correctly in the sentences while the recognition rate was the lowest for the words *wind* and *windy* which were *out of* the box (See Figure 3).

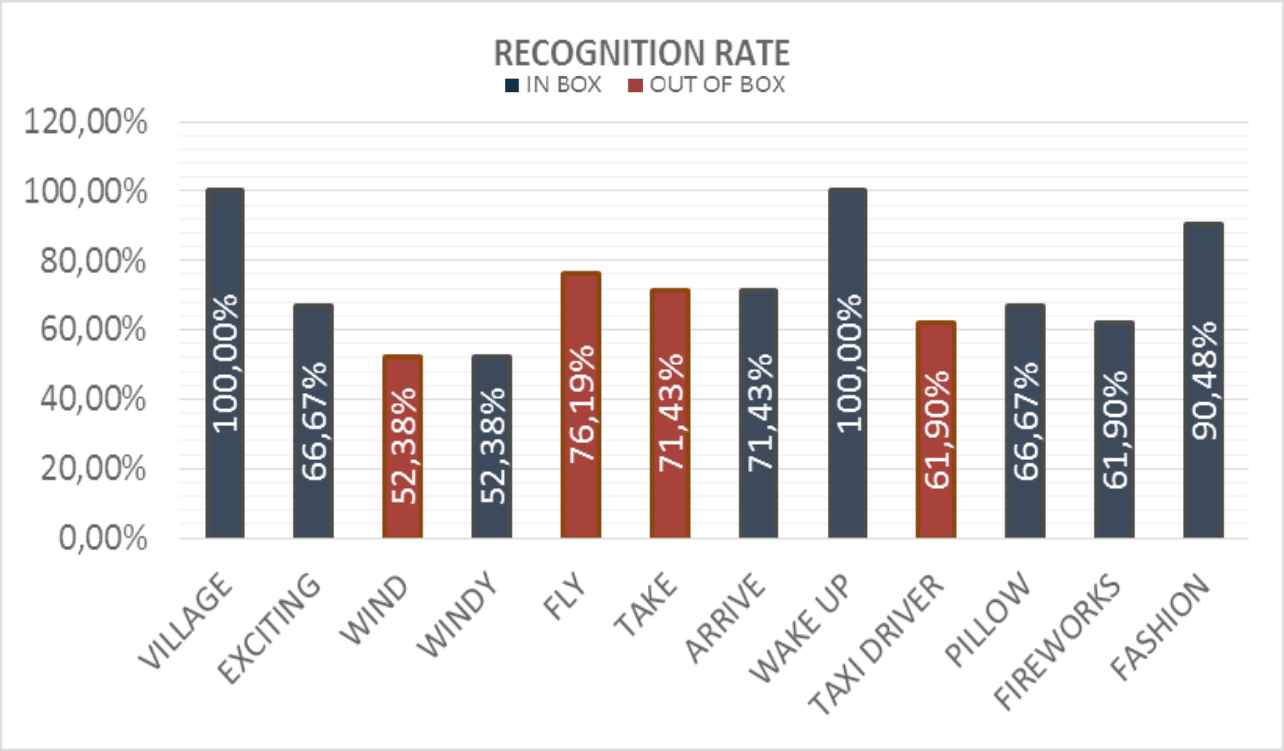

Figure 3. Vocabulary recognition rate of the monthly exam I.

The monthly exam scores revealed that the students were able to recognize 76.19% of *in box* vocabulary whereas the rate was 65.48% for *out of box* vocabulary items. The students' vocabulary recognition indicated they were able to recognize *in-box* vocabulary more than *out of box* ones in the exam (See Figure 4). Gu (2003) refers that vocabulary rehearsal is necessary and important to utilize different repetition strategies and it may be said that the vocabulary box enabled the students to review the vocabulary items when they needed.

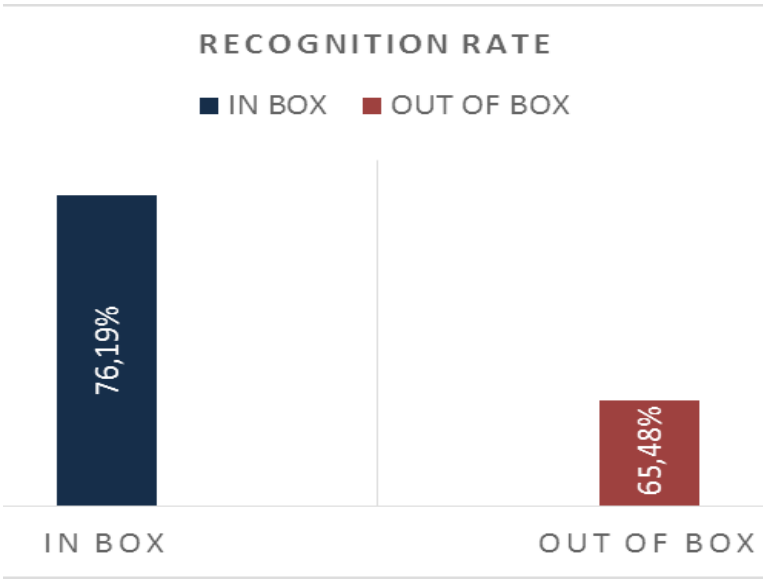

Figure 4. Comparison for vocabulary recognition of the monthly exam I.

Pop quiz II. In the second pop quiz, the students were asked to complete 10 fill-in-the-blank type of questions with the words given above the sentences. The average score for vocabulary was 6.54 out of 10 scale rubric. The recognition rate was the highest for the word *rainy*, an *in*

box vocabulary but the rate was the lowest for the word *stayed*, also another *in box* vocabulary (See Figure 5).

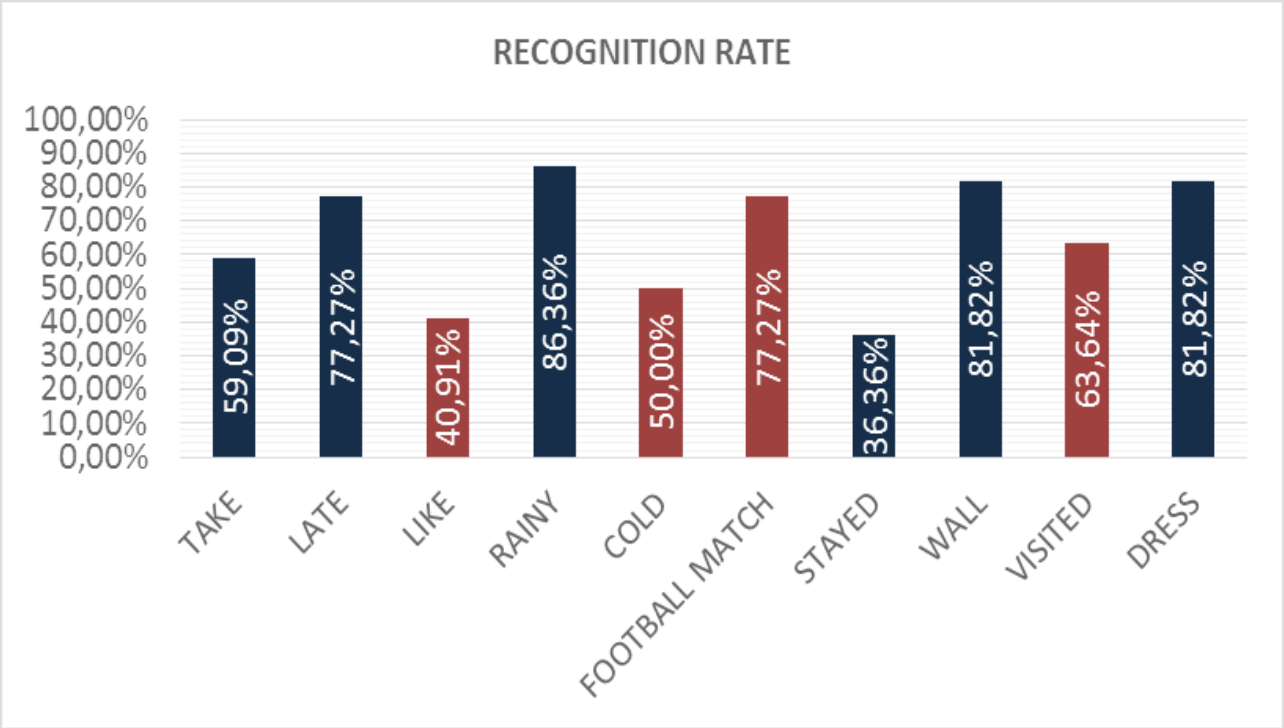

Figure 5. Vocabulary recognition rate of the pop quiz II.

The exam scores depicted that the students were able to recognize 63.64% of *in box* vocabulary. However, the rate was 67.27% for *out of box* vocabulary items. The students' vocabulary recognition revealed they were able to recognize *out of* vocabulary items more than *in box* ones in the exam (See Figure 6). Oxford and Scarcella (1994) demonstrate although word lists help language learners to memorize vocabulary items, learners possibly forget the words on the list more quickly and the results showed that the students could recognize the *in box* vocabulary items less in that exam.

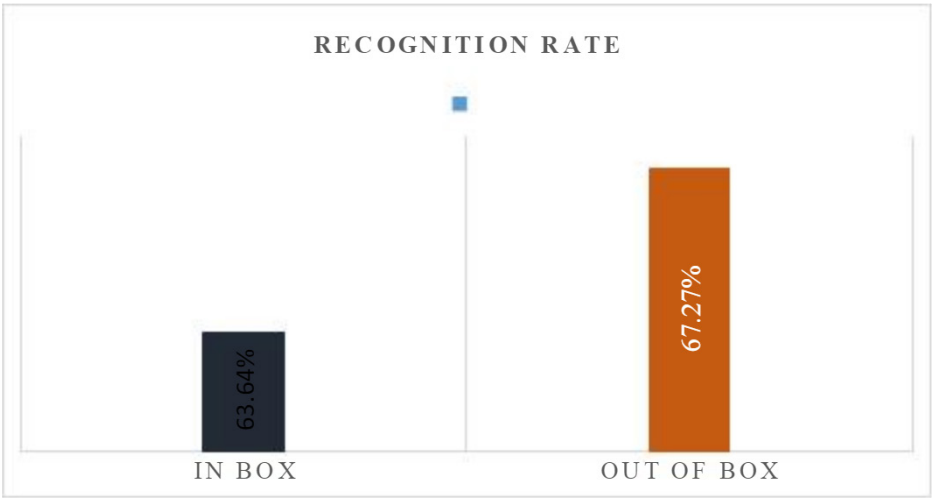

Figure 6. Comparison for vocabulary recognition of the pop quiz II.

Pop quiz III. In the third pop quiz, the students were asked to complete 15 fill-in-the-blank type of questions with the words given above the sentences. The average score for vocabulary was 7.38 out of 15 scale rubric. The recognition rate was the highest for the word *born,* an *in box* vocabulary although the rate was the lowest for *quite,* also existing in the box (See Figure 7).

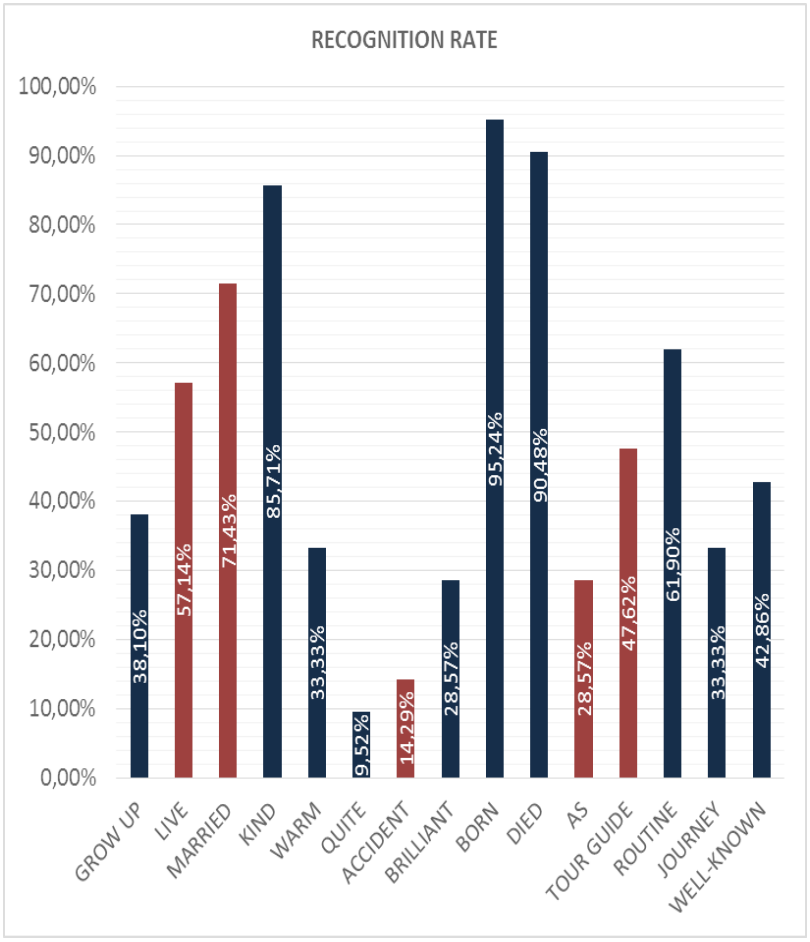

Figure 7. Vocabulary recognition rate of the pop quiz III.

The exam scores demonstrated that the students were able to recognize 51.90% of *in box* vocabulary, yet the rate was 43.81% for *out of box* vocabulary items. It can be concluded that the students were able to recognize *in box* vocabulary items more than *out of* box items in the exam (See Figure 8).

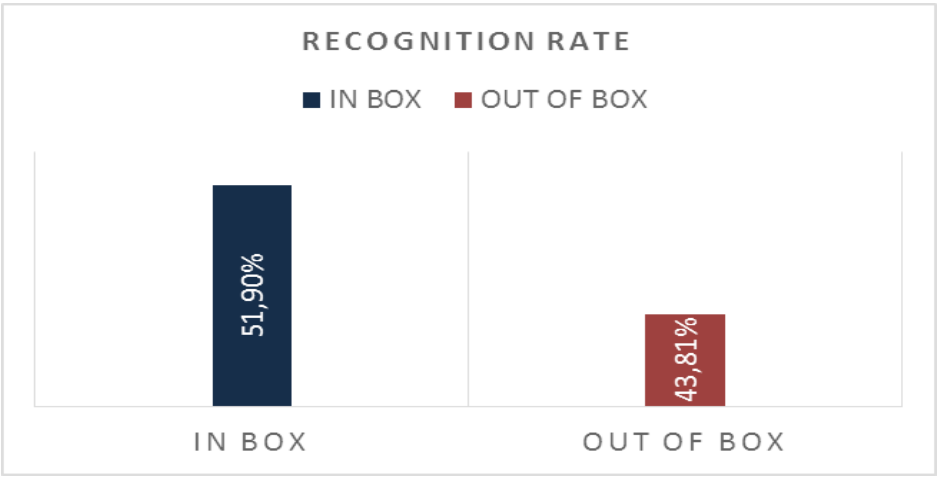

Figure 8. Comparison for vocabulary recognition of the pop quiz III.

Monthly exam II. In the second monthly exam, the students were asked to complete 10 fill-in-the-blank type of questions with the words given above the sentences. The average score for vocabulary was 4.04 out of 10 scale rubric. The highest recognized vocabulary item was the word *gets,* an *out of box* vocabulary. However, the least recognized vocabulary items were both *adopted* and *like* which the former was *in box* but the latter was *out of* box (See Figure 9).

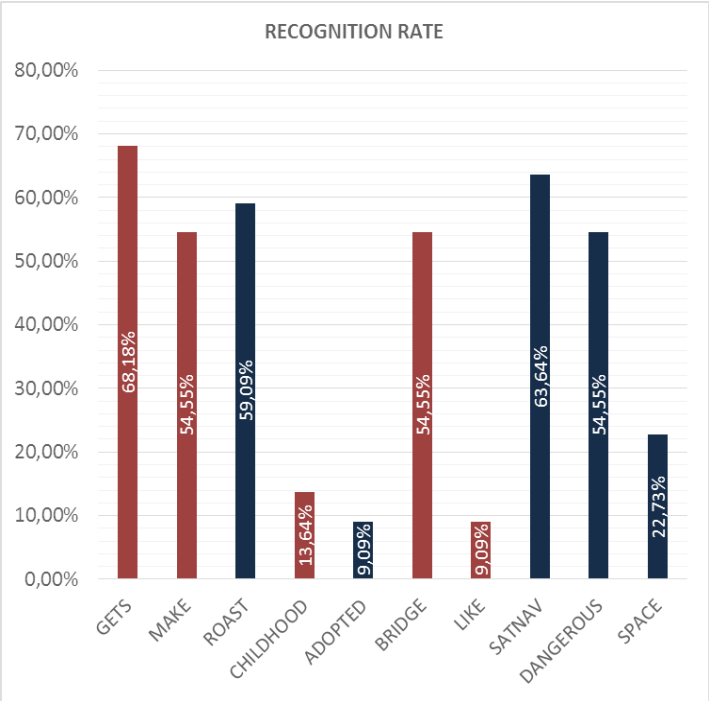

Figure 9. Vocabulary recognition rate of the monthly exam II.

The exam scores showed the students were able to recognize 41.82% of *in box* vocabulary in contrast to the rate of 40% for *out of box* vocabulary items. The students' vocabulary recognition initiated that they were able to recognize *in box* vocabulary more than *out of box* items in the second monthly exam (See Figure 10). McCrostie (2007) remarks acquiring a large number of vocabulary is necessary for communication and should be one of the main tasks of a language learner. Therefore, a vocabulary box can enable language learners to experience words with different classes.

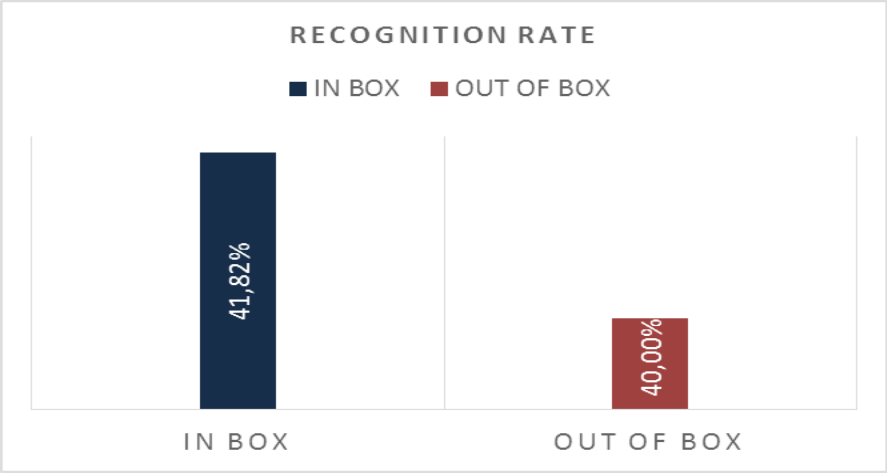

Figure 10. Comparison for vocabulary recognition of the monthly exam II.

Frequency of utilizing vocabulary box

The students' responses in the scale type of question in the questionnaire were evaluated and the findings revealed that 20% of the students (n=4) scaled their vocabulary box use as 8 while no students scaled their vocabulary use as 2. It can be concluded that more than half of the class (n=15) utilized the vocabulary box in the class and their vocabulary knowledge may mainly result from using vocabulary box (See Figure 11).

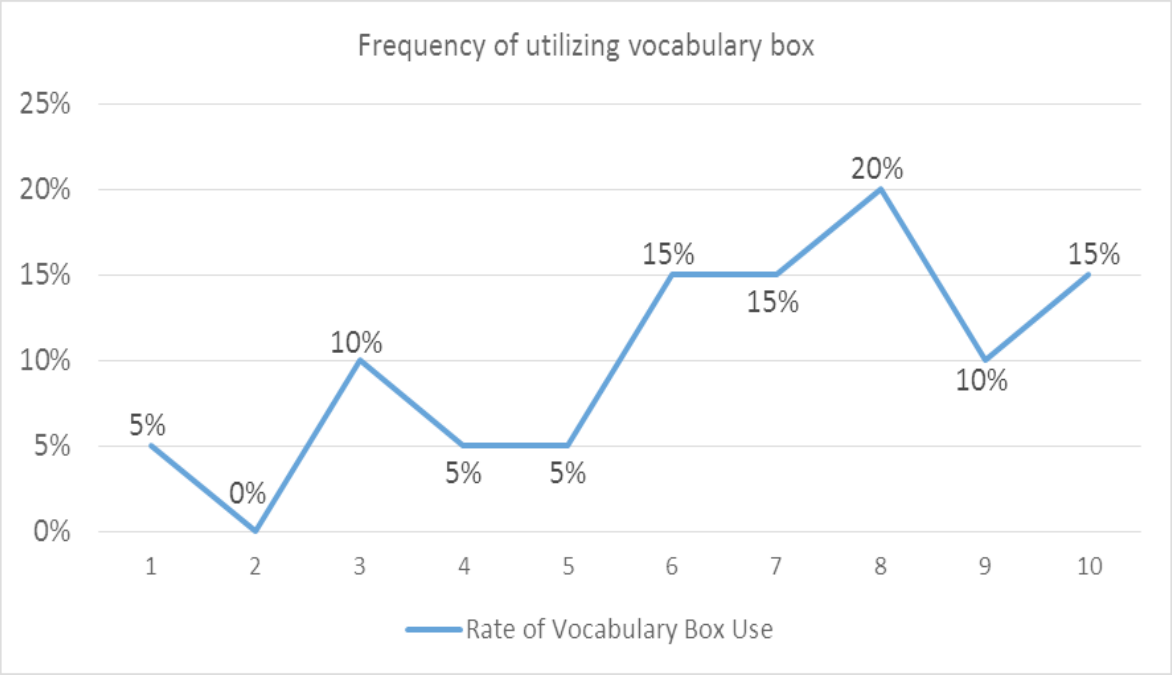

Figure 11. Frequency and rate of utilizing vocabulary box.

Students' perceptions on utilizing the vocabulary box

Utilization of vocabulary box and word recognition. When the students were asked whether utilization of the vocabulary box was effective for recognition, 15 students replied as positive while five did not give any response. When the students were asked why vocabulary box was effective for recognition, seven themes emerged. A good number of the students (n=9) used vocabulary box due to *lexical input and storage*, three of them used it for *enabling revision* and some (n=3) utilized it for its *triggering effect*. Only one student used it for its being *informative*, one student for being *an effective way of studying*, one student for its being *feasible* and one student for its being *an alternative way of studying*. Moreover, the verbatim of one of the participants emphasized: "*Every time you brought new words, I looked them, I mean I revised them by using the vocabulary box and taking photos of them*".

Advantages of vocabulary box. The students were also asked about the advantages of using a vocabulary box and 10 themes appeared. 11 of the participants expressed that they utilized the box for receiving *lexical input and storage*. According to Barcroft (2004), most of what we know as grammatical knowledge is actually placed at the lexical level correlatively with words and group of words which were learnt mainly through language exposure and the students in the study focused on lexical input and storage commonly. Some students (n=4) mentioned *usefulness* and *accessibility* of the box, and its *enabling revision*. Additionally, two students mentioned its *triggering memorization* and *embracing definition of lexical units*. The students also explained the advantages of the box as *producing grammatical sentences* (n=1), *being exposed to cultural elements of language* (n=1), *increasing performance on formative assessment* (n=1) and *involving fun* (n=1). Following statement is of a student participated in the focus group interview: "*I was taking pictures of words in the box and kept a notebook*". It may be concluded that language learners focus on vocabulary knowledge through utilization of a vocabulary box in class.

Challenges of utilizing vocabulary box. When the students were asked about the challenges of the vocabulary box, most of them (n=16) responded that they had not experienced any kind

of challenge in utilization of the box. However, *confusion due to the amount of the vocabulary in the box* (n=1) and *no Turkish definition or translation* (n=1) were viewed as challenges by some students. Although it was not reported in the questionnaire data, verbatim of one of the participants revealed: "*I would make the box bigger*". In the same line with the study, Barcroft (2004) indicates language instructors should raise language learners' awareness in extending their vocabulary knowledge and pushing their limits in vocabulary learning process.

Students' likes about the vocabulary box. When it was asked what the students most like about using the vocabulary box in the class, 11 themes emerged. Seven students mentioned *amount of vocabulary and content*, some (n=4) indicated it could be *a free time activity,* three students stated it was *involving fun* and other three said the box was *encouraging*. Additionally, some students (n=2) mentioned *encountering new words frequently*, two noted its *form and content*, other students emphasized the thing s/he most like about the box was *communicating by using new words*, the other one said its *contribution of the course*, and one expressed *accessibility*. Moreover, students also indicated its *practical use* (n=1), *English to English definition* (n=1) and its serving as a *classroom routine* (n=1) as the things they most liked. Additionally, one of the participants mentioned: "*Verb form, noun form, I mean different word classes are better for me. Well, the definitions for each vocabulary items are also good*". Schuetze (2015) points out a learner's purpose is to remember the words after they have learnt, so the vocabulary box can facilitate language learners to review the vocabulary items they have already been exposed to.

Constraints of utilizing vocabulary box. When the participants were asked about constraints of vocabulary box, 14 students viewed the box as positive without any constraints. However, some students responded *confusion due to the amount of vocabulary* (n=1), *no Turkish definition* (n=1) and *difficulty in storage* (n=1). One of the participants however cited: "*There should not be any Turkish translation, it is better like that because I search myself*". Lotfolahi and Salehi (2016) state it is important to evaluate the views of language learners since the perception of a learner is more important than whether or not a teaching methodology is practical or authentic. The positive perceptions regarding utilization of the vocabulary box in the study may suggest that language learners can recognize vocabulary items more by utilizing such a box in ELT context.

Views on recycling the vocabulary box. The students were asked whether they would like to recycle the vocabulary box in the class and four different themes appeared. Almost all students (n=19) responded they would like to recycle it. The students showed the reasons to recycle the box for *lexical input and storage* (n=9), *encouraging self-study* (n=3), *reinforcing* (n=1) and *usefulness* (n=1). One of the participants mentioned: "*The English definition of words are good because I tried to translate them into Turkish and it helped me*". Additionally, another participant verbalised: "*I would do not only as a box, I would put some small vocabulary papers on the places we could easily see*". In line with the students' views, Brown (2000) refers positive beliefs and attitudes increase motivation to study English although negative attitudes and beliefs may decrease motivation. It may be concluded that language learners' positive views on vocabulary box enable them to utilize it and benefit more from it.

Conclusion

The first research question, which was related to whether keeping a vocabulary box effects recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge of the students on written exams, shed

light into utilizing a vocabulary box and its potential effects on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge on the written exams. The recognition rate of *in box* vocabulary items was higher than *out of box* vocabulary items according to the participants' exam results. It may be concluded that language learners can recognize vocabulary items much more when they are given opportunity to access *in box* vocabulary items without any time restrictions.

As for the second question about the effects of keeping a vocabulary box on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge on written exams, it was obtained that keeping the vocabulary box in the class affected the students positively. The vocabulary box prompted the students to focus on vocabulary learning since they had opportunity to review vocabulary items in their free time or during the class hours. Additionally, the students tried to improve their vocabulary knowledge by taking photos of new *in box* vocabulary items via their own mobiles and keeping parallel notebooks based on the vocabulary box for retention. It may be concluded that when language learners are encouraged to focus on vocabulary recognition with a different technique such as a vocabulary box, they will recognize vocabulary items more and succeed in summative assessment especially in their pop quizzes and monthly exams.

The third question aiming at figuring out the views of the participants about the effects of keeping a vocabulary box on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge on written exams. Nearly all the students used the vocabulary box and they had positive views on utilizing the box in the class. They thought it was beneficial for their lexical input and storage and they liked the amount of vocabulary and its content. However, there were also a few participants having storage and translation problems. In spite of very limited number of the disadvantages, more than half of the class stated there were not any constraints of the vocabulary box and most of the participants expressed their enthusiasm to recycle the vocabulary box. It may be said that vocabulary box is advantageous for language learners to recognize vocabulary items and may be utilized in ELT context to encourage learners for vocabulary learning.

Consequently, this research reached important results in terms of utilization of the vocabulary box on recognition of course book-based vocabulary knowledge on the written exams in English language teaching at tertiary level. As vocabulary learning and teaching has been neglected for some years, educators and scholars have been focusing on vocabulary learning and some new techniques about how to teach vocabulary come to light. Although vocabulary box has been used by teachers for some years, there is no strict rule to how to prepare or use it in language classrooms. Therefore, the findings of this study may shed light for English teachers, instructors or practitioners related to English language teaching and learning.

The limitations of this study were the number of the participants and duration of data collection process. As there were 22 students in the class, the study was conducted with 22 participants. It would be difficult and time-consuming for other instructors to prepare a vocabulary box to use in the class and it would be difficult for the researcher to check all vocabulary items in other vocabulary boxes and results of the written exams of other classrooms due to the number of students. Additionally, the study was established by conducting five written exams since time was rather limited to prepare the box, evaluate the written exams and their results.

The findings of the study cannot be generalized to all tertiary level students due to only a small size of group involvement, so a large scale research should be conducted in this specific field. If there is enough time, researchers can apply weekly vocabulary tests so as to evaluate learners' vocabulary knowledge in a detailed way. Researchers may also study with two groups

of students that utilize and not utilize vocabulary box in their language process, so they can compare the vocabulary recognition rate. Moreover, a vocabulary box formed by the language learners in a class can provide researchers an opportunity to observe their own progress.

According to the data obtained from this study, some suggestions related to vocabulary box may be shared in order to increase its use and benefits in English language teaching at tertiary level. Additionally, institutional meetings can be arranged for English teachers and instructors so that they can communicate and share their ideas about using a vocabulary box in class and their related experience. Lastly, once online programs are created to involve vocabulary cards, more English teachers, instructors and language learners can utilize vocabulary box in both their teaching and learning process.

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THE ROLE OF ERROR CORRECTION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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1. Introduction

Many language teachers are eager to see their students to use what they learn. Their complaints are generally about students' errors although they know that errors are the signs that their students are learning something. Learners can make errors as they get the things wrong, as they can make a slip or as they misunderstand. How can we know that learners make errors or are they really errors? So what is an error?

According to Gower and Walters (1983), there is a difference between error and mistake. They stated that "a mistake is a slip of tongue or a pen. The student is able to correct it himself, either completely unprompted or with the guidance of the teacher and other students" (1983, p.147). They added:

An error is much more deeply ingrained. The student might:

- believe what he's saying is correct
- not know what the correct form should be
- know what the correct form should be but can't get it right.

As teachers we can differentiate mistake and error by asking the student to try again. The student will correct the produced sentence if it is a mistake; however, she/he will repeat the same thing if it is an error as errors are done systematically. So we should give more importance to the correction of the errors. According to Gower and Walters (1983), general questions that need to be asked are:

1. Has the student made a simple slip or does he in fact not know what the correct form should be?
2. At what stages of a lesson do I correct?
3. How much correction should I give?
4. How can I get to the root of the student's problem?
5. How can I correct in such a way as not to discourage the student?
6. What should the other students be doing while I'm correcting?
7. How can I follow up my correction so that the student will get the form right next time? (p. 146).

If we will make an oral correction, we should know that it is more difficult as we have limited time to answer the what, when, how, how much to correct questions. If the aim is to speak

fluently, there is no need to make much correction. If students get over-correction, they may get confused. It is worth correcting one item at one time and not trying to make everything perfect. The student should also know that there is something wrong with his/her word or sentence so we should explain the student what is wrong. However, if we will make a written correction, again we have when, how much and how to correct questions. If we have controlled writing, we should give more importance to the errors. If we have cued writing, less correction is preferred. In free writing, we should not forget that the focus is on fluency and comprehensibility rather than accuracy (Gower and Walters, 1983).

They give the principles which are the same as for oral correction:

1. Make sure students write on every other line and leave a margin.
2. Depending on the aim of the exercise, underline the errors you wish to focus on so that students know where they occur.
3. To show them what type of errors they are, put symbols in the appropriate place in the margin (e.g. P might represent punctuation, S: spelling, WO: word order, etc.). If the students don't understand the symbols, teach them.
4. Give the piece of writing back to the students to see how much they can correct for themselves.
5. Sometimes written work may be exchanged with other students or discussed in groups so that they all correct each other's.
6. Correct their corrections (or the corrections of their colleques).
7. Mark, or comment, according to the aim of the written work. If communication is the aim, don't mark according to spelling. Always decide whether marks are to be quantitative (e.g. a mark for punctuation might be arrived at by deducting the number of errors from 100) or based on a general impression. Sometimes it's worth giving different marks for different things within the same piece of written work as well as an overall mark based on its communicative worth.
8. Get the student to write up a neat copy and hand it in.
9. Set follow-up exercises for bad errors, perhaps giving appropriate page number references in exercise books.
10. Note down errors that are common to the group and prepare a remedial lesson for them

Prabhu (in Beretta, 1989) labeled correction as incidental and systematic correction. According to him, in incidental correction, the teacher wrote the correct form on the board and asked the learners what to change. She/he did not do any follow up activity, any explanation or any other examples related to the error made. However, systematic correction included the interruption of the course and more attention on an error that the learners made. In this type of the correction, there were more explanations and more examples in order to prevent he reoccurrence of the error. Systematic correction also required making the errors noticed in a lesson and taking precautions to avoid errors. Prabhu also stated that:

incidental correction, by contrast, is (1) confined to particular 'tokens', (21) only responsive (i.e. not leading to any preventive or pre-emptive action, (3) facilititative (i.e. regarded by learners as a part of getting on with the activity in hand, not as a separate objective and not as being more important than other aspects of the activity), and (4) transitory (i.e. drawing attention to itself only for a moment-not for as long as systematic correction does) (in Beretta, 1989, p.286).

Prabhu (in Beretta, 1989, p. 286) described four elements of the kind of "incidental" correction that he believes is appropriate for a meaning-focused classroom:

a) Incorrect language from learners is corrected (i.e. rephrased, restated, or drawn attention to) in roughly the same way that interested adults do with children-or the subject-teacher in an English medium class does in teaching his subject.

b) This is done more in the context of writing (either on the blackboard, as part of the pre-task,or on paper in performing the task) than in oral work, as being more natural in that context.

c) All such attention to language is limited to facts (as against generalisations) and treated as contributory to the successful performance of the task on hand.

d) Learners' work is always marked for content, not correctness of language, though erros of language are corrected (as far as they can be, in the time available). Learners are not asked to rewrite in the light of the observations made.

2. Learners' perceptions about error correction

Learners are eager to produce something as they are learning a new language. So correcting every error, orally or written, may affect them in a bad way. According toWajnryb (1992), "if teachers corrected every language error made in their class, far too much classroom time would be given over to correction. This has negative implications in that it might reduce learner willingness to take risks and experiment" (p.103).

Learners do not want to participate the activities as they have a fear of making mistake especially in front of their friends. To reduce this fear as teachers we should be careful about what, when and how to correct.

3. Teacher thoughts about error correction

Teachers have an important role in correcting students' errors. In order to make a correct judgement, teacher should know his/her learners. The teachers' judgements of error gravity depend on the teachers' own experience and their knowledge of their learners' experience (Davies, 1983). Otherwise, she/he cannot make a correct decision. Davies also added:

The teacher's knowledge of the particular learner who made an error may also sometimes affect his or her view of its gravity; it may, for instance, help him/her to decide whether an error is the result of a rare lapse of concentration, a slip of the tongue or pen, or reflects a real failure to grasp some rule. Finally, the teacher's view will doubtless be influenced by his or her knowledge of the task required of the learner. For example, an error may be considered less serious when it occurs in free composition than when it occurs in some more structured activity where the learner has received guidance which should have helped him or her to avoid making it. Similarly, errors may be perceived differently according to whether they occur in spontaneous speech, where the listener has little chance to monitor utterances, or in a piece of written work where there is plenty of time for checking and correcting. An investigation of the effects of factors such as these on error evaluation could well yield interesting results (1983, p. 310).

According to Wajnryb (1992) "teachers necessarily differentiate between errors that require immediate attention and errors that are better ignored or treated in another way or at another time. This is one of the many choices a teacher makes in regard to learner error" (p.103). As Davies stated (1983):

The teacher's evaluation is valuable because of his or her particular insights into the learner's situation; but it is important to recognize that this highly specific viewpoint is not the only one. If we are to make best use of the teacher's assessment, then, we should give careful consideration to the question of what exactly he or she is likely to be assessing (p. 310).

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