Academic Studies in FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Editor : **Dr. Yunus Dogan**

ISBN: 978-2-38236-042-2

9 782382 360422

LIVRE DE LYON

livredelyon.com
livredelyon
livredelyon
livredelyon

Educational

LIVRE DE LYON

Lyon 2020

ACADEMIC STUDIES

IN

FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Editor
Dr. Yunus Dogan

Lyon 2020

Editor • Dr. Yunus Dogan  0000-0002-5038-3404

Cover Design • Aruull Raja
First Published • December 2020, Lyon

ISBN: 978-2-38236-042-2

The chapters in this book have been checked for plagiarism by intihal.net

Publisher • Livre de Lyon

Address • 37 rue marietton, 69009, Lyon France
website • http://www.livredelyon.com
e-mail • livredelyon@gmail.com

LIVRE DE LYON

PREFACE

The field of foreign language learning and teaching has literally received an exponential attention together with the ever-increasing number of language learners throughout the world. In the meantime, rigorous research on foreign language education has been yielding fruitful outcomes in terms of bringing to light particular facts about how individuals learn a non-native language; however, the scholarly quest in this discipline is an ongoing endeavour teaching us new things with each research study. This book, in this sense, attempts to make a contribution to the field by providing insights into certain research subjects of foreign language education in the light of recent relevant literature.

Dr. Yunus Dogan

CONTENTS

REFEREES

Prof.Dr. Murat Tuncer, Fırat University, Turkey

Assoc. Prof.Dr. Veli Batdı, Gaziantep University, Turkey

Asst. Prof. Dr. Cihat Tatar, Sakarya University, Turkey

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hakkı Bağcı, Sakarya University, Turkey

CHAPTER I

TEACHERS' NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR IN REPAIR INITIATION: LEANING FORWARD AND CUPPING THE HAND BEHIND THE EAR*

Cihat Atar[1] & Steve Walsh[2] & Paul Seedhouse[3]

[2](Asst. Prof. Dr.); Sakarya University, e-mail: cihatatar@sakarya.edu.tr
ORCID 0000-0002-5879-3432

[3](Prof. Dr.); University of Newcastle upon Tyne, e-mail: steve.walsh@newcastle.ac.uk
ORCID 0000-0003-4524-7827

[4](Prof. Dr.); University of Newcastle upon Tyne,
e-mail: paul.seedhouse@newcastle.ac.uk
ORCID 0000-0002-0099-3167

INTRODUCTION

Repair in conversation can be defined as "efforts to deal with trouble sources or repairables marked off as distinct within the ongoing talk" (Schegloff, 2007, 101). The term repair is used to describe the situations in which there is an attempt to deal with a trouble source at a specific moment in interaction. Troubles in interaction stem from mainly three sources: hearing, understanding and acceptability problems (Svennevig, 2008; Schegloff, 2007). Therefore, repair is an interactional tool which interlocutors use to address and handle problems in speaking, hearing and understanding. Schegloff et al. (1977) argue that repair sequences allow the interlocutors in a conversation to handle a breakdown or a trouble by revision or adjustment, and they suggest that the repair mechanism is essential for successful exchange of information in interaction. Accordingly, it can be argued that repair sequences restore mutual understanding by equalizing the known information, and this makes the repair mechanism an essential tool in achieving intersubjectivity.

In second/foreign language classrooms, teachers also other-initiate repair when they feel that the information is not correct, there is lack of

* This article has been written as an elaboration of the Doctorate Thesis 'Atar, C. (2016). The Sequential Organization and Management of Teachers' Other-Initiation of Clarification in Second Language Classroom Contexts' accepted by University of Newcastle upon Tyne, the UK.

enough information, or when they consider a student's turn to be problematic because of institutional and pedagogic goals (Seedhouse, 2004). In this respect, the use of repairs is essential in managing interaction in classrooms.

INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE

Interactional competence can be defined as interlocutors' use of linguistic and interactional resources according to the contexts where they are utilized (Young, 2008). In the literature there is much discussion on the nature of interactional competence (Markee, 2008; Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Young, 2008), but space precludes a full discussion of them here and as a result, Markee (2008) will be mentioned here which is the one followed in this study. The reason why it was chosen is that Markee focuses on second language interaction, and he has operationalized the concept of interactional competence successfully via the three components he suggested. These components consist of the formal system, the semiotic system, and gaze and paralinguistic features. The formal system is made up of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar while the semiotics system consists of turn-taking, sequence organization and repair mechanism. The final one which is the focus of this study involves gaze and paralinguistic features. Interactional competence is constructing interaction in a moment by moment fashion with reference to local needs in interaction. In this sense, nonverbal behaviors are the interactional moves interlocutors utilize to achieve intersubjectivity. By asking for repair through nonverbal behavior, teachers aim at clarifying the problems. Accordingly, in the following paragraphs the types of nonverbal behaviors used to initiate and manage repairs will be discussed in relation to the ones observed in the data of this study.

NONVERBAL PHENOMENA IN REPAIR

Communication may take various forms, and one of them is oral/spoken. However, when people interact, they generally do not limit themselves to the use of words only. "They also use their hands, (gestures), head moments, eyes (eye contact), lips (smile), bodily postures and symbols to communicate which always accompany oral discourse-intended or not. The impact of these nonlinguistic cues in conversation is called nonverbal communication" (Negi, 2009, 101). According to Negi (2009), nonverbal communication has some functions such as substituting, complementing, regulating and contradicting the verbal message. Substitution is when the nonverbal behavior can mean something without any verbal prompts.

Nonverbal behavior is found to be an interesting area, and there have been many studies on it in different contexts (e.g. Goodwin, 2003; Kendon, 2004; Morris, 1994). However, the role of nonverbal behavior in

second/foreign language classrooms has only been studied recently with the increase of interest in multimodality in L2 classrooms (Cho & Larke, 2010; Gulberg, 1998; Kupetz, 2011; Mortensen, 2012, 2016; Negi, 2009; Rasmussen, 2014; Seo & Koshik, 2010; Sert, 2017; Tellier, 2010). For instance, Rasmussen (2014) studied leaning forward, and the findings of this study suggested that leaning forward combined with utterances contributed to better interaction. In her data, Rasmussen found that leaning forward is used in repair turns. Balaman (2017) found that leaning forward is used by teachers for nomination in pre-schools. The teachers would use it as a part of several resources (e.g. crouching, shifting posture and walking toward the students) including cupping the hand behind the ear to initiate a student response. In these instances, there is not a problem, but the teacher uses it as an embodiment to show that it is that specific student's turn to talk. Pan (2014) also suggested that leaning forward can be a resource for teachers to help students contribute via showing interest. These observations on cupping the hand behind the ear were also reported by Mortensen (2016). He suggested that this move indicates hearing problem when it is stand alone; however, when there is verbal repair initiation, it indicates that there is not a hearing problem. This is in line with Balaman (2017) who suggested that cupping the ear with hand accompanies verbal prompts, and this leads to a nomination for a student to respond. Feshbach (1967, 8) also observed that the teacher in the study used cupping her ear as a way to ensure that students "listen" to her when she asked questions. However, it should be noted that the context was a reading class, and it was in the first language.

Seo and Koshik (2010) studied gestures that engender repair in English as a second language classrooms. One of the gestures they found is a head poke forward accompanied with a movement of the upper body forward towards the recipient, which we call leaning forward in our analysis in line with Rasmussen (2014). Seo and Koshik (2010) found that this nonverbal phenomenon is quite salient in their data, and it engenders repair. This means that it is understood to be initiating repair. As for the sequential position of the gestures, they suggested that they were initiated in the transition-relevance place following the trouble source, and they were maintained throughout the following turns until the problem was clarified. The fact that they were used at a specific point and in a successful way indicates that this is a part of teachers' interactional competence.

Silence has also been found to have some functions and meanings in interaction. One of the significant findings about silence, especially significantly long silence (2 or more seconds), is that it signals a problem or a dispreferred response (Liddicoat, 2011). For instance, researchers such as McHoul (1990) and Macbeth (2004) found that if there was a teacher silence after a student response, this indicated that the student's answer is

a dispreferred one. However, regarding silence as an indicator of dispreferred response is not the sole interpretation. Pomerantz (1984) and Kääntä (2010), for example, argued that unlike first language interaction, silence and response delays do not necessarily indicate a dispreferred response in second language interaction. In line with these studies, Walsh (2011) also suggested that teacher silence, which he calls wait-time, is an interactional strategy that teachers use to give students more time to prepare and talk. Maroni (2011) also supported this suggestion, and it was found that teachers' wait-time increases student turn length and participation.

To sum up the discussion, as the literature review shows, studies on nonverbal behavior that accompanies speech are common; however, conversation-analytical studies focusing on nonverbal phenomena that can initiate repair on their own is very rare (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2007; Olsher, 2004; Seo & Koshik, 2010), and most of them do not focus on the observations in this study, which are leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear. Accordingly, the focus of this study is leaning forward that can initiate repair without any verbal prompts to contribute to the gap in the literature. Cupping the hand behind the ear will also be demonstrated as it accompanies leaning forward in repair sequences. This case is a very interesting observation in that a nonverbal phenomenon can work as a repair initiator, and the interlocutors orient to it as a repair initiation from an emic perspective. In this sense, this is a unique case, and the current study will elaborate on the findings of the PhD thesis by Atar (2016) through focusing on a sub-research question of the thesis that was not published previously. Accordingly, the research question is:

1) How do leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear contribute to repair initiation as nonverbal behavior?

METHODOLOGY

This is a qualitative and descriptive study that aims to describe a phenomenon from a conversational-analytical perspective. Conversation Analysis (CA) is a naturalistic approach, and it aims at observing, describing, analyzing and understanding interaction as an essential component of human social behavior (Sidnell, 2010). CA initially focused on L1 interaction. Later, studies on institutional talk and L2 classrooms have also gained popularity. The idea of having an unmotivated look at the data is an indispensable part of the CA analysis. Unmotivated looking is studying a data without having prior aims, and this is in contrast to rationalist and deductive approaches that start the analysis with pre-defined categorizations or concepts. Hence, this study will describe an interesting finding observed in the data as a case study.

CA emerged from sociological studies, and it was founded upon the ethnomethodology of Goffman and Garfinkel, who studied members of a society and their practices to understand how they interact as social beings (ten Have, 2007). In his studies, Garfinkel tried to figure out how ordinary people achieve their interactional goals in everyday life. Similarly, Goffman is the pioneer researcher in studying human interaction in close detail (Gardner, 2004). These two researchers were the pioneers, and Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff undertook CA studies in the early 1960s. Via their studies, CA became a distinct discipline, and it turned into a naturalistic approach whose primary aim is to observe, describe, analyze and understand talk as a basic component of human social behavior (Sidnell, 2010).

CA is different than other approaches such as Chomskyan approaches as it specifically emphasizes interaction (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). CA mainly focuses on interaction rather than the language itself. There is a significant focus on interaction in CA; because, as Schegloff (1986, 112) put it, talk is primarily "the primordial site of sociality". Interaction and talk are utilized at every stage of the life of human beings, and they are vital tools in human activities from daily conversation to formal encounters. Hence, it can be suggested that according to conversation-analytical perspectives, interaction is the activity by which human beings share their social experiences and fulfill their socially-oriented goals.

Considering the issues discussed above, in this study the data comes from genuine L2 classrooms. There is no outside intervention on variables, and the classrooms were recorded naturally. Secondly, to uncover the nonverbal behavior and what they achieve, the instances were observed via the emic perspective of CA. The initial observations showed that teachers and students created and oriented to the nonverbal moves as an initiator of repair. Consequently, in accordance with the premises of CA, this study aims at uncovering the order and organization of the two practices of teachers' nonverbal behavior as repair initiation: leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear.

THE CONTEXT AND PARTICIPANTS

In CA studies, data and participants are chosen from authentic contexts. This is called the specimen approach which is methodologically in contrast to the factist perspective. In the factist perspective a representative sample must be chosen to represent the whole population (Alasuutari, 1995). However, in the specimen perspective, participants or contexts are studied as a reality in their natural context. In this sense, the specimen approach is a representation of the reality which is more appropriate for the purposes of this study as the aim of this study is to

understand the nonverbal behavior as they occur in real second language classrooms. Newcastle University Corpus of Academic Spoken English (NUCASE) data is suitable for this aim as it includes data from natural classroom contexts. As a result, second language classrooms in NUCASE were chosen to study how the participants in these classes initiated and managed repair via nonverbal behavior.

The participants in the data were international students studying English to proceed to their degrees. They were studying in either foundation, English for university study or graduate diploma programs at the time of data collection. The classrooms were made up of around 10 students. They were mostly from China or the Middle East. Their level of English was CEFR B1 or B2. CEFR B1 and B2 correspond approximately to the IELTS band range 6. This is nearly an upper-intermediate level. As for the teachers, there were 4 teachers who were all native speakers of English, and 3 of them were males while only 1 of them was a female.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Transcription is the process of creating the orthographic representation of the data. Transcription is a very significant part of CA analysis as it is the initial step in converting the data into a format by which micro analysis can be undertaken (Liddicoat, 2011). The transcription conventions suggested in Liddicoat (2011) and Seedhouse (2004) were synthesized, and a consistent transcription system was developed for this study (see Appendix A). It is really essential to have a consistent transcription system in a study as it not only ensures a reliable representation of the data, but also allows readers and other researchers to understand the extracts easily. This, naturally, increases the reliability and validity of a study.

As for data collection, the data consists of eight classroom hours of data chosen from NUCASE. They were video-recorded in 2015. They come from second language classrooms in a higher education context. As the focus is on improving academic English, usually lessons are initiated and led by the teacher and then there are tasks and discussion sessions to be completed by students in small groups. At the end of the tasks, teachers typically have a whole class discussion and evaluation. The original study, the PhD thesis by Atar (2016), consisted of twelve classroom hours of data; however, as some of it were audio-only, they were inappropriate for doing analysis on nonverbal aspects of language. Consequently, 8 hours of multimodal data were selected for analysis.

As for the amount of data needed for a sound CA study, Seedhouse (2004) suggested that five to ten hours of classroom data are considered to be adequate for second language classroom studies, and he claimed that

these data are enough for making generalizations and drawing conclusions from a specific context. Hence, eight hours of data in this study is sufficient for obtaining sound results for this specific case study. As this study is undertaken on the data taken from the NUCASE database, permissions from the university, teachers and participants had already been obtained. Consequently, the data collection was on a voluntary basis. All the participants were told that the data would only be used for this study and their identity would be kept confidential. In order to ensure confidentiality, the names of teachers and students were referred to as T for teachers and S1, S2 and so on for students.

AS for data analysis, the data were analyzed according to the suggestions of Seedhouse (2004), who provided a framework to undertake CA systematically. Seedhouse (2004, 38-39) suggested the following steps for a sound data analysis in CA:

- Unmotivated look at the data
- An inductive search throughout the database to establish a collection of instances of the phenomenon
- Establishing regularities and patterns in relation to the occurrences of the phenomenon in order to show that these instances are produced and oriented to by the participants as normative organization of the action
- Finally, a more generalized account of how the phenomenon relates to interaction in the broader sense is produced

The data were analyzed in accordance with these steps, which will be presented in the next section.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the data indicated that both leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear were observed to indicate a hearing problem. Leaning forward can engender repair initiation alone while cupping the hand behind the ear accompanies verbal moves and leaning forward. As for the sequential position, they follow a students' problematic turn but after a silence of a few seconds. So, the student produces a problematic turn, a few seconds lapse and then the teacher uses one of these nonverbal phenomena to indicate that there is a problem. The following two extracts will demonstrate these findings in more detail below.

Extract 1 demonstrates leaning forward as a nonverbal phenomenon that can engender repair on its own. It is a significant observation in that it clearly shows the contribution of nonverbal behavior in repair initiation: The nonverbal behavior can initiate a repair without any utterances. In this extract, the teacher and students discusses how to find solutions to unhealthy diet of children. The students first do discussion in small groups

and then the teacher initiates a whole class discussion. The context of this extract is a meaning and fluency context (Seedhouse, 2004), and the focus is on the discussion of the ideas about solutions to children's unhealthy eating habits.

Extract 1.2.1 (44:50-45:01) Malls

```
1       S6   : er: in our countries where (.) all: we
2              have is (malls)
3              (1.0)
4       T    : ((leans forward))
5       S6   : [er: >malls< like the [ones (you shop)
   →    T       #1          #1            #1          #2
6       S7   : [>what?<
7       S?   :                          [this thing is,
8       S?   : malls
9       T    : malls? (.) shopping malls >sorry yes<
10      S6   : yeah: ((she continues talking about
        malls))
```

#1

#2

In lines 1 and 2, S6 initiates a turn and mentions malls. She says that there are malls everywhere, but there are not enough sport facilities for children. However, there is one second pause following S6's turn, and in line 4 the teacher leans forward. In the following line S6 quickly repeats (`>malls<`), and then she tries to explain it by (`like the [ones (you shop)`). Just before the completion of this turn, in line 6 the teacher stops leaning forward and comes back to normal posture. He acknowledges the repair by (`malls? (.) shopping malls >sorry yes<`) in line 10. In line 11 S6 says (`yeah:`) to indicate that it is the word she has said, and she goes onto making her argument about malls.

In this extract the teacher's leaning forward in line 4 demonstrates that this nonverbal behavior works as a repair initiation and indeed, it can itself other-initiate a repair. The occurrence of this nonverbal resource on its own is understood as a repair initiation by S6 as evidenced from her trying to repair her previous turn. The analysis shows that leaning forward is found to accompany (sometimes it comes a few seconds prior to the repair-initiation and continues to accompany the verbal repair-initiation) nearly half of the instances of repair initiation that aims at clarifying a hearing problem. The instance above in the extract is; however, a seldom one (observed only twice). But, it clearly illustrates the role of nonverbal behavior in repair initiation.

Extract 1 has illustrated that leaning forward can itself other-initiate repair and Extract 2 will demonstrate how it can initiate a repair accompanied by cupping the hand behind the ear after verbal initiation. In this extract there is a discussion on the topic of the listening that the students have listened to.

Extract 2_3.1 (39:26-39:44) The challenges

1		S12	: (also) the challenges
2			(1.4)
3		T	: that's right (.) the challenges of the
4			environmental:,
5			(1.9)
6		S12	: er (0.9) (civilizi?)
7		T	: >say again<
	→	T	#3 #4 #4
8			(1.3)
9		S12	: the challenges of er whole civilizah
		T	#4 #4 #4 #5
10		T	: yeah (.) >yeah< (.) ((*nods*)) yeah.

#3

#4

#5

In line 1, S12 mentions challenges as a response which is followed by a silence of 1.4 second. In the next lines (3-4), the teacher wants S12 to expand his previous turn with a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002). Following a silence of 1.9 second, in line 6, S12 tries to provide an answer, but he cannot pronounce the word civilization. Consequently, the teacher orients to it as a problem as significantly long silences may be an indicator of trouble (Liddicoat, 2011; Pomerantz, 1984). This is supported by the fact that she firstly leans forward and slightly moves hand to ear (this occasionally accompanies leaning forward as seen in screenshots 3 and 4) and then she immediately other-initiates a repair in line 7 with (`>say again<`), which suggests that there is a trouble in interaction. This is accompanied by her leaning forward and cupping her right hand behind her ear, and this continues throughout S12's self-repair of his previous turn in line 9. Once S12 finishes the repair, the teacher also stops leaning forward as seen in screenshot 5, and she stops cupping her hand behind her ear. Finally, in line 10 the teacher produces an acknowledgement of S12's response (`the challenges of civilization`) with (`yeah (.) >yeah< (.) yeah.`).

This extract demonstrates how leaning forward, sometimes together with cupping the hand behind the ear, accompanies repair initiation. In this

extract it slightly precedes repair initiation, and this is similar to the previous extract in that the teacher first does the nonverbal behavior. However, unlike the previous extract, leaning forward and verbal initiation together other-initiate a repair. One point that may be mentioned here is that although the student cannot pronounce the word civilization properly in the second attempt either, the teacher ignores it, and she does not initiate an error correction. This is probably because of the sub-context of that moment as the focus is on meaning in that task. Therefore, when the teacher understands the word, she does not focus on the mispronunciation in line with the pedagogic focus (Seedhouse, 2004).

Considering the analysis, it may be argued that in line with Seo and Koshik's (2010) study in second language classroom settings, leaning forward is quite salient in this context as well, and it engenders repair in a specific sequential environment. As demonstrated in Extract 1, leaning forward is so salient that it can other-initiate repair on its own without any verbal utterances. Therefore, it can be argued here that leaning forward has a significant role in repair initiation when the problem impeding mutual understanding is a hearing problem. As for the sequential organization, Seo and Koshik (2010) observed that leaning forward was initiated in the turn transition space following the trouble source, and they were maintained throughout the following turns until the problem was clarified. This finding is in line with the analysis of this study, and this is clearly demonstrated in screenshots #1, #2, #3 and #4.

The salient nonverbal behavior observed to engender repair alone in this data is leaning forward. It does not only accompany some repair initiation turns (Extract 2), but also it can itself work as a repair initiator as discussed in Extract 1. This finding is in line with Seo and Koshik's (2010) study in that the nonverbal behavior alone is understood to be initiating repair. This is a very significant finding and observation demonstrating the importance of nonverbal behavior in interaction. In the literature, Rasmussen (2014) argued that leaning forward combined with utterances contributes to better interaction. In her data Rasmussen found that leaning forward was used in the repair phases, which is also supported by Seo and Koshik's (2010) findings. But, in our study, leaning forward is commonly observed to occur in the repair-initiation phase. Still, Rasmussen's (2014) point is valid for our analysis as leaning forward physically embodies meanings in interaction. Hence, the findings of this study suggest that nonverbal phenomena are an essential part of the repair mechanism.

In line with Negi's (2009) suggestion about the functions of nonverbal behavior, the finding that leaning forward can itself initiate a repair can be seen as the "substitution" aspect that he mentioned. In this instance, the nonverbal behavior itself works as a repair initiator, which is a very rare and unique observation especially as a part of the repair

mechanism. Hence, it is "substituted" for the meaning (i.e. initiating a repair for a hearing problem) via embodiment.

As for the causes of the trouble source that leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear aim to solve, it is observed in the data that it is a hearing problem in both cases. This has been exemplified in the extracts. As seen in Extract 1 and 2, the students made self-correction via repetitions and slight revisions, which suggests that they considered it as a hearing problem. This finding is in contrast with Seo and Koshik (2010), who suggested that leaning forward is generally perceived as an understanding problem. This was seen in the responses of the students in their study. The students sometimes responded by reformulating and correcting the possible trouble source, which showed that they understood the nonverbal behavior as an understanding problem. This difference between the two studies may be due to the fact, as they stated in their study, students' language competency was an issue in Seo and Koshik (2010). However, as mentioned in the Methodology part, the participants in this current study had a relatively higher competency level. Accordingly, owing to the proficiency issues, leaning forward might have been used for understanding problems more in Seo and Koshik's study (2010). Pan (2014) suggested that leaning forward was used for showing interest to students' contributions; however, this observation was not found in the current study.

Balaman (2017) suggested that cupping the hand behind the ear accompanied by leaning forward is used for nomination in pre-schools; however, this function was not observed in our study. Cupping the hand behind the ear was observed to be understood as a repair initiation for hearing problems, and it sometimes accompanied leaning forward to other-initiate repair (Extract 2). Mortensen (2016) found that cupping the ear with hand indicated a hearing problem when it was stand alone; however, when there was a verbal repair initiation, it indicated that there was not a hearing problem. However, in the current study it was observed to initiate repair for only hearing problems. On the other hand, the finding about cupping the hand behind the ear is in line with Mortensen (2016) and Balaman (2017) considering the fact that it accompanied verbal initiation (Extract 2) unlike leaning forward. Finally, the findings on cupping the ear contrasted with Feshbach (1967, 8), who found that the teacher in that study used cupping her ear as a way to ensure that students "listen" to her when she asked questions. This was not observed in the current study; however, this may be due to the difference in context: the context in Feshbach's (1967) study was a reading class, and it was in the first language. As it was a first language context, there might have been less hearing problems (due to the lack of second/foreign language learners'

problems of pronunciation and lexical error that could lead to hearing problems) and thus this function may have been observed less or never.

Finally, as for the place of teachers' nonverbal language use as a part of interactional competence, it may be argued that it is a part of interactional competence (Markee, 2008). Leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear fit into the third dimension of Markee's (2008) interactional competence framework, which involves gaze and paralinguistic features. These nonverbal phenomena are shown to construct interaction in a moment by moment fashion (i.e. that is at the right moment in a transition relevant place) with reference to local needs. In this sense, these two moves are the interactional moves teachers utilized to achieve inter-subjectivity and pedagogic goals in the data. This is in line with studies such as Seo and Koshik (2010), Hayashi (2005) and Taleghani-Nikazm (2007) that see nonverbal behavior as communicative resources. By asking for repair through/with nonverbal behavior, teachers aim at clarifying the problems. The fact that the two nonverbal behaviors were used at a specific point and in an efficient way by the teachers indicates that this is a part of their interactional competence.

CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate how leaning forward and cupping the hand behind the ear contribute to repair initiation in an English as a second language context depending on the doctorate thesis by Atar (2016). Conversation Analysis was utilized, and the emic perspective was implemented by focusing on how the interlocutors oriented to the phenomenon. The analysis has shown that leaning forward can itself initiate repair without any verbal prompts, which is a rare observation in the literature. The fact that it makes a self-initiation of repair by the students relevant indicates that they are understood as a repair initiation by the students. In this sense, it is argued here that the two nonverbal phenomena in this study have a systematic organization (as an action and sequentially), and they were oriented to in this way by the interlocutors. These findings have contributed to the literature, and this study has demonstrated the significance of nonverbal behavior in interaction, which is evidenced by the fact that they can even initiate repair alone. Cupping the hand behind the ear has also been shown to contribute to initiating repair via embodiment and accompanying leaning forward. Then, this study adds to the understanding of both conversational repairs in classrooms and the use of nonverbal phenomena as a repair initiation.

This study analyzed only 8 classrooms hours of data. Although this amount of data is reliable and valid in CA studies as mentioned in Methodology, future studies with more data and/or in different contexts can offer insights into how these nonverbal phenomena work under

different circumstances. Also, in the future studies, further bottom-up studies can be undertaken to unearth other nonverbal phenomena that can initiate repair alone. Finally, the students in this study were in a higher education setting and their English level was high. Hence, students/teachers in primary and secondary schools and students with lower English proficiency level can be studied to see the effect of age and proficiency level.

REFERENCES

Alasuutari, P. (1995). *Researching culture: Qualitative method and cultural studies*. London: Sage.

Atar, C. (2016). *The sequential organization and management of teachers' other-initiation of clarification in second language classroom contexts* [Unpublished PhD thesis]. University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

Atkinson, J. M., & Heritage, J. (1984). Preference organization. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social interaction* (pp. 53-56). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Balaman, U. (2017). Embodied resources in a repetition activity in a preschool L2 classroom. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 12*(1), 27-51.

Cho, E. H., & Larke, P. J. (2010). Repair strategies usage of primary elementary ESL students: Implications for ESL teachers. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language, 14*(3), 1-18.

Feshbach, N. D. (1967). Variations in teachers' reinforcement style and imitative behavior of children differing in personality characteristics and social background. *CSEIP Technical Report No. 2*. University of California, Los Angeles.

Gardner, R. (2004). Conversation Analysis. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 262-284), Blackwell Publishing: Oxford.

Goodwin, C. (2003). Pointing as situated practice. In S. Kita (Eds.,) *Pointing: Where language, culture, and cognition meet* (pp. 217-241). Mahwah: LEA.

Gullberg, M. (1998). *Gesture as a communication strategy in second language discourse. A study of learners of French and Swedish*. Lund: Lund University Press.

Kääntä, L. (2010). *Teacher turn-allocation and repair practices in classroom interaction: A multisemiotic perspective.* [Unpublished PhD thesis]. University of Jyväskylä.

Kendon, A. (2004). *Gesture visible action in utterance*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kupetz, M. (2011). Multimodal resources in students' explanations in CLIL interaction. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 5*(1), 121-142.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2011). *An introduction to Conversation Analysis (2nd Edition)*. Continuum International Publishing group.

Macbeth, D. (2004). The relevance of repair for classroom correction. *Language in Society, 33*(5), 703-736.

Markee, N. (2008). *Conversation Analysis.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc: 10 Industrial Avenue Mahwah, NJ 07430.

Maroni, B. (2011). Pauses, gaps and wait time in classroom interaction in primary schools. *Journal of Pragmatics. 43*(7), 2081-2093.

McHoul, A. (1990). The organization of repair in classroom talk. *Language in society, 19*(3), 349-377.

Morris, D. (1994). *Body talk: A world guide to gestures.* London: Jonathan Cape.

Mortensen, K. (2012). Visual initiations of repair – some preliminary observations. In K. Ikeda & A. Brandt (Eds.), *Challenges and new directions in the micro-analysis of social interaction* (pp. 45-50). Osaka: Division of International Affairs, Kansai University.

Mortensen, K. (2016). The body as a resource for other-initiation of repair: Cupping the hand behind the ear. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 49*(1), 34-57.

Negi, S. J. (2009). The role of teachers' non-verbal communication in ELT classroom. *Journal of NELTA, 14*(1), 101-110.

Olsher, D. (2004). Talk and gesture: the embodied completion of sequential actions in spoken interaction. In R. Gardner, & J. Wagner (Eds.), *Second language conversations* (pp. 221–245). *London:* Continuum.

Pan, Q. (2014). Nonverbal teacher-student communication in the foreign language classroom. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 4*(12), 2627-2632.

Pekarek Doehler, S. (2010) Conceptual changes and methodological challenges: on language, learning and documenting learning in conversation analytic SLA research. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising learning in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 105-126). Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

Pomerantz, A. (1984). Agreeing and disagreeing with assessments: some features of preferred/dispreferred turn shapes. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structures of social action. Studies in*

Conversation Analysis (pp. 57-101). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rasmussen, G. (2014). Inclined to better understanding: The coordination of talk and 'leaning forward' in doing repair. *Journal of Pragmatics, 65*, 30-45.

Schegloff, E. A. (1986). The routine as achievement. *Human Studies, 9*, 111-51.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction. A primer in Conversation Analysis*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Schegloff, E. A., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation, *Language, 53*, 361-82.

Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A Conversation Analysis perspective.* Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Seo, M. & Koshik, I. (2010). A conversation analytic study of gestures that engender repair in ESL conversational tutoring. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*, 2219-2239.

Sert, O. (2017). Creating opportunities for L2 learning in a prediction activity. *System, 70*, 14-25.

Sidnell, J. (2010). *Conversation Analysis: An introduction*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Svennevig, J. (2008). Trying the easiest solution first in other-initiation repair. *Journal of Pragmatics, 40*, 333-348.

Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2007, October 11-14). *Gestures in foreign language classroom: an empirical analysis of their organizations and functions* [Conference presentation]. The Annual Conference of Second Language Research Forum, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, the USA.

ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing Conversation Analysis (2nd Edition)*. London: Sage.

Tellier, M. (2010). The effect of gestures on second language memorisation by young children. In M. Gullberg & K. de Bot. (Eds.), *Gestures in language development* (pp. 75-92). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Oxon: Routledge.

Young, R. F. (2008) *Language and interaction: A resource book.* Oxon: Routledge.

Appendix A

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

[text] : Indicates the start and end points of overlapping talk

= : A. Indicates an immediately followed turn by another speaker B. Indicates the continuation of an overlapped turn C. Indicates that a certain word/s is immediately followed by others

. : Indicates falling pitch or intonation

? : Indicates rising pitch or intonation

, : Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation

- : Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance

>text< : Indicates that the enclosed speech is delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker

<text> : Indicates that the enclosed speech is delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker

° : Indicates whisper, reduced volume or quiet speech

ALL CAPS : Indicates shouted or increased volume speech

<u>underline</u> : Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech

::: : Indicates prolongation of a sound

hh. : Audible exhalation

.hh : Audible inhalation

(text) : Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript

((*italic*)) : Annotation of non-verbal activity or some explanation

(.) : A brief pause, usually less then 0.2 seconds

(123) : A number in parenthesis indicates the time of a pause in seconds

(?) : Unintelligible speech

S? : Unidentified student

SS : More than one student altogether

(x/y) : alternative hearings of the same strip of talk

$: smiling voice

CHAPTER II

EFFECT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY ON TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' ONLINE LEARNING ANXIETY*

Yunus Doğan[1]

[1](Dr.) Fırat University , e-mail:jonah.saidson@gmail.com

ORCID 0000-0002-5038-3404

INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language is known to be a long and complex endeavor in which myriad of variables may interact and play a role. Unlike acquisition of a mother tongue or experience of a bilingual learning, foreign language learning in Turkey mostly takes place in classroom environments with pre-programmed learning experiences and within a certain period of time. On the other hand, there is a recent increase witnessed in the number of educational institutions giving foreign language courses online. Online delivery is the preferred instructional technology of post-secondary institutions for the future (Reynard, 2003). In the rush to provide online instruction across the educational spectrum, students' affective experiences in online courses were often overlooked in research up until recently (Hara & Kling, 1999).

In recent years, online language learners' affect has been associated with inadequate computer knowledge, dissatisfaction with the course and course components, and concern about Internet access and technical problems (Cheney, 2000; Conrad, 2002; Coryell & Clark; 2009). However, it is reported in the relevant literature that distance learning settings alone cannot provide the desired success in learning a foreign language owing to the subtle nature of languages different from other academic courses. It is further reported that anxiety may interfere with foreign language learning process to a substantial extent.

Foreign language anxiety in classroom-based language learning has a long history of research, but there are fewer studies examining this particular phenomenon with respect to the distance language learner

* The first version of this study was presented at the 6th International Eurasian Educational Research (EJER) Congress in 2019, 19-22 June; and its extended summary was published in the Conference Proceedings.

(Bollinger, 2017; Hurd & Xiao, 2010; Pichette, 2009; Hurd, 2007). The isolated context and the physical absence of tutor and peers suggest that FL anxiety might be intensified in a distance setting. Thus, It is predicted that students who are anxious about learning a foreign language in the classroom settings could feel more anxious when it comes to learn foreign languages in distance education environments, especially online, as there may be less interaction, instant feedback, and more incorporation of computer and internet technologies into the learning environment.

Literature Review

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Anxiety has always been known to interfere concentration, learning and test performance in learning environments (Woolfolk, Hughes & Walkup, 2008). However, the anxiety which is experienced in foreign language learning settings has its own unique characteristics. First coined by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope in 1986, the foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) is defined as *"a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process.*" (Horwitz et al, 1986). In other words, it is a term including worry feelings and negative fearful emotions associated with an individual's learning or using a non-native language ((MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

While MacIntyre & Gardner (1991) emphasize that learners do not come to foreign language learning environment with anxiety, but rather it emerges after their attitudes towards foreign language learning develop; possible reasons of the FLCA are reported to those related to learners themselves (Doğan, 2016; Huang, 2012), or to learning environment and teachers (Ewald, 2007; Young, 1991). In fact, foreign language learning itself is especially thought to be a process susceptible to anxiety-arousal (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Less anxiety levels are purported to be associated with a younger age of onset of acquisition, authentic use of the foreign language during learning, frequent current use of the foreign language, and a high degree of foreign language socialization (Dewaele, 2013).

The research on the FLCA has consistently reported its debilitating impact on language learning (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, 2000); and most recent large-scale meta-analyses show significant moderate negative correlations between FLCA and achievement in foreign language learning (Botes, Dewaele & Greiff, 2020; Teimouri, Goetze & Plonsky, 2019). It is further stated that anxiety may cause language learners to experience reduced cognitive skills, self-confidence, personal agency, control, willingness to communicate and ability to express and recognize emotions (Oxford, 2017). FLCA has also been found to the strongest negative

predictor of willingness to communicate in a foreign language (Dewaele, 2019), and one of the strongest predictors of success/failure in foreign language learning (MacIntyre, 1999).

Anxiety in Online Language Learning

Online education is defined as a "form of distance education that uses computers and the Internet as the delivery mechanism, with at least 80% of the course content delivered online" (Kentnor, 2015). The number of institutions offering online courses has now proliferated throughout the world due to such reasons as, inter alia, flexibility, accessibility and affordability provided by them (Sun & Chen, 2016). In fact, a number of meta-analyses and reviews (Sun & Chen, 2016, Nguyen, 2015; Means et al, 2013; Patrick & Powell, 2009) demonstrate that online learning is more effective than or at least as effective as traditional face-to-face learning. However, foreign language courses are said to be one of the most difficult courses to be learnt online due to the subtle nature of skills and knowledge necessary for language proficiency (Bollinger, 2017; Donahoe, 2010; Hurd, 2006). In this sense, it is stated that foreign language classes contained extra anxiety-triggering factors lack of instant feedback, difficulty assessing personal progress in comparison to other students, isolation, lack of opportunities for speaking practice, and lack of confidence during independent learning (Hurd, 2007). A study by Sun (2014) revealed some major difficulties students faced while adapting a fully online mode of language learning as (1) following the schedule and studying regularly, (2) getting hold of classmates and finding suitable time to work together, (3) pairing/teaming up and working collaboratively, (4) ensuring constant engagement with the class, (5) keeping self-motivated and being a self-directed learner, and (6) socializing.

Although the research on anxiety in conventional face-to-face learning environments is fully-fledged enough to provide us a lot of information on how to deal with it, there are only a few recent studies on anxiety in online language learning (Russell, 2020; Chametzky, 2019; Yang & Quadir, 2018; Shirvan & Taherian, 2018; Bárkányi & Melchor-Couto, 2017; Bollinger, 2017; Martin & Alvarez-Valdivia, 2017; Majid et al, 2012; Donahoe, 2010; Hurd & Xiao, 2010; Pichette, 2009; Hurd, 2007). Anxiety, which is purported to be one of the most important affective determinant in foreign language learning outcomes, may turn out to be a vicious cycle and thus be transferred to new learning experiences even when the teaching/learning modality changes. In that, the anxiety having developed earlier in face-to face foreign language classrooms could still be experienced in online learning settings. In recent years, more and more universities are offering online courses for such reasons as cost-effectiveness and diversity in teaching methodologies among many others. Within this context, Fırat University has already begun to be one of those

universities carrying out some undergraduate and graduate degree courses online. In the present study, it was aimed to determine whether the foreign language classroom anxiety the university students had already experienced predicted their online learning anxiety.

The scarcity of the research and the need for more research on the online foreign language anxiety is also emphasized by the researchers cited above. Thus, this research study could contribute to the understanding of the unique nature of the phenomenon in question.

METHOD

Research Design

This non-experimental quantitative study was designed with correlational method. Correlational research methods provide opportunities to explain relations between variables and to predict the results (Tekbıyık, 2014). The study aimed to understand to what extent the foreign language anxiety that is experienced within classroom settings predicts students' learning a foreign language online. To identify this, the present study tried to investigate:

1. What is the level of students' Distance Learning Anxiety

2. What is the level of students' Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

3. Whether there is any significant relationship between students' distance learning anxiety and their computer anxiety.

4. To what extent Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety predicts Online Learning Anxiety

Participants

This descriptive research was carried out with 476 students studying in various departments (i.e. Recreation, Sports Management, Coaching and Physical Education Teaching) of Sports Faculty at Fırat University. All the students had earlier face-to-face foreign language learning experience, and were taking an online language course for the first time. 76.3 % (n:363) of the participants were male students, while 23.7 % (n:113) of them were female students.

Data Collection Instruments

The data were collected with the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), and Distance Learning Anxiety Scale (DLAS). Dörnyei (2012) notes that although there is no problem with the conceptualization of anxiety within individual differences in SLA research, there is a general uncertainty about its wider classification, making it a strange variable. However, it is discernable from the relevant literature that

while interpreting the anxiety variable in foreign language learning studies, the factorial structure of anxiety proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) seems to be accepted as a theoretical basis and confirmed by many researchers (Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Gürsu, 2011). The FLCAS is a three-factor, 33-items 5-point Likert type scale developed by Horwitz et. al (1986). The DLAS is a one-factor, 6-items 5-point Likert type scale, developed by Horzum and Çakır (2012).

Data Analysis

For the analyses of the first and second research questions, such statistical techniques as mean and standard deviations were calculated. In order to identify the third and the fourth research questions Pearson's Correlation and Simple Linear Regression analyses were conducted. Before performing the analyses, the division of the skewness coefficient by its standard error and the critical value of the ± 1.96 interval at $\alpha = .05$ significance level were taken into account in order to determine whether the data showed normal distribution or not (Kalaycı, 2009; Bursal, 2017), and it was understood that the data showed a distribution close to normal . For the analyses of the data, SPSS 22 program was utilized.

Findings

Such statistical values as mean and standard deviation were calculated in order to understand the students' levels of online learning anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety. The results are presented in Table 1:

Table 1: Mean ($\overline{x}$) and Standard Deviation (ss) Values of the Scales

Scales	$\overline{x}$	**sd**
DLAS	3.11	.441
FLCAS	3.06	.609

From Table 1, it is discernable that the students experience moderate levels of online learning anxiety and foreign language learning anxiety. In order to identify whether there is a significant correlation between the students' online learning anxiety and their foreign language classroom anxiety, a Pearson Correlation Analysis was conducted.

Table 2: The Results of the Correlation Test

Correlations			
		OLAS	FLCAS
DLAS	Pearson Correlation	1	.545**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	476	476
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	.545**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	476	476

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

It is understood that there is a significantly positive correlation between these two anxieties (Correlation coefficient : .545; p: 0.000). The degree of correlation between Online Learning Anxiety and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety is above average. In order to identify to what extent Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety predicts Online Learning Anxiety a Simple Linear Regression Analysis was conducted.

Table 3: The Rsults of the Regression Analysis

Model Summary									
Model					Change Statistics				
	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.545[a]	.297	.296	.75958	.297	200.549	1	474	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), FLCAS

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.

1	(Constant)	.635	.179		3.553	.000
	FLCAS	.810	.057	.545	14.162	.000
a. Dependent Variable: DLAS						

It is understood that anxieties experienced by the students in face-to-face environments and online settings are closely correlated. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety predicts approximately 30 % of Online Learning Anxiety (R2 = .297) (p: .000)

DISCUSSION

Affective variables such as anxiety is claimed to partially determine whether an individual will reach his/her full potential as a language learner (MacIntyre, 1995). While anxiety can be a factor in language learning in all contexts, there are more likely to be anxious learners at a distance than in the classroom. Within the present study, it was revealed that the students simultaneously have moderate level of foreign language anxiety as well as online learning anxiety. It is reported in a study by Pitchette (2009) that there is no difference in anxiety profiles between face-to-face and distance learners, which is interpreted as that anxiety should be rejected as a possible reason for learners to engage in online learning. However, this is not the case with the present study. As in accordance with the hypothesis of the study, it is seen that there is a positive correlation between the students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their online learning anxiety; moreover foreign language classroom anxiety affects learning foreign languages online. As foreign language classroom anxiety makes students unwilling to communicate with their friends in the classroom, it may be anticipated that some students prefer distance learning for this particular reason and to look for security in anonymity, more than other factors. Indeed, it is purported that online language teachers frequently report significant amounts of anxiety and lack of self-confidence reflected in students' concerns about the course and its components (Pichette, 2009). There are many international and national studies done experimentally and non-experimentally that show clearly that the anxiety that is experienced by the individual when learning a foreign language especially within classroom settings interrupts their learning process and decreases the expected academic success (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, 2010; Doğan, 2016). Therefore, it is postulated in the present study that the foreign language anxiety that the students have brought with themselves from the face-to-face learning enviroments is transfered to distance education settings.

In a study comparing the anxiety and non-anxiety in a distance language learning environment by taking the distance factor as a modifying influence (Hurd, 2007), The findings indicated that although there were areas in which distance language learners shared aspects of anxiety with face-to-face learners, the distance factor could be causally linked to some marked differences with regard to the nature and extent of language anxiety. This study complements the above-mentioned study in the sense that students may have developed a sense of foreign language anxiety in classroom settings and brought them to online settings to some extent. It is hypothesized by Pichette (2009) that foreign language classroom anxiety might in particular be existing in online learning settings because foreign language classes are naturally disciplines in which learners are supposed to interact verbally with their peers. That is, it is natural to expect to see foreign language classroom anxiety in online learning environments as well. Similarly, we saw in the present study that those students who have developed anxiety towards language learning may still experience more anxiety in online settings. But of course there is a 70 % of online learning anxiety which cannot be explained by classroom anxiety.

An array of probable reasons are suggested in the relevant literature for the anxiety experienced in online language classes. A mismatch between a learner's expectation and experience and a kind of technophobia felt towards an online learning environment are given as possible stimulants of online learning anxiety (Chametzky, 2019). Being forced into online language learning and lack of learners' agency in the selection of their instructional delivery mode is also claimed to be a source of anxiety (Russell, 2020). It is clear from the present study that, the foreign language anxiety that was born in face-to-face classroom settings could explain one-third of the anxiety that emerges in online language learning. On the other hand, it is kept in mind that the learners in the present study were taking their first online language course, thus may have probably experienced a kind of unique anxiety that is interwoven not only with their previous classroom experiences but also with their worry-triggering obscurity in terms of the components of the online learning itself. Therefore, it is postulated that this kind of an anxiety should possibly decrease to some extent when the learners advance in taking more online classes. This fact is supported by Pichette (2009)'s study in which levels of anxiety perceived dwindled among more advanced learners.

CONCLUSION

In spite of the advantages it provides especially for tertiary level students, taking a course online may turn out to be an anxious endeavour

for EFL learners. While this apprehension is reported to be related to the very natural characteristics of the learning environment itself such as obligation of using computers and internet, it may also be associated with the online delivery mode of teaching/learning any course (Bolliger & Halupa, 2012). On the other hand, earlier anxiety experiences may account for a part of the anxiety the students develop in online settings. In this regard, this study identified that the foreign language anxiety Turkish EFL learners experienced earlier in their classroom learning could be associated with the anxiety developed in online environment; and the foreign language classroom anxiety predicts the online learning anxiety to a significant extent. To this end, the foreign language classroom anxiety scale and the online learning anxiety scale were conducted on 476 students taking an obligatory English language course online for the first time. As a result, it was understood that the students had moderate levels of both foreign language classroom anxiety and online learning anxiety. There was a positive correlation between the two anxieties, and nearly 30 % of the online learning anxiety was predicted by the foreign language classroom anxiety.

There are certainly some limitations to be taken into account while interpreting the findings of this study. First of all, no clarification was made in terms of the anxiety scale used to measure the learners' online anxiety. In that, although the researcher meant to gauge the learners' foreign language anxiety in online settings, the scale used for this purpose is rather intended to measure the students' general anxiety in an online course. Indeed, this might make difference if a scale especially developed to measure the learners' online foreign language anxiety were used. In the second place, it is not clear whether the students thought about their earlier foreign language classroom anxiety experiences even though they were told to do so. Moreover, the limitations of a correlational research and regression analysis should also be noted.

It is obvious from the findings of this study that foreign language learners may come to especially their first online language courses with a chronic foreign language anxiety. Therefore, it is suggested to identify learners' language development and digital literacy in the beginning as this can assist instructors in determining the types of support necessitated for each learner to be successful in the online learning setting (Russell, 2020; Goertler, 2011). Further research studies utilizing multiple regression analyses or structural equation modellings are recommended to identify in detail the subtle structure of the online foreign language anxiety.

REFERENCES

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-167.

Bárkányi, Z., & Melchor-Couto, S. (2017). Foreign language anxiety on a massive open online language course. In K. Borthwick, L. Bradley & S. Thouësny (Eds), *CALL in a climate of change: adapting to turbulent global conditions – short papers from EUROCALL 2017* (pp. 24-29). Research-publishing.net. https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2017. eurocall2017.683

Bolliger, D. U., & Halupa, C. (2012). Student Perceptions of Satisfaction and Anxiety in An Online Doctoral Program. *Distance Education*, 33(1), 81-98.

Bollinger, A.S. (2017). *Foreign Language Anxiety in Traditional and Distance Learning Foreign Language Classrooms*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA.

Botes, E., Dewaele, J-M., Greiff, S. (2020). The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and Academic Achievement: An Overview of the Prevailing Literature and a Meta-Analysis. *Journal for the Psychology of Language Learning*, 2, 26-56.

Bursal, M. (2017). *SPSS ile Temel Veri Analizleri*. Anı Yayıncılık, Ankara.

Chametzky, B. (2019). The Online World Languages Anxiety Scale (OWLAS). *Creative Education*, 10(1), 59-77. DOI: 10.4236/ce.2019.101005.

Cheney, C. O. (2000, March).Combining dis-tance education and Web applications for acourse on collaboration in special education.Paper presented at Capitalizing on Leadershipin Rural Education conference, Alexandria,VA.

Cheng, Y S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language writing anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, 49, 417-446.

Conrad, D.L. (2002). Engagement, Excitement, Anxiety, and Fear: Learners' Experiences of Starting an Online Course. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 16(4), 205-226.

Coryell, J.E., & Clark, M.C. (2009). One Right Way, Intercultural Participation, and Language Learning Anxiety: A Qualitative

Analysis of Adult Online Heritage and Nonheritage Language Learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(3), 483-504.

Cueno, C.J., & Harnish, D. (2002, April). The Lost Generation in E-Learning: Deep and Surface Approaches to Online Learning. 831.d Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association Division C: Investigations of online learning environments New Orleans.

Dewaele, J.-M. (2013). *Emotions in multiple languages* (2nd ed.) Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dewaele, J-M. (2019). The Effect of Classroom Emotions, Attitudes Toward English, and Teacher Behavior on Willingness to Communicate among English Foreign Language Learners. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 38(4), 523-535. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X19864996

Dewaele, J-M., & MacIntyre, P.D. (2014). The Two Faces of Janus? Anxiety and Enjoyment in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 237-274. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.5

Doğan, Y. (2016). *Examination of prep-class students' metacognitive awareness, self - efficacy beliefs, foreign language anxiety levels, foreign language attitudes and academic achievement in foreign language* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Fırat University, Elazığ, Turkey.

Donahoe, T. (2010). *Language Anxiety in the Online Environment: An Exploratory Study of a Secondary Online Spanish Class*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, Pepperdine University.

Ewald, J.D. (2007). Foreign language learning anxiety in upper-level classes: Involving students as researchers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40(1), 122-142.

Goertler, S. (2011). Blended and open/online learning: Adapting to a changing world of foreign language teaching. In N. Arnold & L. Ducate (Eds.), *Present and future promises of CALL: From theory and research to new directions in language teaching* (pp. 471–502). San Marcos, TX: CALICO.

Gürsu, F. (2011). *The Turkish Equivalence, Validity, and Reliability Study of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale*. Unpublished

Ph.D Dissertation, Yeditepe University Social Sciences Institute, İstanbul.

Hara, N., & Kling, R. (1999). Students' Frustrations with a Web-Based Distance Education Course. *First Monday*, 4(12), https://firstmonday.org/ojs/index.php/fm/issue/view/100.

Horwitz, E. K. (2000). It ain't over 'til it's over: On foreign language anxiety, first language deficits, and the confounding of variables. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84(2), 256– 259. 10.1111/0026-7902.00067

Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 112–126. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190501000071.

Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching*, 43, 154-167.

Horwitz, E.K, Horwitz, M.B., & Cope, J.A. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.

Horzum, M.B., & Çakır, Ö. (2012). Structural Equation Modeling in Readiness, Willingness and Anxiety of Secondary School Students about the Distance Learning. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences 47 (2012) 369-375, doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.665.

Huang, J. (2012). *Overcoming Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.: New York.

Hurd, S. (2006). Individual Learner Differences and Distance Language Learning: An Overview. *RTVU ELT Express*, 12(4).

Hurd, S. (2007). Anxiety and non-anxiety in a distance language learning environment: The distance factor as a modifying influence. *System, 35*, 487-508.

Hurd, S., & Xiao, J. (2010). Anxiety and affective control among distance language learners in China and the UK. *RELC Journal, 41*(2), 183-200. doi: 10.1177/0033688210373640.

Kalaycı, Ş. (2009). *SPSS Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Teknikleri*. Asil Yayın, 4. Baskı.

Kentnor, H. (2015). Distance Education and the Evolution of Online Learning in the United States. *Curriculum and Teaching Dialogue*, 17(1-2), 21-34

Macintyre, P. D. (1995). How does anxiety affect second language learning? A reply to Sparks and Ganschow. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(1), 90–99.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language teaching: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp. 24-45). Boston: Mc Graw-Hill.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R.C. (1991). Methods and Results in the Study of Anxiety and Language Learning: A Review of the Literature. *Language Learning*, 41 (1): 85-117.

MacIntyre, P., & Gregersen, T. (2012). Affect: The Role of Language Anxiety and Other Emotions in Language Learning. Mercer, S., Ryan, S. & Williams, M. (Eds.). *Psychology for Language Learning*. Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 103- 116.

Majid, F.A., Sharil, W.N.E.H., Luaran, J.E., & Nadzri, F.A. (2012). A Study on the On-Line Language Learning Anxiety among Adult Learners. *International Journal of e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning*, 2(3), 187-192.

Martin, S., & Alvarez-Valdivia, I.M. (2017). Students' Feedback Beliefs and Anxiety in Online Foreign Language Oral Tasks. *Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 14:18. DOI 10.1186/s41239-017-0056-z.

Means, B., Toyama, Y., Murphy, R., & Baki, M. (2013). The Effectiveness of Online and Blended Learning: A Meta-analysis of the Empirical Literature. *Teachers College Record*, 115, 030303.

Nguyen, T. (2015). The Effectiveness of Online Learning: Beyond No Significant Difference and Future Horizons. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, 11(2), 309-319.

Oxford, R.L. (2017). Anxious language learners can change their minds: Ideas and strategies from traditional psychology and Positive Psychology. In C. Gkonou, M. Daubney & J.- M. Dewaele (Eds.), *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, Research and Educational Implications* (pp. 177–197). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Patrick, S., & Powell, A. (2009). *A Summary of Research on the Effectiveness of K-12 Online Learning*. International Association for K-12 Online Learning.

Pichette, F. (2009). Second Language Anxiety and Distance Language Learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1): 77-92.

Reynard, R. (2003). Internet-Based ESL for Distance Adult Students-A Framework for Dynamic Language Learning. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 60(2), 123-143. DOI: 10.3138/cmlr.60.2.123.

Rodriguez, M. & Abreu, O. (2003). The stability o f general foreign language classroom anxiety across English and French. *Modern Language Journal*, 87, 365-74.

Roed, J. (2003). Language learner behaviour in a virtual environment. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*,16, 155–172.

Russell, V. (2020). Language Anxiety and the Online Learner. *Foreign Language Annals*, 53:338-352. doi: 10.1111/flan.12461

Saito, Y, Horwitz, E. K., & Garza, T.J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 83, 202-218.

Shirvan, M.E., & Taherian, T. (2018). Anxiety Dynamics in a Virtual Foreign Language Learning Course. *KSJ*, 6(4), 411-436. doi: 10.30438/ksj.2018.6.4.3

Sun, A., & Chen, X. (2016). Online education and its effective practice: A research review. *Journal of Infor-mation Technology Education: Research, 15*, 157-190.

Sun, S.Y.H. (2014). Learner Perspectives on Fully Online Language Learning. *Distance Education*, 35(1), 18-42. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2014.891428

Teimouri, Y., Goetze, J., & Plonsky, L. (2019). Second language anxiety and achievement: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 41(2), 489-489. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263118000311

Tekbıyık, A. (2014). İlişkisel Araştırma Yöntemi. *Kuramdan Uygulamaya Eğitimde Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri* (Editör: Mustafa Metin), Pegem Akademi, Ankara, pp.99-114.

Woolfolk, A., Hughes, M., & Walkup, V. (2008). *Psychology in Education*. Pearson Longman: England.

Yang, J. C., & Quadir, B. (2018). Effects of Prior Knowledge on Learning Performance and Anxiety in an English Learning Online Role-Playing Game. *Educational Technology & Society*, 21 (3), 174–185.

Young, D.J. (1991). Creating a Low-Anxiety Classroom Environment: What does Language Anxiety Research Suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75 (4), 426-439.

CHAPTER III

SUSTAINABILITY IN COMPULSORY ENGLISH CURRICULA FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION: COMPETENCIES AND COMPONENTS

M. Pınar Babanoğlu[1] & Reyhan Ağçam[2]

[1] *(Assoc. Prof. Dr.), Mersin University, Turkey, e-mail: pinarbab@hotmail.com*
0000-0001-8166-974X

[2] *(Asst. Prof. Dr.), Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University, e-mail: reyhanagcam@gmail.com*
0000-0002-5445-9031

‘Tis education forms the common mind; just as the twig is bent, the tree’s inclined.”

Alexander Pope, 1734

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is a paradigm for thinking about a future in which environmental, social and economic considerations are balanced in the pursuit of development and an improved quality of life (UNESCO, 2012, p. 1). It is one of the most highlighted phenomena in economic, cultural, social, ecological and political restructuring and rearrangement of the world and now the ultimate aim of every nation for the sake of our common future in abstract and concrete terms. Shifting from previous paradigm of economic development which had adverse effects and consequences on society and environment, the current paradigm relies on three interrelated components (UNESCO, 2012), as shown in Figure 1.

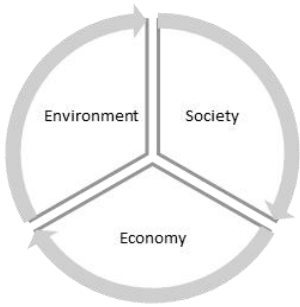


Figure 1. Visualization of sustainability (UNESCO, 2012)

According to the new approach, the three intertwined spheres of sustainability serve a balanced system for the humanity. Quite related to this term, sustainable development (SD, henceforth) refers to the ways and processes to achieve the goal of sustainability (UNESCO, 2012). It is defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987) and distinguished from the term sustainability in the Education for Sustainable Development Sourcebook released by UNESCO (2012),

> Sustainability is often thought of as a long-term goal (i.e. a more sustainable world), while sustainable development refers to the many processes and pathways to achieve it (e.g. sustainable agriculture and forestry, sustainable production and consumption, good government, research and technology transfer, education and training, etc.) (p. 1).

In a similar fashion, Golusin and Ivanović (2009) identify it as a multi-dimensional phenomenon which "has a goal to integrate economic, ecological, social and institutional subsystem into a whole, taking care of their mutual influence" (p. 67). All in all, it aims at development and well-being of communities, and constructing and sustaining wealthy communities living in healthy environments with adequate food, clean water and air and other resources for a sustainable world. Parallel to this loop of prosperity, several principles are identified to achieve SD goals including cultural development and communication, equity of gender, reduction of poverty, generating peace and tolerance, conscious responsibility to protect environment and resources. For its undeniable role in the broad acceptance of these principles and embodying the concept of sustainability with a focus on lifelong learning and achievements,

education comprises one of the goals of SD. Furthermore, it is among the global matters that are immediately influenced by the winds of change along with environment, technology, economy and society; hence, its mechanisms are also subject to modernization and redefinition in parallel with global transformations and related consequences of these transformations. Hence, in line with SD goals, the UN and UNESCO promoted education for sustainable development (ESD, hereafter) paradigm in 2014 which involves considering an interconnected trivet of environment, society and economy. Accordingly, it is documented that ecological and environmental issues affect people and the world economy, and that social justice, values and attitudes have direct impacts on economic and environmental systems leading us to conclude that economy is one of the most significant global phenomena almost directly related to social and environmental issues. This alternating triangle constructs the roots of SD from which education receives its share with emerging needs of the new approaches, innovations, essential transformations; thereby, rearrangements in pedagogical theories and practices have emerged in the name of ESD. In general terms, major aim of ESD is to develop individuals' competencies to think and act in favour of SD considering the fact that sustainable citizens are those who are well-aware of their own actions and responsibilities on social, economic and environmental facts from both local and global perspectives. As a matter of fact, it has come out to help nations raise future generations equipped with essential knowledge, skills and awareness about a sustainable and peaceful world for better tomorrows. For these very reasons, it addresses the quality of education with a global perspective not only focusing on environmental, economic and social bases but also promoting learning skills, perspectives and values while considering cultural diversity for the sake of sustainable global regulations in the future. Accordingly, pedagogical conceptualization and understanding of ESD is described by UNESCO (2012) as:

> "ESD is holistic and transformational education that addresses learning content and outcomes, pedagogy and the learning environment. Thus, ESD does not only integrate contents such as climate change, poverty and sustainable consumption into the curriculum; it also creates interactive, learner-centred teaching and learning settings." (p. 7)

In that regard, it is also significant to note that any kind of education that starts at early stages of life has lifelong effects on a person as emphasized in the quote by Alexander Pope in 18th century. That is, since an adult's behaviours and actions are inevitably seeded and acquired/learned during childhood, the behaviours and actions formed

during this period are relatively more sustainable than those acquired/learned at later ages. The fact of early start is apparently a key issue especially for 21st century, which welcomes rapid and constant developments and related changes of different aspects, in terms of training conscious individuals to meet the demands and expectations of the era. As a result, 21st century educational systems have been re-identified considering this particular age-related concern and within the framework of ESD and in congruence with the UN's 2030 goals for SD. Quite in line with this, there is a strong need for reconsidering and reorienting school curricula to involve the ESD fundamentals and setting the pedagogical instructions and contents parallel to SD goals. Foreign language education and the related school curricula are no exception in this sense due to the fact that the earlier a foreign language is acquired/learned, the more proficiently it is used in adulthood regardless of whether it is acquired/learned for academic purposes or personal achievement (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Lenneberg, 1967). In a much broader sense, societies' needs to negotiate and cooperate on common issues require successful and fruitful communication via a common language so that social environment can be constructed and protected properly. At this point, foreign language education turns out to be an essential component of sustainability-based future as stated by Zygmunt (2016):

> "The need for a successful construction of a social environment and its protection must be clearly understood and globally accepted. En route to the goal, one more need emerges; namely, this is the need for language education which would view a language user as a partner in negotiations and discussions over environmental issues and an interlocutor sensitive to environmental dangers. That is why, language education, especially foreign language education becomes a corner stone of education for sustainable development viewed in a holistic way" (p. 116).

It is now unfeasible to imagine foreign language teaching/learning area without a global approach that includes sustainability to adapt future's world. In 2030 Agenda for SD, Goal 4 indicates to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all and Goal 4, 4.7 involves ensuring all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote SD through education including human rights and gender equality mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies; (b) curricula; (c) teacher education; (d) student assessment (p. 8). Therefore, ESD addressing not only knowledge based on environment, society and economy but also learning skills, values and perspectives

should be included in a formal curriculum to address sustainability (United Nations, 2017, p. 18).

It is well-documented that English became a 'lingua franca' with an increasing effect on societies through invasions, immigrations and trade for ages and that it has now turned out to be a dominating entity in the areas of technology, economy, education and internet. Besides, owing to the fact that second/foreign learners/users of English throughout the world have outnumbered its monolinguals (Eberhard, Simons & Fennig, 2019), it would not be hyperbolic to identify it as a global phenomenon. Identifications attributed to role of English such as English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), World Englishes (WE) (Kırmızı & Dağdeviren-Kırmızı, 2017) mainly account for its global role on theoretical and pedagogical dimensions of the updates in the field of EFL learning and teaching. Even more, English is thought to undertake the responsibility of communication of SD especially when considering that ESD and EFL have more in common and support each other for the benefit of world citizens in a path to reach out the identified global goals. In the light of these assumptions and moving from the fact that curriculum of foreign language teaching is a significant tool to project ESD goals while providing target language essentials for learners to acquire/learn, EFL curriculum needs to be revised, reconstructed or 'reoriented' under ESD paradigm as "reorienting education to address sustainability is something that should occur throughout the formal education system - that includes universities, professional schools (e.g., law and medicine), and technical schools in addition to primary and secondary education" (McKeown et al., 2002, p. 15).

The review of the existing literature on ESD integration into school curricula shows that previous research has been conducted on the engagement with ESD at tertiary level (Woo et al, 2012; Ryan & Tilbury, 2013; Libunao & Peter, 2013; Padmanabhan & Singh, 2016; Durrani, Malik & Jumani, 2019; Listyarini, 2019; Melles, 2019; Schrage, 2015; Longhurst & Gough, 2018; Smardon & Reiter, 2018; Longhurst & Gough, 2020; Mathews, Oats & Kgotlaetsile, 2020), integration of ESD into science curriculum and textbook (Özsoy, 2019; Tatlılıoğlu, 2019), integration of ESD into secondary school curricula (Chalmers, 2007) and integration of ESD into language education and foreign language curriculum (Jodoin, 2019; Jodoin & Singer, 2019). Gürsoy (2010) informed that integration of environmental education to primary English as a foreign language lessons increased students' environmental awareness and resulted in meaningful second/ foreign language learning. In a more recent study, Lavrysh and Lytovchenko (2019) worked on the integration of SD approaches into English classes at the tertiary level in Ukraine and found that some of the approaches increased students' sustainability

awareness and level of motivation and fostered their learning. Cvikić and Dobravac (2020) analysed the Croatian and English FL curricula to see whether ESD is promoted in Croatian primary education and concluded that both curricula support the development of ESD key competencies. The researchers also indicated a large number of outcomes that cannot be directly related to ESD key competencies in the curricula in concern. Haan (2020) conducted a study on the integration of ESD into EFL classrooms with the participation of high school teachers in the Netherlands and reported a low integration that needs to be improved. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, foreign language curricula have not been previously analysed regarding ESD competencies in Turkey where English is dominantly taught as a compulsory part of school curricula. Hence, in order to bridge the research gap, this study exclusively scrutinized the English curricula for primary and secondary education to reveal whether and to what extent they are compatible with ESD paradigm and SD goals.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research data were compiled from English curricula for primary and secondary education in Turkey that are available on the official website of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE). They were subjected to content analysis in order to reveal whether and to what extent they are designed to attain ESD goals considering that ESD approach primarily involves setting learning objectives to attain competencies for the ultimate achievement of SD goals. These competencies are needed for future generations to understand and implement SD goals and to become sustainable citizens. Table 1 illustrates ESD competency domains and their basic components that were investigated throughout the curriculum content (e.g. knowledge, attitude and practice).

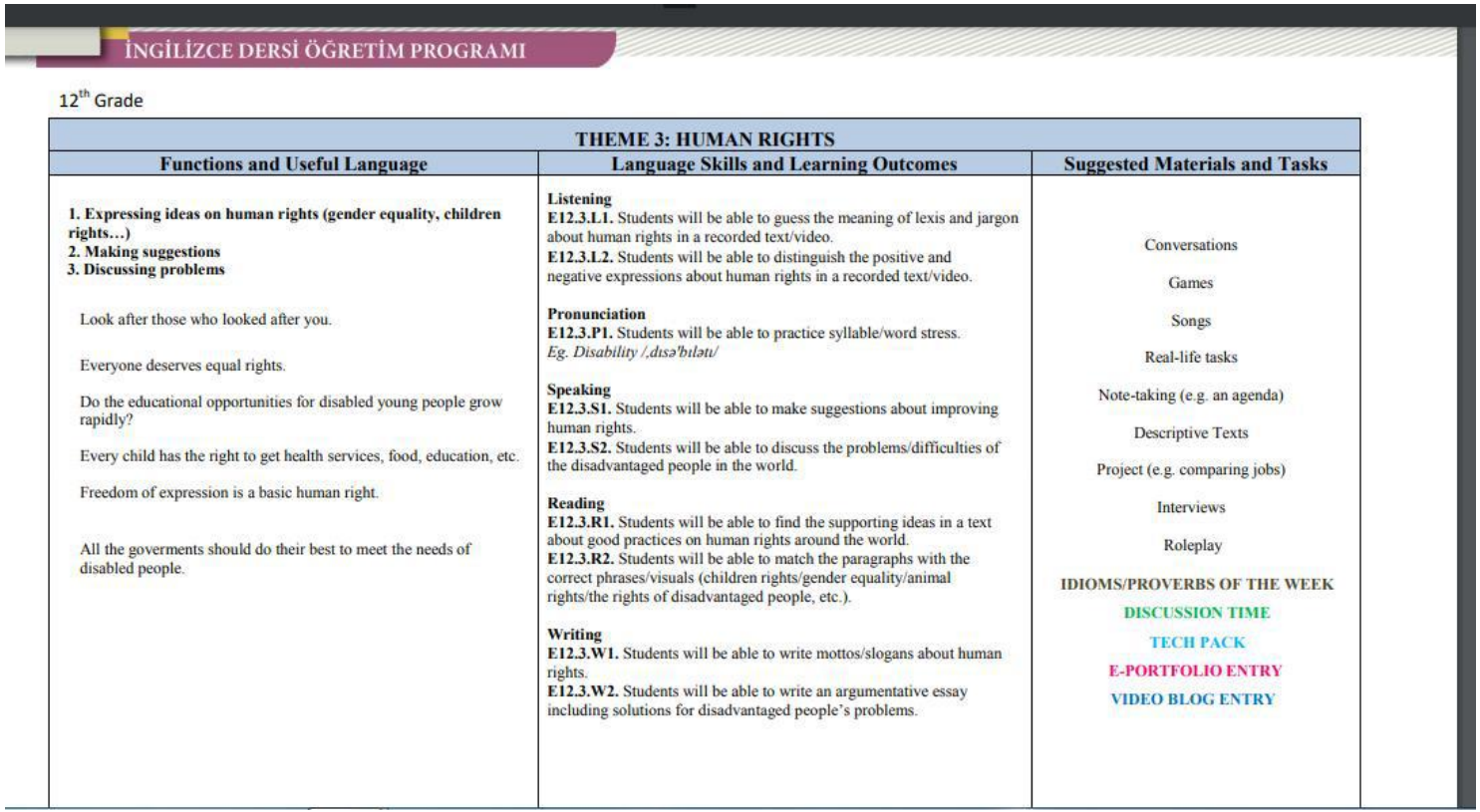
Table 1. ESD competency domains

Knowledge **(Cognitive domain; knowledge and thinking skills)**	**Attitude** **(Socio-emotional domain; social skills)**	**Practice** **(Behavioural domain; action competencies)**
S	Strategic competency	Self-awareness competency
Anticipatory competency	Collaboration competency	Integrated problem-solving competency
Normative competency	Critical thinking competency	

Table 1 suggests that ESD competency domain of knowledge has to do with individuals' cognitive skills while that of attitude and practice are, respectively, related to their social skills and behaviours. Components of ESD to address sustainability, on the other hand, consist of five topics to reorient education: (i) knowledge, (ii) issues, (iii) skills, (iv) perspectives, and (v) values. It is assumed that ESD is more than a knowledge base; it rather focuses on environment, economy and society and emphasizes learning skills, perspectives and values that students need to acquire when they become sustainable adults. The ESD components in concern are as follows:

- Knowledge: basic knowledge about SD topics as environmental, social and economic.
- Issues: problems about SD topics as social environmental, economic.
- Skills: abilities: communicate effectively, think about systems, think in time, think critically about values, move from awareness to action, work cooperatively, use processes (know, inquire, act, judge, imagine, connect, value, choose)
- Perspectives: looking at issues and forecasting possible consequences.
- Values: value traditions, gender, ethnicity, immigrants, religion, disability gender. etc.

A theme in the secondary English curriculum typically consists of three sections: (i) functions and useful language, (ii) language skills and learning outcomes and (iii) suggested materials and tasks, as illustrated in Figure 2.



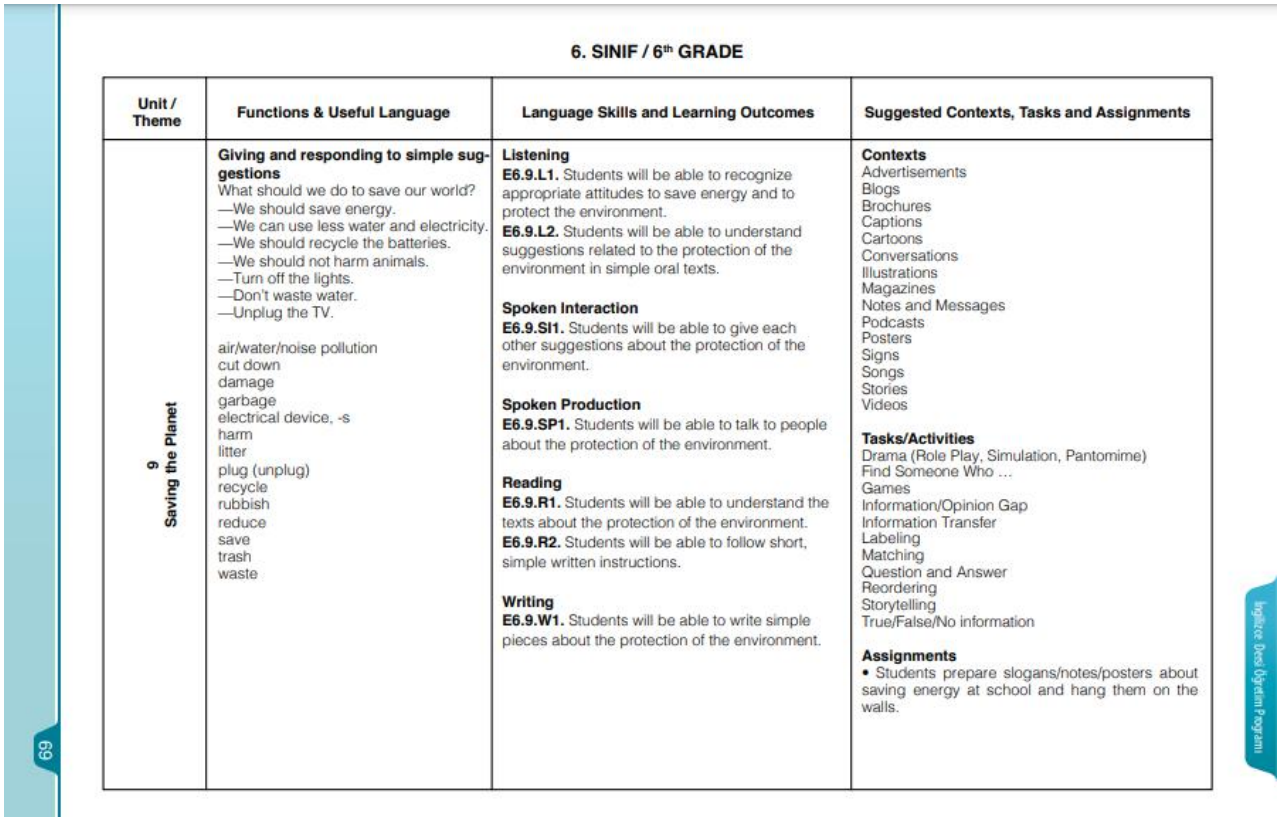
İNGİLİZCE DERSİ ÖĞRETİM PROGRAMI

12th Grade

THEME 3: HUMAN RIGHTS		
Functions and Useful Language	**Language Skills and Learning Outcomes**	**Suggested Materials and Tasks**
1. Expressing ideas on human rights (gender equality, children rights…) **2. Making suggestions** **3. Discussing problems** Look after those who looked after you. Everyone deserves equal rights. Do the educational opportunities for disabled young people grow rapidly? Every child has the right to get health services, food, education, etc. Freedom of expression is a basic human right. All the goverments should do their best to meet the needs of disabled people.	**Listening** **E12.3.L1.** Students will be able to guess the meaning of lexis and jargon about human rights in a recorded text/video. **E12.3.L2.** Students will be able to distinguish the positive and negative expressions about human rights in a recorded text/video. **Pronunciation** **E12.3.P1.** Students will be able to practice syllable/word stress. *Eg. Disability /ˌdɪsəˈbɪlətɪ/* **Speaking** **E12.3.S1.** Students will be able to make suggestions about improving human rights. **E12.3.S2.** Students will be able to discuss the problems/difficulties of the disadvantaged people in the world. **Reading** **E12.3.R1.** Students will be able to find the supporting ideas in a text about good practices on human rights around the world. **E12.3.R2.** Students will be able to match the paragraphs with the correct phrases/visuals (children rights/gender equality/animal rights/the rights of disadvantaged people, etc.). **Writing** **E12.3.W1.** Students will be able to write mottos/slogans about human rights. **E12.3.W2.** Students will be able to write an argumentative essay including solutions for disadvantaged people's problems.	Conversations Games Songs Real-life tasks Note-taking (e.g. an agenda) Descriptive Texts Project (e.g. comparing jobs) Interviews Roleplay **IDIOMS/PROVERBS OF THE WEEK** **DISCUSSION TIME** **TECH PACK** **E-PORTFOLIO ENTRY** **VIDEO BLOG ENTRY**

Figure 2. Screenshot of 12th grade unit in secondary English curriculum

As seen in Figure 2, the statements in function and useful language section such as '*Everyone deserves equal rights*', '*Freedom of expression is a basic human right*' and '*Every child has the right to get health services, food and education, etc.*' can be directly associated with SD Goal 4 (quality education) and Goal 16 (peace, justice and strong intuitions) that also meet the ESD priorities. For instance, the learning outcome of '*Students will be able to guess the meaning of lexis and jargon about human rights in a recorded text/video*' can be attributed to ESD knowledge, issues, skills, perspectives and value components (E12.3.L1.; codes of grade, theme and learning outcome). Another sample from primary English curriculum is demonstrated in Figure 3.



6. SINIF / 6th GRADE

Unit / Theme	Functions & Useful Language	Language Skills and Learning Outcomes	Suggested Contexts, Tasks and Assignments
9 Saving the Planet	**Giving and responding to simple suggestions** What should we do to save our world? —We should save energy. —We can use less water and electricity. —We should recycle the batteries. —We should not harm animals. —Turn off the lights. —Don't waste water. —Unplug the TV. air/water/noise pollution cut down damage garbage electrical device, -s harm litter plug (unplug) recycle rubbish reduce save trash waste	**Listening** **E6.9.L1.** Students will be able to recognize appropriate attitudes to save energy and to protect the environment. **E6.9.L2.** Students will be able to understand suggestions related to the protection of the environment in simple oral texts. **Spoken Interaction** **E6.9.SI1.** Students will be able to give each other suggestions about the protection of the environment. **Spoken Production** **E6.9.SP1.** Students will be able to talk to people about the protection of the environment. **Reading** **E6.9.R1.** Students will be able to understand the texts about the protection of the environment. **E6.9.R2.** Students will be able to follow short, simple written instructions. **Writing** **E6.9.W1.** Students will be able to write simple pieces about the protection of the environment.	**Contexts** Advertisements Blogs Brochures Captions Cartoons Conversations Illustrations Magazines Notes and Messages Podcasts Posters Signs Songs Stories Videos **Tasks/Activities** Drama (Role Play, Simulation, Pantomime) Find Someone Who ... Games Information/Opinion Gap Information Transfer Labeling Matching Question and Answer Reordering Storytelling True/False/No information **Assignments** • Students prepare slogans/notes/posters about saving energy at school and hang them on the walls.

Figure 3. Screenshot of 6th grade unit in primary English curriculum

Figure 3 suggests that the theme of 'Saving the planet' aims to '*enable students to recognize appropriate attitudes to save energy and to protect the environment*' (learning outcome E6.9.L1) by introducing the vocabulary relevant to this particular theme (e.g., recycle, damage, cut-down, waste, .. etc.).

It is noteworthy that each curriculum is comprised of 10 study units (themes) for each grade; thus, there are 70 units in primary English curriculum (from 2nd to 8th grades) and 40 units in secondary English curriculum (from 9th to 12th grades). Consequently, a total of 110 units in the primary and secondary English curricula were analyzed with a close look at learning objectives, contents and outcomes regarding SD goals and ESD components. It is significant to note that the two curricula were revised and redesigned by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in 2017 in accordance with the 2012 education reform.

RESULTS

The English curricula for primary and secondary education were analysed using content analysis to seek contents and objectives that can be attributed to ESD principles and SD goals. As a result, the traces of ESD competencies and components in the two curricula are respectively presented. Table 2 is intended to provide the competencies that were designed in congruence with ESD principles in the primary English curriculum.

Table 2. ESD competencies in the primary English curriculum

English Curriculum of Primary Education (2nd-8th)					
General Learning Objectives	**Grade**	**Unit No & Theme (out of 10 units in each grade)**	**Language Function/Content**	**ESD Competency**	**ESD Dimension**
-EU Competencies: Traditional, Digital, Horizontal skills	**2nd**	-	-	-	-
	3rd	10.Nature	-nature/ animal names (forest, sea, dolphin, bear,..)	Knowledge	Environment
-CEFR (A1-A2)	**4th**	2.Nationality	-different people's nationalities	Knowledge & Attitude	Society

-**Values Education:** key values as friendship, justice, honesty, self-control, patience, respect, love, responsibility, patriotism, altruism (in ref.to UNESCO ,1995)	**5th**	5.The Animal Shelter	-save, feed	Knowledge & Attitude	Environment Society
	6th	9.Saving the Planet	-waste, trash, recycle, reduce, harm, electrical devices, air/water/noise pollution	Knowledge, Attitude &Practice	Environment Society
		10. Democracy	-election, public, respect, fair law, child/human right		
	7th	7.Wild Animals	-extinct, harm, survive	Knowledge, Attitude &Practice	Environment
		9.Environment	-climate, balance, global-warming, eco-friendly, greenhouse effect, waste, protect, take action, renewable, pollute-pollution		
	8th	1.Friendship	-count on, get on well, trust, support	Knowledge, Attitude &Practice	Environment Society
		10.Natural Forces	-disaster, tsunami, survivor, global warming, melt, suffer, flood		

As displayed in Table 2, ESD competencies are, more or less, attained in all except 2nd grade of the primary English curriculum. They appear in only one unit in 3rd, 4th and 5th grades while they are attained in two units in 6th, 7th and 8th grades. They mostly fall into the category of knowledge that consists of systems thinking, anticipatory and normative competencies as of 3rd grade. It is noteworthy that they are accompanied by those in the category of attitude in 4th and 5th grades and that competencies of all categories are attained as of 6th grade. The findings also

revealed that environment is the most frequented ESD dimension across the curriculum through such themes as “nature”, “animal shelter”, saving the planet” and “wild animals”, followed by society via themes such as “democracy” and “natural forces”. Table 3 outlines the ESD competencies found in the secondary English curriculum.

Table 3. ESD competencies in the secondary English curriculum

English Curriculum of Secondary Education (9th -12th grades)					
General Learning Objectives	**Grade**	**Unit Theme (10 units in each grade)**	**Learning Outcome& Language Content**	**ESD Competency**	**ESD Dimension**
-**Communicative Competence & Collaboration** **-Learner Autonomy** **-CEFR (A1/A2-B2)** -**Ethics & Values Education:** to raise awareness of universal, national, moral, humane and cultural values & ethics with oral and written communication skills, key values as friendship, justice, honesty, self-control, patience, respect, love, responsibility,	**9th**	6. Bridging Cultures 7. World Heritage	-Identifying cultural differences -making inquiries, ancient civilizations	Knowledge & Attitude	Society
	10th	6. Helpful tips 4. Traditions 10. Shopping	- talking about rules &regulation, consequences, problem-solving -differences between lifestyles and customs -lower prices, shouldn’t spend more than earn	Knowledge, Attitude & Practice	Society Economy
	11th	3.Hard Times 10. Values & Norms	-a couple of decades ago when no electricity, candles used at home, clothes washed in the river, no mobile phones -moral values and norms in different cultures, humanity, values of the modern world, gender equity, love,	Knowledge, Attitude & Practice	Society Economy

patriotism, altruism			peace, against discrimination, humiliation, violation		
	12th	3. Human Rights	Gender equity, everyone deserves equal rights, every child has the right to get food, education and health service, freedom of expression is the basic human right, governments should do their best for disabled people	Knowledge, Attitude & Practice	Society Environment
		8. Alternative Energy	-excessive energy consumption, offering solutions to environmental/energy problems/write an e-mail to a local authority about an environmental problem to suggest solutions		

As suggested in Table 3, all competency domains of ESD are attained in the secondary English curriculum except 9th grade which still includes content related to the domains of knowledge and attitude. The competencies in concern are offered in more than one unit in each grade where they are mostly intended to cover the social dimension of ESD, followed by its economic and environmental dimensions, respectively. The social dimension of ESD is embedded in such content as "cultural differences and ancient civilizations", "rules and regulations", "lifestyle/ custom differences", "moral values and norms", "gender equity", "basic human rights" and "education and health service". The economic dimension of the competencies is offered through such contents as "lower prices", "spending" and "hard times" while environmental dimension is presented through the contents of "excessive energy" and "offering solutions to the environmental/ energy problems" under the theme of "Alternative Energy" in 12th grade.

The subsequent analysis was carried out to investigate whether and to what extent the ESD components are addressed in the two curricula. The related results are demonstrated in Table 4.

Table 4. ESD components in the primary English curriculum

ESD Components		**2nd**	**3rd**	**4th**	**5th**	**6th**	**7th**	**8th**
Knowledge	Env.	-	+	-	+	+	+	+
	Eco.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Soc.	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
Issues	Env.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
	Eco.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Soc.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Skills	Env.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
	Eco.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Soc.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Perspective	Env.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
	Eco.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Soc.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
Values	Env.	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
	Eco.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Soc.	-	-	+	+	+	+	+

Table 4 shows that the environmental and social dimensions of the component of knowledge are emphasized over the economic dimension which is not attained in the primary English curriculum. It is also observed that the skills that are evaluated as ESD components are not tackled in the primary English curriculum till 5th grade. In other words, such abilities as communicating effectively, thinking about systems, thinking in time, thinking critically about values, moving from awareness to action, working cooperatively and using processes are not targeted during the first three years of the primary English education. It is noteworthy that those which are introduced from 5th grade onwards are restricted to its environmental and social dimensions rather than the economic dimension. Likewise, the components of issues and perspectives are not addressed from the environmental and social perspectives in the curriculum earlier than 5th grade. Finally, values are attained from the social and environmental perspectives from 4th and 5th grades onwards, respectively. That none of the ESD components is addressed in the curriculum from the economic perspective might be attributed to the more abstract nature of economy in

comparison to those of environment and society. Table 5 is intended to outline ESD components in the secondary English curriculum.

Table 5. ESD components in the secondary English curriculum

ESD Components		**9th**	**10th**	**11th**	**12th**
Knowledge	Env.	+	-	-	+
	Eco.	-	+	+	-
	Soc.	+	+	+	+
Issues	Env.	+	-	-	+
	Eco.	-	+	+	-
	Soc.	+	+	+	+
Skills	Env.	+	-	-	+
	Eco.	-	+	+	-
	Soc.	+	+	+	+
Perspective	Env.	+	-	-	+
	Eco.	-	+	+	-
	Soc.	+	+	+	+
Values	Env.	+	-	-	+
	Eco.	-	+	+	-
	Soc.	+	+	+	+

As is seen Table 5, all ESD components are attained in all grades of the secondary English curriculum from the social perspective while they are somehow neglected in some grades from the environmental and economic perspectives. Namely, the environmental dimension of all ESD components is neglected in 10th and 11th grades whereas they are addressed in the first and senior grades of the secondary education. Quite interestingly, it seems to be replaced by the economic dimension of the components in concern in these grades. In a similar vein, the economic dimension is addressed in none of the ESD components in 9th and 12th grades. All in all, it is seen that the social dimension is emphasized over the economic and environmental dimensions in addressing the ESD components in the secondary English curriculum.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The overall findings have revealed that both curricula include a fair amount of content in line with environmental and social dimensions of ESD paradigm while economic dimension is largely neglected in the primary curriculum. More specifically, it has been indicated that there are

9 out of 70 units (themes) that include sustainability-related topics (none in 2nd grade, one in 3rd, 4th and 5th grades, and two in 6th, 7th and 8th grades). Additionally, these particular themes are addressed from the environmental and social perspectives and focus on the dimensions of knowledge and attitude for 3rd to 5th grade, and the domains of knowledge, attitude and practice for 6th to 8th grade in the primary English curriculum. Shortcomings of this particular curriculum in respect of sustainability would be the lack of subject matters in 2nd grade and lack of emphasis on economy-related topics throughout it. Regarding the ESD components, topics related to the dimensions of sustainability knowledge, skills, values, issues and perspective begin to appear only after 5th grade from the social and environmental perspectives. This may lead us to conclude that an eight or nine year-old primary schooler begins to acquire the domains of knowledge and attitude about the nature, different nationalities and animal shelter through 3rd, 4th and 5th grades while learning English at A1 level. Subsequently, s/he is exposed to such significant SD topics as 'Saving the Planet' and 'Democracy' in 6th grade, 'Wild Animals' and 'Environment' in 7th grade, and 'Friendship' and 'Natural forces' in 8th grade at the knowledge, attitudes and practice levels via English lessons.

In the secondary English curriculum, 9 of 40 units are designed based on sustainability-related topics, meaning that at least two topics of such kind are included into the unit list for each grade. In addition, the competencies of knowledge, attitude and practice are addressed from the social dimension in all grades, from the economic dimension in 10th and 11th grades and from the environmental dimension in 12th grade. The economic dimension is addressed in this curriculum through the themes of 'Shopping' and 'Hard Times' which focus on lower prices, avoiding money waste, differences between life in the past and present regarding limited facilities and which highlights the importance of financial conditions. The research has also indicated a balanced distribution of the ESD components across the secondary curriculum whereas the domains of knowledge, skills, issues, perspectives and values are found to be highlighted from the social dimension in every sustainability-related unit such as 'Human Rights', 'Bridging Cultures' and 'Norms and Values' which mainly cover society-related SD goals. It has been revealed that the environmental topics appear much less frequently in the secondary curriculum than the primary curriculum. Namely, the former includes only one unit of such kind, which might be considered as a weakness in this respect.

All in all, the current study has shown that the environmental and social dimensions of ESD are largely addressed in the primary English curriculum which has no content related to its economic dimension. It has also demonstrated that the social dimension and the economic dimension

are promoted in all grades and in 10th to 12th grades, respectively while the environmental dimension is neglected in the secondary English curriculum. Hence, it in the light of the present findings, it is recommended that the current primary English curriculum should be revised to include more ESD content from the economic dimension and that the existing secondary English curriculum should be strengthened with more ESD content from the environmental dimension. The EFL practitioners are, on the other hand, suggested to reflect ESD-related content and concerns into their teaching in order to raise individuals equipped with in-depth knowledge from various dimensions of ESD.

This particular research is limited to the investigation of the primary and secondary English curricula in Turkey with respect to ESD competencies and components through content analysis technique. Further studies could explore these competencies in the curricula of other school subjects using different data collection instruments and analysis techniques.

REFERENCES

Chalmers, L. (2007). Sustainability, curriculum development and Kaupapa Maori. In Proceedings of the Lucerne-Symposium. Switzerland: Geographiedidaktische Forschungen.

Cvikić, L., & Dobravac, G. (2020). Language education for sustainable development: Mother tongue and foreign language in Croatian primary education. *Knowledge International Journal, 41*(2), 357-362.

Durrani, R., Malik, S., & Jumani, N. B. (2019). Education for sustainable development (ESD) in pre-service teachers education curriculum at Pakistan: Current status and future directions. *Pakistan Journal of Distance and Online Learning, 5*(2), 67-84.

Eberhard, D., Simons, G., & Fennig, C. (2019). Ethnologue: Languages of the World. 22nd edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Retrieved from Ethnologue website: http://www.ethnologue.com

Golusin, M., & Ivanović, O. M. (2009). Definition, characteristics and state of the indicators of sustainable development in countries of Southeastern Europe. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 130*(1-2), 67-74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2008.11.018

Gürsoy, E. (2010). Implementing environmental education to foreign language teaching to young learners. *Educational Research, 1*(8), 232-238.

Haan, L. D. (2020). Integrating education for sustainable development into the Dutch EFL classroom. Unpublished Master's thesis, Utrecht University.

Johnson, J. S., & Newport, E. L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology, 21*, 60–99.

Jodoin, J. J. (2019). Using education for sustainable development (ESD) for language learners: Study of university approaches. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kyoto University.

Jodoin, J. J., & Singer, J. (2019). A framework for integrating education for sustainable development in the English as a foreign language classroom in Japan: an appeal to the language teaching community. *Osaka JALT Journal, 6*, 51-66.

Kırmızı, Ö. & Dağdeviren-Kırmızı, G. (2017). *Language and foreign/ second language concepts in ELT Methodology* (Ed.). Anı Yayıncılık.

Lavrysh, Y., & Lytovchenko, I. (2019). The case of education for sustainable development approaches implementation at English language classes at the technical university in Ukraine. *Pedagogy, 91*(5), 736-749.

Leicht, A., Heiss, J, Byun, W. J. (2018) (eds). Issues and trends in education for sustainable development, UNESCO Publishing. Available online at: https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000261445 (accessed on 04.07.2020)

Lenneberg, H. E. (1967). The biological foundations of language. *Hospital Practice, 2*(12), 59-67. DOI: 10.1080/21548331.1967.11707799

Libunao, W., & Peter, C. (2013). Education for sustainable development practices among polytechnics in Malaysia. In International Conference on Social Science Research (ICSSR), Penang, Malaysia.

Listyarini, R. V. (2019). Promoting sustainability in undergraduate program: Students' perception in green chemistry course. *International Journal of Indonesian Education and Teaching (IJIET), 3*(1), 67-79.

Longhurst, J., & Gough, G. (2020). Using quality assurance processes to embed sustainability in the curriculum at UWE Bristol. https://uwe-repository.worktribe.com/output/897170

Longhurst, J., & Gough, G. (2018). Towards a sustainable university: A case study of the university of the West of England, Bristol. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment, 217*, 807-819.

Mathews, S., Oats, R., & Kgotlaetsile, F. M. (2020). Status of Education for Sustainable Development in teacher training institutions in Botswana. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 10*(1), 519-527.

McKeown, R., Hopkins, C. A., Rizi, R., & Chrystalbridge, M. (2002*). Education for sustainable development toolkit*. Knoxville: Energy, Environment and Resources Center, University of Tennessee.

Melles, G. (2019). Views on education for sustainable development (ESD) among lecturers in UK MSc taught courses. International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education.

Ministry of National Education (MoNE). (2018). İngilizce dersi öğretim programı 2-8. [English language curriculum of grades 2-8]. T.C. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [Ministry of National Education]. Available online at: http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/Dosyalar/201812411191321-%C4%B0NG%C4%B0L%C4%B0ZCE%20%C3%96%C4%9ERET%C4%B0M%20PROGRAMI%20Klas%C3%B6r%C3%BC.pdf

Ministry of National Education (MoNE). (2018). Orta Öğretim İngilizce dersi öğretim programı 9-12. [English language curriculum of grades 9-12]. T.C. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı [Ministry of National Education]. Available online at: http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=342

Özsoy, R. (2019). An investigation on the Turkish science teachers' views related to education for sustainable development. Unpublished MA thesis, Middle East Technical University.

Padmanabhan, J., & Singh, S. P. (2016). Integrated approach to ESD towards enhancing Knowledge on sustainable development. *World Scientific News, 29*, 1-11.

Ryan, A., & Tilbury, D. (2013). Uncharted waters: voyages for education for sustainable development in the higher education curriculum. *Curriculum Journal, 24*(2), 272-294.

Schrage, J. (2015). Mainstreaming education for sustainable development in Botswana: A case study research of teacher education institutions. Unpublished MA thesis, Uppsala University, No. 238,77.

Smardon, R. C., & Reiter, M. A. (2018). 13 Program evaluation and assessment. Education for Sustainable Human and Environmental Systems: From Theory to Practice, 37.

Tatlılıoğlu, E. (2019). Analysis of science curriculum and textbooks in terms of sustainable development goals: A case study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Middle East Technical University.

UNESCO (2012). Education for sustainable development sourcebook. Available online at: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/index.php?page=view&type=400&nr=926&menu=1515

UNESCO (2014). Roadmap for implementing the Global Action Programme on Education for Sustainable Development. Available online at: https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000230514

UNESCO (2017). Education for Sustainable Development Goals: learning objectives. Available online at: https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000247444?utm_sq=gj34xbfn94.

United Nations (2017). Work of the Statistical Commission pertaining to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Available Online at: https://ggim.un.org/documents/A_RES_71_313.pdf

Woo, Y. L., Mokhtar, M., Komoo, I., & Azman, N. (2012). Education for sustainable development: a review of characteristics of

sustainability curriculum. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development, 3*(8), 33-44.

World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). (1987). *Bruntland Commission Report*. Oxford University Press.

Zygmunt, T. (2016). Language education for sustainable development. *Discourse and Communication for Sustainable Education, 7*(1), 112-124. https://doi.org/10.1515/dcse-2016-0008

CHAPTER IV

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY: A CASE STUDY AT A STATE UNIVERSITY IN SRI LANKA

Panadarayalage Chinthana Sandaruwan Dayananda[1]

Osman Erdem Yapar[2]

[1]Lecturer, University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Oman,
e-mail: reach.sandu@gmail.com

[2](Asst. Prof. Dr.), Dhofar University, Oman,
e-mail: osmanyapar@du.edu.om


0000-0002-3400-083X

INTRODUCTION

Within the constantly evolving and expanding domain of English language teaching and learning, learner autonomy (LA), is gaining new heights. Learners Autonomy as a concept traversed the field of education with Henri Holec's seminal paper where Holec (1981) defined learner autonomy as "ability to take charge of one's own learning" (as cited in Sara, 2000, p.109). Since then, LA has received diverse interpretations. However, even after four decades, there is no consensus on a universal definition for LA. It seems almost unreachable as the concept diversifies due to research findings in the domains of LA. Generally, LA is commonly perceived as learners taking more responsibility and developing capacity to take control by making right decisions in the process of their learning. Moreover, the classroom is still central in the learning and teaching process even though it may continue outside as well. In addition, teachers still play pivotal roles as facilitator, counsellor and a resource person in this process. Therefore, in creating an autonomous learning environment and promoting LA, classroom processes and teachers' active involvement are two central issues as repeatedly confirmed in previous literature on this topic. For instance, Dam (2003) argues that it is largely the teacher's responsibility to develop learner autonomy (as cited in Feryok, 2013, p.214). Similarly, Nakata (2011), Hang (2014), and Little (2007), to name a few, also emphasize the primary role of teachers in promoting LA. In this backdrop, teachers' beliefs and perceptions of LA as mediators of learning underscore a significant aspect in promoting LA.

A number of studies have been directed towards teachers' perceptions, beliefs and practices about LA in a variety of contexts. Borg and Al Busaidi (2012), for example, carried out a study on teachers' beliefs and practices related to LA in the English Language Centre of a leading university in Oman. Their findings had a great impetus in the field research on LA. A similar research methodology was replicated in the current study in a different context with some modifications and amendments to the questionnaire and interview questions. This research study aimed to explore teachers' and administrators' perceptions about LA in English Language Teaching Units (ELTUs) of a leading public university in Sri Lanka, which is a rare example of its kind, apart from Fonseka (2003). In order to develop LA practices in Sri Lankan context there is a need to explore existing classroom practices and teachers' perceptions about LA. Although generalizability was not one of the aims of this study, it is believed that this case study is a useful and necessary step towards fulfilling this need.

The study primarily aimed to gain insights into the following research questions:

1. What is the meaning of LA according to the respondents?
2. What role do teachers play in developing LA among learners?
3. To what extent do teachers perceive LA feasible and desirable? What are the constraints teachers encounter to promote LA?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learner Autonomy (LA) as a widespread concept in education, most importantly, in English language education, has received multiple interpretations from different perspectives. The term in language education became the spotlight once Henry Holec shifted the term *autonomy* from its predominant political interpretations to language education. Holec (1981) defines autonomy as "an ability to take charge of one's learning." (as cited in Little, 1991, p.7) Since then, the large body of research contributed to broaden the theoretical and pragmatic scope and application of the concept to psychological, political, social, individual, technical and cultural parameters. Joshi (2011) from a socio-political stance, states that autonomy in a broader context refers to

> the capacity of a person to work out without being controlled by other people. The concept may refer to the situations where one learns without being dragged by the others and the actions done on self for learning. It is taken as the ability to act and make decisions without being controlled by anyone else (p.14).

Moving to the psychological perspective of the concept, Little (1991) argues that LA presupposes, but also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts (p.4). Meanwhile Wang and Wang (2016) according to their findings on teachers' perceptions and practices related to LA also state that teachers viewed LA as closely integrated with psychological dimension. As an extension to the individual parameter, Little (2007) characterizes learner autonomy as learners doing things not necessarily on their own but for themselves (p.14). The individual dimension also consists of learner behaviour and skills. For instance, Benson (2001) argues that LA as the capacity to take control of one's own learning is associated with certain individual dispositions and skills (p.47). This capacity of students to take control of their learning is a result of a combination of environmental factors. For instance, teachers still play a central role in a classroom as a key stakeholder in education. Therefore, constructing the capacity is not solely the result of individual effort on the side of the learner, teachers are also part of it. All kinds of conducive administrative support are indispensable to design an autonomy supportive learning environment and develop courses. Learners, on the other hand, should be willing to enhance or build this capacity. Learners' proactive disposition towards autonomous learning is crucial to foster autonomy. Teachers, as key stakeholders in education, need to commit themselves to relinquish the authority over students to make them autonomous learners. The roles of learners and teachers are closely related and yet distinctive in terms of the power relation, an immensely complex and intricate process. Exploring this symbiotic relation Xhaferi and Xhaferi (2011) suggest that it is very important to find out students' level of knowledge and attitudes, their level of motivation, the learning strategies they use and to get them to think about their own learning styles. They further believe that becoming an autonomous learner is a process of three main stages: raising student awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles. The presence of multiple perspectives on LA itself explicitly implies the much broader application of the concept.

Teng (2019) attempts to encapsulate some of these perspectives on autonomy. He underscores that autonomy is a construct of capacity, which should not necessarily be inborn. Willingness to be responsible for their own learning is defined as another component of autonomy. From another perspective, he says autonomy can occur both inside and outside the classroom. While stating that autonomy consists of both social and individual dimensions, he points out that autonomy may be unstable and changeable. Lastly, autonomy can be promoted if one has conscious

awareness of the learning process (Teng, 2019, p.15). Such wider perspectives about autonomy, on the one hand, enable us to realize the complexity and intrinsic nature of the concept. On the other hand, the multiple perspectives reflect the richness, diversity and the potential of the concept in the education landscape.

Classroom, as the primary space for formal education, consists of heterogeneous learners who manifest autonomy at different levels. In view of the dynamic state of LA and possession of autonomy, Dickinson (1987) states learners may also differ in terms of their degrees in taking such responsibility, i.e. the way and extent of being involved in such activities (as cited in Joshi, 2011, p.13). Joshi (2011, p.15) further elaborates that learner variables could have a potent impact on having different degrees of LA. In the meantime, research findings indicate certain qualities which are characteristics of an autonomous learner. Teng (2019, p.12) characterizes autonomous learners as those who pursue knowledge out of curiosity. Further, he claims that an autonomous learner possesses a capacity for effective self-management of motivation.

Nakata (2011, p. 902), expounding on characteristics of autonomous learners, argues that it is true to say that the educational context differs in each country and perhaps at each educational level. Thus, in many instances, learner characteristics are deeply woven into the fabric of culture and social context. The flip side of the key findings of autonomous learner characteristics is that every learner who exhibits certain characteristics and qualities could not be autonomous in every situation. Hence, like autonomy itself, learner characteristics could certainly be dependent on situation and context.

As the arguments on different perspectives of LA unfold, the role of teachers in promoting LA receives equal attention in the research studies related to LA. Ahmadianzadeh, Seifoori, and Tamjid (2018) state that despite the legitimacy of autonomous learning at the micro level of language learning and the macro level of social emancipation and prosperity, "the achievement of this significant goal relies heavily on the beliefs and practices of teachers who can develop this competency in learners directly or indirectly" (p.2). Others such as Duong (2014) and Khalili and Ali (2018) also reaffirm the role that teachers play in fostering LA among learners. Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017), on the other hand, argue that academic consensus does not guarantee in any way that teachers will have similar understandings of learner autonomy or implement practices that are consistent with academic research findings. This view underscores a potential gap between the theoretical underpinnings of teachers' role and application of LA in classroom context. In order to bridge this gap between established theory/research and the current

practices in a given context political, pedagogical, curricular and technical issues need to be investigated and addressed locally to appropriately develop and support teachers in promoting LA. Such diverse perspectives about the concept of learner autonomy, learners and teachers and their roles in fostering autonomous learning requires further research into the dynamic nature and aspects of LA.

METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

1. What is the meaning of LA according to the respondents?
2. What role do teachers play in developing LA among learners?
3. To what extent do teachers perceive LA feasible and desirable? What are the constraints teachers encounter to promote LA?

Participants and Context

This study was carried out at a leading public university in Sri Lanka. The country is a former British a colony and home to a multicultural island nation. English language and competency in the language is held in high esteem as it is regarded as a class marker and a salient tool in upward social mobility. Hence, English language and English language education play an integral role in all strata of education in this country. With regards to LA, its adaptation, application and implication are prominent research dimensions in 'non-western' countries. For any successful implementation and research projects, the cultural appropriacy of the concept as well as the teachers' beliefs about it should be taken into consideration.

In this particular university, there were eight faculties with a dedicated English Language Teaching Unit (ELTU) in each. The study was conducted in seven of these eight faculties. ELTUs in the university aim to enhance language proficiency and competence of undergraduates in their respective faculties.

The study was conducted with 50 participants (out of existing 51 members of staff). They were all teaching staff, among which 7 also had coordination duties. They were all full-time employed. They had varying levels of ELT experience and they all qualified at BA or Master's degree level (see Table 1 for detailed demographic information of participants).

Ethical Issues

Prior to the conduct of the study, there was a need to receive permission to use the data collection tools originally developed by Borg and Al Busaidi (2012). The researchers sent an email to Dr. Al Busaidi for his consent to replicate the questionnaire in Sri Lankan context which was kindly granted.

Secondly, an application was made to the Sri Lankan university's ELTU management for permission to conduct questionnaires and interviews. An email was sent to the Head of English Language Units of the university to seek his permission, which was obtained except for the Faculty of Arts. Following the above steps, the coordinator of each ELTU was contacted to administer the questionnaire in their respective units. At this stage, the procedure was quite easy and convenient as one of the authors of the research had personal contact with both the coordinators and the teachers in the ELTUs.

The questionnaire was administered among respondents with their due consent. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were carried out with participants from each faculty. In addition, 7 faculty coordinators participated in the interviews. The interview guides were shown to participants, their consent was taken for interviews and recording. The personal details were anonymised during the transcription process. The research study was carried out with due respect to research ethics and professional standards.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions, researchers decided to use a mix of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires provided statistical data from the participants whereas interviews provided in-depth information that could not be obtained from questionnaires.

The research instruments were developed originally by Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) and adopted in the current study with some slight modifications to the questionnaire and interview questions to suit the context of the study.

In the preparation of original research instruments Borg and Al Busaidi went through the relevant literature and identified current research themes in the field. They also consulted with the previous research tools to develop their own questionnaire (Borg and Al Busaidi, 2012, pp. 6-7).

Triangulation of the questionnaire and interview data enabled the researchers to embed detailed insights into statistical data and make more accurate conclusions. The fact that one author had experience of the context and the other did not helped reduce the bias in the interpretation of data, especially during interview analysis. Both the quantitative and qualitative findings were critically examined, compared and analysed with the findings of Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) as well as other relevant studies to check validity of the research findings.

Table 1: Demographic profiles of participants (N = 50)

Demographic Values		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	49	98
	Female	1	2
Educational qualifications	Bachelor's	32	64
	Master's	18	36
Faculty	Management	5	10
	Veterinary	5	10
	Science	10	20
	Agriculture	9	18
	Engineering	12	24
	Allied Health Sciences	6	12
	Medicine	3	6
ELT Experience	0-4	29	58
	5-9	7	14
	10-14	6	12
	15-19	4	8
	20-24	3	6
	25+	1	2

Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of various scales including technical, psychological, socio cultural and political dimensions of LA and teachers' beliefs about these. Section 1 of the questionnaire included recurrent debates in relation to learner autonomy. In addition, there was a section to investigate teachers' perceptions on desirability and feasibility of learner autonomy in terms of learners' abilities and their involvement in decision making. In the original study, the questionnaire underwent critical review and pilot study to test its validity and reliability.

In the current research study, the questionnaire items were studied and discussed for validity. The questionnaire forms were printed and distributed for completion by participants. These were then coded into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) v25.

Cronbach's Alpha Split Halves Reliability Test was used to check reliability of each scale in the questionnaire. Similar to the original study, the reliability scores in this study were much lower than the recommended values ($\leq .7$). Demographic information was analysed and reported with frequencies and percentages. Other questionnaire data was analysed and reported using descriptive statistics.

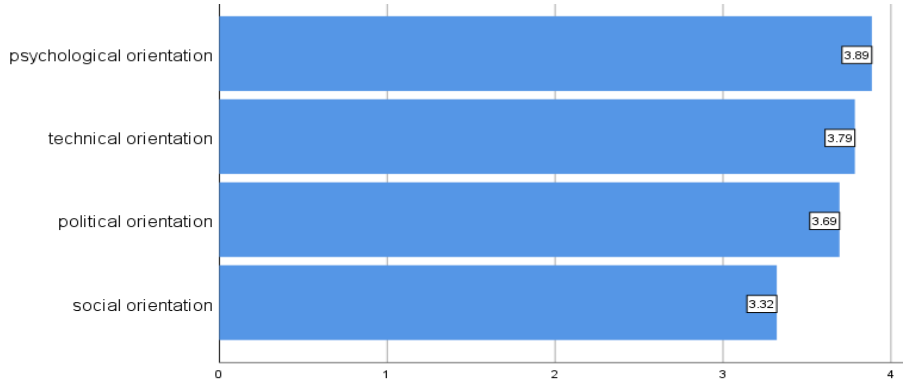
Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were deployed subsequent to the questionnaires as a data collection tool. Two interview guides were used: one version for the teachers and one for the coordinators. The interviews were conducted in person in the participants' offices during their availability and recorded with consent. The interview data were transcribed by the authors separately and analyzed for themes using NVivo 12 qualitative analysis software. An initial set of codes derived from the interview questions were used by both coders for the first coding cycle. Constant comparisons were used during the coding of the data to increase validity of the existing codes. In the second coding cycle extra codes were added with mutual discussion where needed. The coding and thematic analysis of the data were subject to extensive discussion between the authors to reach reliable results.

FINDINGS

RQ1: What is the meaning of LA according to the respondents?

Figure 1. Mean scores for LA orientation



In response to the first research question item relating to LA orientation were analysed using mean scores from the responses. As explained before, the reliability scores for these scales were lower than the recommendations similar to the original study by Borg and Al Busaidi (2012). When the scores were compared, it was seen that the scores were actually very close to each other with psychological orientation (M = 3.89), technical orientation (M = 3.79), political orientation (M = 3.69) and social orientation (M = 3.32). In Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) psychological orientation also was the primary type they found. However, the order of various orientation types and their mean scores in the current study were different from Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) where they reported scores for psychological orientation (M = 4.2), political orientation (M = 4.2), social orientation (M = 3.93) and technical orientation (M = 3.3). To sum up, psychological orientation of LA was observed the most dominant among the participants in their questionnaire responses.

The interviews included a question about the meaning of LA to the respondents. Some actually admitted the concept was new to them.

> I was not really aware of that issue but now when I did this let's say questionnaire… I felt that I have been, I have had this learner autonomy, this quality of autonomy. It was unconsciously I have had it. (Instructor 1 - ELTU Veterinary Faculty)

Others commented on their brief introduction to the concept during their studies:

> Actually, I was not aware of this term while I was an undergraduate… but anyway I got to know about this and studied about this not very deeply but at surface level. (Instructor 2 - ELTU Veterinary Faculty)

However, each participant still provided their own definition based on their perceptions. The one-hundred most frequent words used in these definitions are demonstrated in a Word Cloud diagram in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Word Cloud for 100 most frequent words on the meaning of LA

Some instructors provided a more process oriented definition "learner autonomy is letting students find their own way of learning" whereas others used more practical terms referring to what areas LA applies to "it's more to what the students might want to learn outside the classroom and also inside the classroom alone as well as pair work and group work". Participation in decisions about own learning was highlighted in many definitions "learner autonomy means like students learning on their own for example like time and place and method, it depends on the students". In addition to place and method, content and tasks were also part of the decisions LA included: "the independence of the learner so that he or she can decide what he or she can learn and she or he can figure out what and how she is going to do that". Another respondent defined LA in relation to increased motivation as a result: "Learner autonomy according to my point of view is students centred learning and students putting more efforts in learning a second language".

In conclusion, despite some similarities in the definitions there were varying views on the meaning of LA. This is a common feature that can be

observed in the relevant literature as well. In order to further clarify the instructors' perspectives of LA, the role of teachers in developing LA and individual items under learning to learn skills and students' involvement in decision making processes were also explored. These will be reported under the second and third research questions.

RQ2: What role do teachers play in developing LA among learners?

The questionnaire also included items on teachers' role in developing learner autonomy. Some statements were worded negatively to the effect that teachers did not play a role on LA. These were reverse coded for a correct analysis of the responses. The items on a 5-point Likert scale were analysed using mean score averages. The mean score for this scale was 3.6 (SD = 0.42). The average scores indicated that the teachers believed LA does not mean "learning without a teacher" and that teachers play an important role in developing LA.

Corresponding with the questionnaire findings, the respondents in the interviews displayed different views on the teachers' role in promoting LA. Some emphasised the significance of teachers in its development such as an instructor from Engineering "It is the teacher's duty especially inside the classroom." or another instructor from the Science Faculty:

> We should guide them. Some of them are kind of lost when we say do it by yourself. Especially the slow learners. Weak ones should need some kind of guidance as to how to do that if not they would feel kind of less confident.

There were other instructors who claimed LA required minimization of teacher's role in learning such as an instructor from Science Faculty **"…**the ability of the pupils to take charge of their own learning and also, it's the absence or rather lack of participation of the teacher and how students kind of guide themselves to learn what they want to".

A third group, which can be defined as the majority, had a more balanced view about teacher's role as follows:

> As I said earlier, we can't give them a language within a limited period of time. We need to make them understand that they can learn a language, not to be afraid of the language and build the confidence and that we are there to support and help them …. but learning and getting into their mind is up to them. (Instructor 2- ELTU Veterinary Faculty)

The role described above includes developing learning to learn skills in the learning as a facilitator of the process. There are also some practical examples on how to do this as exemplified by another instructor as follows:

> Learner autonomy according to what I think it is means the ability that students have to learn on their own, doesn't mean without guidance. Some kind of guidance will definitely be given by the teachers. But what they take from the teachers don't stop there, but they go to library or go to other places and find other materials to support their learning. (Instructor 3- ELTU Engineering Faculty)

The teacher's role here can take a very practical form such as demonstrating how to find reliable sources in a library or probably online. The comments illustrate teachers' role as a facilitator, a guide, a councillor, a mediator in the language learning process and promoting LA.

RQ3: To what extent do teachers perceive LA feasible and desirable? What are the constraints teachers encounter to promote LA?

There were fourteen questionnaire items designed to measure how desirable and feasible LA was with a four-point Likert scale (1=undesirable/unfeasible, 4= very desirable/feasible). These items formed two scales: the first seven on students' involvement in certain decision-making processes and the second seven items on students' skills of learning to learn.

In terms of statistical tests, reliability tests were carried out for the desirability and feasibility items in the first scale. The results were $\alpha = .77$ (for desirability items) and $\alpha = .88$ (for feasibility items). Next, the same reliability tests were repeated for the latter seven items. The desirability questions produced a reliability score of $\alpha = .86$ whereas the feasibility items scored $\alpha = .91$.

When the mean scores for both student involvement in decision making and students' skills of learning to learn were examined, it was observed that desirability is higher for every item than feasibility scores for every single item (see Figures 3 and 4). This is a result confirmed in Borg and Al Busaidi (2012, p. 16) as well. Next, these two scales were separately studied using a means comparison of the desirability and feasibility of individual items in each.

Among the students' involvement in decision-making items there were some that were scores as less desirable by teachers. These were "the topics discussed" ($M = 2.31$), "the objectives of a course" ($M = 2.33$) and "the materials used" ($M = 2.48$). They are also not seen as very feasible as

they scored low on desirability items for the same questions. On the other hand, teachers scored "tasks and activities" (M = 3.16), "assessment" (M = 3.08) and "classroom management" (M = 2.74) as more desirable items. When these were compared with the findings of Borg and Al Busaidi (2012), one of the main differences was that assessment was one of the least desirable items in their analysis.

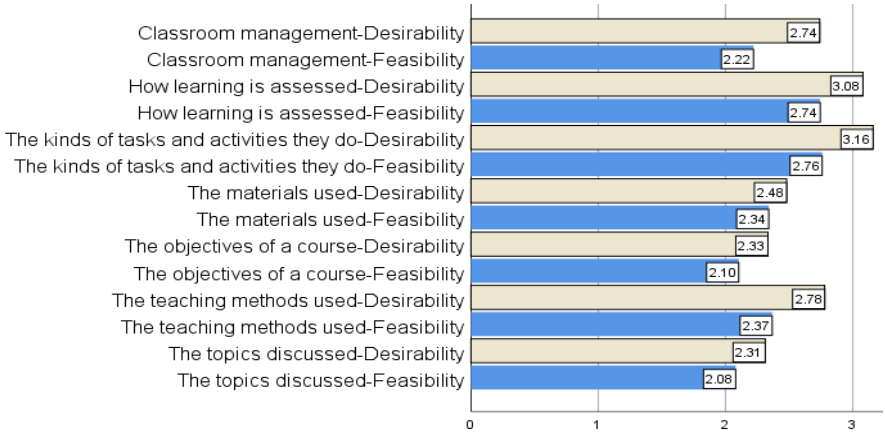


Figure 3. Mean scores for desirability and feasibility student involvement in decision-making

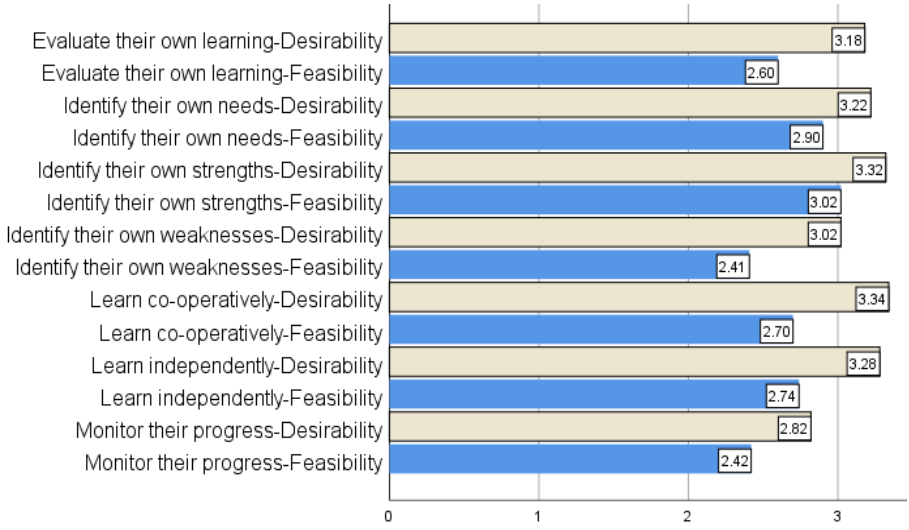


Figure 4. Mean scores for desirability and feasibility of learning to learn skills in students

A study of the results of the second scale on learning to learn skills in students revealed that the desirability scores are generally higher than the first scale on student involvement in decision making (see Figures 3 and 4). The most desirable items were "learn cooperatively" (M = 3.34), "identify own strengths" (M = 3.32), and "learn independently" (M = 3.28) respectively. The least desirable item was "monitor their progress" (M = 2.82). In terms of feasibility, the highest scores were "identify their own strengths" (M = 3.02), and "identify their own needs" (M = 2.90). The lowest scores were for "identify their own weaknesses" (M = 2.41), and "monitor their progress" (M = 2.42). These were in similar order to the findings in Borg and Al Busaidi (2012).

Overall, it can be said that teachers found learning to learn skills more desirable than involvement in decision making processes.

The interviews cross examined the questionnaire responses in relation to the desirability and feasibility of LA from the perspectives of the instructors. Firstly, desirability of students' involvement in decision making processes was examined. Instructor 1 from Veterinary Faculty explained his view:

> I have taken in the faculty the very low level classes with that experience I think I've seen that students are not really in a position to take their own decisions because if I apply that for English language learning when I see they really need the basics, the help of the teacher, so without that I don't think they can really make a decision.

Another instructor also reinforced the dependence of learners on teachers to make decisions: "With the guidance of the teacher, they try to make decisions. Of course, they need to be guided, they need to be directed by the teacher basically". Instructor 1 Faculty of Science explained that "...I find it's less practical even though it's more desirable." In addition, instructor 3, Faculty of Engineering succinctly reiterated this point "here it's not very feasible but very desirable 100% desirable…"

Learners' involvement in decision making related to materials used was indicative when instructor 2 of the Faculty of Management stated that learners voiced their preferences and they were willing to accommodate learners' ideas in some material preparation. The desirability and feasibility of learners' contribution in material development, deciding the topics and material used and tasks and activities was evident in the following quote by another instructor:

> When we are making tutorials, we have topics but first when we are making these tutes, we ask students what you are interested in learning and they actually quite contribute

> a lot. They talk about movies; they talk about TV series and I somehow try to include them. I think all of us are trying to include their interested areas in tutorials.

Broadening the scope of learners' involvement in decision making, another instructor claimed a relation between decision making and language proficiency of learners:

> Certain classes are kind of divided based on their aptitude but like at medical as well as here we get mixed ability aptitude... so at such occasions students who are more proficient in the language tend to show these kinds of objectives and participation in decision making as well as other important aspects. Whereas you know these slow learners tend to participate less. So, at such occasions, teacher should kind of take part. So that's why I find it's less practical even though it's more desirable. (Instructor 1 Faculty of Science)

In summary, learners' involvement is desirable in decision making in the areas such as materials used, the topics discussed and the tasks and activities they do. The quotes above substantiate that teachers perceive the learners' involvement in decision making more desirable, though it is less feasible given a variety of constraints.

Secondly, the desirability of learning to learn skills as part of LA will be discussed with reference to respondents' comments. The respondents indicated that learners were able to identify their own needs, identify their weaknesses and learn independently.

Instructor 2 of the Faculty of Science contributed stated "Right now, I don't think we get students' involvement at all but I think we should. At the very beginning we should get their involvement. We should ask them what they really need…" This implied the teacher's willingness to include learners as stakeholders in their learning by identifying their own needs.

Identifying weaknesses under learning to learn skill was highlighted in comments of an instructor from the Faculty of Medicine: "Sometimes they may find it difficult when they are learning a language. So, they might come up to the teacher and explain that they are facing difficulties".

Engaging students in independent learning was also commented on in the comments of Instructor 1 of the Management Faculty:

> ...we have the film sessions, drama sessions so we show them video clips so that we don't discuss with the class just after showing it. We ask them to come up with their

> reviews, kind of arguments, their perceptions towards what we have shown in the class.

Hence, the interview findings related to desirability of learning to learn is also evident in the responses recorded in this study. There are also comments which imply these instructors currently practise promoting LA in certain areas of learning to learn skills such as choosing tasks and materials and learning independently.

In the next part, feasibility of students' involvement in decision making and learning to learn skills will be reported with reference to interview responses. In the questionnaire findings it was evident that desirability scores were higher than feasibility ones. Therefore, the aim in the interviews was to explore and identify the constraints in relation to feasibility of LA. In their study, Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) identified the constraints under three groups such as student related, teacher related and work context related factors. The thematic analysis of the responses under this theme produced four distinct categories such as institutional, personal, social and political constraints.

Firstly, the institutional constraints were considered. One instructor stated "In the current context they are not very much involved. I think it's the system". This is indicative of a need for systemic change. Other instructors' responses elaborated on details of institutional constraints:

> If we are allowed to change this whole arbitrary system of these rules and … and it has to be like ESP…You have to teach English in order to study Agriculture. So that has to change. If we have a chance of changing these. I think that we can get the students ...get them more involved in these things… incorporate students' ideas in lesson making. (Instructor 1- Agriculture Faculty)

> In this faculty I would say they are not at all involved in any of them. There is no feasibility, but they want to involve…. They would come and talk to us that they want to involve. But as a faculty as an ELTU and …. Everyone is looking at us. We have all these forces coming in. So, we don't have the freedom to change according to their needs. (Instructor 1- Agriculture Faculty)

> …. I don't know what's... it's something wrong with the faculty or the system. They are not even allowed to actually go and talk to the lecturers or anywhere else even about their marks. So, feasibility wise it's, it's lot more restricted. There is no freedom, they should change the system. (Instructor 1 - Faculty of Agriculture)

In terms of personal constraints, lack of knowledge and psychological factors related to students were considered. Instructor 2 at the Veterinary Faculty referred to lack of training of learners to learn independently.

The students in the lower levels try to rely on the teacher rather than finding and learning the language by themselves. So in such a context in such a background it's hard for us to ask them to learn the language by themselves because they are not trained to do that and they always rely on us but in order to develop a little bit of autonomy, what we try to do is ask them to watch something and read.

Some respondents pointed out how negative attitudes and wrong perceptions among students about English language pose constraints. These are considered under personal constraints category.

> We teach who have different views on English especially because some people they always want to skip English. Especially in this faculty I see that they have a very negative mentality about English… I don't think if we give a chance on decision making, I don't think it will be practical. (Instructor 2- ELTU Agriculture Faculty)

> …but when talking about ELTU in general most of the students have this attitude that only the students who can speak English who already have the language background knowledge. They can learn English at the ELTU. So that attitude should be diminished. that should be reduced. As ELTU as a unit, as an organization which tries to promote language learning of the first language users of Sinhala or Tamil, we have to encourage them, we have to help them get rid of their attitude. (Instructor 1- ELTU Agriculture Faculty)

Social constraints refer mainly to different social backgrounds that learners come from, lack of resources in the schools to learn the language and how society discriminates against low proficiency learners. The following comments of an instructor provide insight into social constraints.

> ...there might be certain social issues because our students come from different backgrounds. Like I said earlier, certain ones are quite shy. They might feel that they are being laughed at for not being able to speak in or write or use English.

The comments above also highlight how social pressure to succeed can lead to emotional responses and prevent participation. This relationship between social and personal constraints is worth noting here.

Access to and availability of resources during the school education to learn the language is yet another social constraint that instructors face when universities receive students from across the country. According to the instructor 1- Management Faculty this leads to low self-efficacy beliefs and low motivation in some students from such backgrounds:

> …and of course, the background. The students come from different backgrounds and some of them ... in their schools… haven't had a proper English teacher. That's a problem. So not having a proper English teacher is a problem they have because ... they lack motivation to learn English.

Therefore, social constraints have an interplay with personal constraints as students' awareness about the social expectations may lead to an emotional reaction such as fear of losing face and these may become a serious constraint in the feasibility of LA in this context.

Political constraints were also common in the interviewees' responses. This category should be understood with the ongoing ethnic and political tensions in Sri Lanka in general and university campuses in specific. Especially the colonial history of the country has caused a political reaction and resistance to the study of English as a foreign language. Instructor 2 from the Agriculture faculty referred to the constraints in promoting LA, particularly political ones as follows: "…the mentality of students. they are from certain political, different backgrounds I don't think I am supposed to talk about it...especially ragging and all. So that mentality affects English learning I think". This was confirmed by another instructor from the same faculty: "…there's this idea about ragging and avoiding English and avoiding English classes". Another instructor also stated that this was a feasibility constraint in his particular faculty "in the faculty it's not going to be that practical because the majority of these student union leaders have an influence on the students and they have a negative view of English, but it's changing". The political influence in the campus with regards to English medium instruction was also reiterated in the comments of Instructor 1 of Allied Health Science Faculty "...political factor, the influence of the seniors and students' union leaders who have other agendas." In summary, the political situation and negative attitudes to English language in general is a major constraint in promoting learner autonomy in the context of this public university in Sri Lanka.

DISCUSSION

LA studies such as Borg and Al Busaidi (2012), Loi (2016), Joshi (2011) and Yasmin and Sohail (2018) found that teachers conceptualized LA as being able to work independently, which is associated with the psychological dimension of the concept. In the current study although there was no clear consensus among the respondents, terms such as independence, ability and confidence were frequently used (see Figure 2). Through more exposure to the LA concept by reading and probably training, participants can develop a better understanding of LA and provide clearer definitions with more confidence.

Xhaferi & Xhaferi (2011) necessitates the indispensable role of teacher in promoting LA among learners through raising student awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles. In this study most of the respondents acknowledged the significance of teachers' role. However, they provided little or no evidence for application of autonomy supportive teaching in their classroom contexts. This gap between teachers' beliefs and practices was another significant finding which can be attributed to the response bias where respondents give socially desirable answers.

In terms of desirability and feasibility of LA, the majority of the respondents perceived LA to be more desirable than feasible. Moreover, involvement in decision making processes is less desirable than learning to learn skills. These findings confirm earlier studies such as Borg and Al Busaidi (2012), Loi (2016) and Doğan and Mirici (2017). Based on the interview comments, it can be concluded that teachers doubt the maturity of students to make decisions especially in certain areas of their classroom learning whereas individual and independent study outside the classroom is a more desirable practice.

Some respondents further explained that their effort to promote LA is received with noticeable resistance and reluctance from learners. The same observation was recorded in Juan and Yajie (2018) in a Chinese higher education context despite various teacher interventions in fostering LA. The constraints identified by respondents in this study were grouped into four major categories such as institutional, personal, social and political. Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) and Loi (2016) classify the constraints to promote LA under teacher related, student related and work-context related. Some of the findings in the current research overlap with these categories.

One of the most common challenges faced by respondents in this study stemmed from the work context: the institutional challenges such as LA incompatible curricula and syllabi. In addition, non-conducive learner cognitive characteristics like lack of motivation and lack of independent

learning correlate with personal obstacles to promotion of LA. Fonseka (2003) in his study in Sri Lanka found that teachers often believed the social background of learners hampered language learning in general and promotion of LA in particular:

> lack of exposure to English prevents most learners in resource poor settings in countries such as Sri Lanka from meeting the challenges of globalisation. Nation-wide programmes to teach the language have so far failed, as they do not address the circumstances under which these learners carry out their studies. (p.156)

The findings of Fonseka (2003) are unfortunately still valid in today's Sri Lankan tertiary education context. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds usually have problems with English language studies and find it difficult to embrace LA as a concept. This was expressed by many respondents in this study.

Another factor impacting on LA promotion was the political views of some undergraduate students. The negative influence of the political ideologies rampant in the university poses challenges to language learning motivation in general which directly impacts on LA. In contrast to Borg and al Busaidi (2012)'s findings, there were no explicit indications of teacher related constraints in this particular study. However, the responses to interviews with instructors reflected that teachers needed further training on theory and practice of LA.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In summary, the current study adapted from Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) explored teachers' perceptions about LA in a public university in Sri Lanka and provided some valuable insights into this relatively less researched context. The key findings can be listed as follows:

1. Teachers perceived LA as a more independent and individual effort to learn the language, which corresponds to most studies in similar scope.
2. Like in many cases, teachers acknowledged the significance of the teacher's role to promote LA especially in the initial phases of its introduction.
3. Most teachers contended that LA is more desirable than feasible given various constraints.
4. The constraints to promote LA fall under institutional, personal, social and political. In addition to the findings in Borg and Al Busaidi (2012), the current study further revealed certain constraints that fall under social and political categories.

Although the study is a valuable contribution as an exploratory study in this context, there is need for further research to deepen understanding and develop good practices. Particularly, research into the constraints preventing LA promotion and appropriate classroom practices to promote LA are two specific areas which demand further research. In addition, a comparative study in the public and private university sectors may generate useful data as to similarities and differences between these contexts. In terms of the limitations, the research is confined to a single state university, hence it can be extended to other public and private universities in Sri Lanka to provide more generalizable results. Finally, data collection tools will require further modification to collect data from a variety of institutions especially on the identified areas of research.

REFERENCES

Ahmadianzadeh, B., Seifoori, Z., & Tamjid, N. H. (2018). Exploring EFL teachers' beliefs about and practices of learner autonomy across experience and licensure. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching. 14* (2) 97-113 DOI: 10.1080/17501229.2018.1501694.

Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. London: Longman.

Borg, S. & Al Busaidi, S. (2012). Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*. 66 (33) 283-292 Oxford University Press.

Doğan, G. & Mirici, İ. H. (2017). EFL instructors' perception and practices on learner autonomy in some Turkish universities. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(1), 166-193.

Duong, T. M. (2014). EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy and Their Classroom Practices: A Case Study. *International Journal of Education and Management Engineering*.2, 09-17.

Borg, S. & Alsumaimery, Y. (2017). Language learner autonomy in a tertiary context: Teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*.1-30 SAGE.

Feryok, A. (2013) Teaching for learner autonomy: the teacher's role and sociocultural theory. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 7* (3), 213-225.

Fonseka, G. (2003). Autonomy in a Resource-Poor Setting: Enhancing the Carnivalesque. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner Autonomy across Cultures*. (147-163) New York: Palgrave Macmillan Ltd.

Hang, L. (2014). Teacher's role in Developing Learner Autonomy: A Literature Review. *International Journal of English Language Teaching. 1* (2) 21-27. Sciedu Press.

Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner Perceptions and Teacher Beliefs about Learner Autonomy in Language Learning. *Journal of NELTA 16* (1-2) 13-29.

Juan, L. & Yajie, C. (2018) EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices Concerning Learner Autonomy: A Narrative Inquiry. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 6 (6), 196-201.

Khalil, S. & Ali, A. D. (2018). Exploring EFL Teachers‟ and Students‟ Perceptions of Learner Autonomy in Egyptian Technical Schools. *International Journal of English Language Education 6* (2). (1-25)

Lamb, T. E. (2017). Knowledge about language and learner autonomy. In J. Cenoz, D. Gorter, & S. May (Eds.), *Language Awareness and Multilingualism*. (173-186). Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Little, D. (1991). Learner Autonomy: Definitions, issues and problems. Dublin: Authentik.

Little, D. (2007). Language learner autonomy: Some fundamental considerations revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(1), 14–29.

Loi, V. (2016). Learner Autonomy in Vietnam: Insights from English Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. In R. Barnard & J. Li (Eds.), *Language Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Asian Contexts* (1-22). IDP Education (Cambodia) Ltd.

Nakata, Y. (2011). Teachers' readiness for promoting learner autonomy: A study of Japanese EFL high school teachers. *Teaching and Teaching Education, 27,* (5) 900-910.

Palfreyman, D.M. (2018). Learner Autonomy and Groups. In: A. Chik, N. Aoki & R. Smith (Eds.), *Autonomy in Language Learning and Teaching*. (51-72) Palgrave Pivot, London. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-52998-5_4

Sara, C. (2000). Promoting Learner Autonomy Through Curriculum: Principle for designing language courses. E*LT Journal. 54* (2) (109-117).

Teng, F. (2019). Autonomy, Agency, and Identity in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd.

Wang, Y. & Wang, M. (2016). Developing Learner Autonomy: Chinese University EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. In R. Bernard & J. Li (Eds), *Language Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Asian Contexts* (p.23-42). IDP Education (Cambodia) Ltd.

Xhaferi, B. & Xhaferi, G. (2011). Developing Learner Autonomy in Higher Education in Macedonia. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 11*,150-154. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.01.051

Yasmin, M & Sohail, A. (2018). Learner Autonomy: Pakistani English Teachers' Beliefs. *Bulletin of Education and Research. 40* (2) 179-194.

CHAPTER V

THE ROLE OF ATTITUDES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING*

Yunus Doğan[1] & Murat Tuncer[2]

[1](Dr.) Fırat University , e-mail:jonah.saidson@gmail.com

0000-0002-5038-3404

[2](Prof. Dr.) Fırat University , e-mail: tunmurat@gmail.com

0000-0001-9136-6355

It is known that there are many variables in foreign language learning / teaching, which is a cumulative process that combines cognitive behaviors with new psycho-motor skills (Demirel, 2007), and therefore these variables play a role in explaining success / failure. However, changes in achievement in foreign language learning are increasingly attributed to individual differences (Skehan, 1989; Dörnyei, 2005; Kang, 2012), and it is believed that a successful language acquisition process is greatly influenced by individual differences and many studies are conducted in this direction. It is clear that among the individual differences, which are considered to affect academic achievement in a foreign language, the variables most emphasized in the relevant literature are affective (motivation, attitude, self-confidence, self-efficacy, anxiety ... etc.) and cognitive (intelligence, language ability, learning strategies, cognitive / metacognitive awareness… etc.) ones. As to the role of attitudes in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field, they have long been researched as a determinant of language learning motivation and achievement since Gardner and Lambert (1972) first proposed their socio-educational model of second language learning. Thus, this review of literature delves into general structure of attitudes in human behavior and especially in foreign language learning.

* This study has been taken from the first author's Ph.D. dissertation

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDES

As one of the main research topics of social psychology, the role of attitudes in explaining human behavior is a already phenomenon that is frequently studied in a wide variety of contexts such as family, workplace, learning environments, etc. According to İnceoğlu (2000), the reason why the subject of attitude is considered so important is that It is also possible to understand how attitudes function by investigating the attitude dynamics and thus the predictions about behaviors will be easier, and by determining the conditions of the attitude change process, it will be possible to control attitudes and thus control human behaviors. Various definitions of attitude have been made according to the relevant disciplines since it is the subject of examination in different fields such as Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Education, Marketing, Communication etc. Thurstone (1931), one of the first in the investigation of attitude, defined attitude as "feeling towards or against a psychological object" and emphasized the positive and negative emotional responses that the attitudes included. However, this definition covers only the emotion-related aspects of attitudes.

On the other hand, Allport (1954) stated that attitude has both emotional, intellectual and behavioral aspects, and defined the attitude as "the tendency to think, feel and act in a certain direction learned towards a particular person or object" (Garrett, 2010). Likert (1932) stated that attitude is the inference we make based on our beliefs about the object of attitude (Gardner, 1980). Making a similar definition to this, Gardner (1985) stated that an individual's attitude is the evaluation response he/she shows regarding the attitude object based on his/her beliefs and thoughts about the attitude object.

Hançerlioğlu (1988), who defines attitude as behaving in a certain way towards certain people, objects and events, notes that each attitude has three characteristics: the first feature is the object of attitude. This object can be a human, a cluster or an institution, or an abstract concept such as religion or education. The second feature is the human perception against this object. This perception usually occurs in the form of liking or disliking. The third feature of the attitude is the reaction or behavior shown against this object in accordance with the prevailing belief. According to the definition of Smith (1968), which is widely accepted, attitude is a tendency attributed to an individual and regularly forms his/her thoughts, feelings and behaviors related to a psychological object. (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008). As can be understood from this definition, attitude is not a behavior that can be observed and manifested, but a preparatory tendency for behavior.

Behaviors are attributed to attitudes. The psychological object is any object that has a meaning for the individual and that the individual is aware of. (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008). Ajzen (1988), who clearly associates attitude with behavior, thinks that it is a tendency to react in favor of or against an object, person, institution or event. Similarly, Eagley and Chaiken (1998) state that attitude is a psychological tendency expressed by evaluating a certain thing for or against a certain degree.

As can be seen from the definitions, scholars have focused on different dimensions of attitudes. While some highlighted the behavioral dimension, others introduced a definition for the affective content, on the other hand, some theorists such as Fazio (1990) and Tesser and Shaffer (1990) strongly opposed the inclusion of behavior in the definition of attitudes (Bartram, 2010). On the other hand, some researchers (Breckler, 1984; McGuire, 1969; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960) noted that an attitude makes an individual's thinking, emotion and behavioral tendencies compatible with each other and these are called elements of attitudes (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008). In other words, attitudes involve grouping or categorizing a stimulus on an evaluation dimension based on emotional, behavioral and cognitive information (Taylor et al., 2007). In this context, Haddock and Huskinson (2004), like many other researchers mentioned above, adopts a multicomponent model of attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioral). According to this model, the affective dimension consists of feelings and excitement towards the attitude object of the person, especially positive and negative evaluations. Behavioral dimension consists of a person's tendency to act in a certain direction (positive or negative) towards the attitude object. The cognitive dimension consists of the person's thoughts, including the facts, knowledge and beliefs about that particular attitude object (Taylor et al., 2007; Haddock & Huskinson, 2004). Although it is stated that these elements are mutually related, these three elements of attitudes may not always be much related with each other. Therefore, it is important to consider three elements together (Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994; cited in Taylor et al., 2007). Cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements are fully present in established and strong attitudes. However, in some weak attitudes, especially the behavioral element may be very weak (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008).

Cognitive dimensions of attitudes are often quite complex. Some of these beliefs are more or less important, and some are more or less open to being influenced by others. Therefore, complexity is an important feature of attitudes. Although the attitudes can be quite cognitively complex, they are often emotionally straightforward. When cognitive

complexity combines with emotional simplicity, the result is as follows: While an individual can change the cognitions that enter the development or formation of his attitude relatively easily, it is much more difficult for him to change his general evaluation of the attitude object. That is, it is easier to make changes in the cognitive dimension than in the emotional dimension (Taylor et al., 2007). Cüceloğlu (2014) reports that there is a stronger connection between the cognitive and behavioral aspects of attitude in recent studies. The relationship between the cognitive aspect of attitude and behavior occurs when the following four conditions are met: if the attitude is 1) strong, 2) based on the individual's personal life, 3) supported by other people who are important to the individual, 4) there is a chance of self-assertion. When one or more of these factors is missing, the relationship between the cognitive aspect of the attitude and the behavioral aspect is disrupted.

Another important feature of attitudes is their relationship with decision making and behavior. Attitudes make it possible to access related information and attitudes quickly, because they provide important connections between the pieces of information we store in memory (Judd, Drake, Downing, & Krosnick, 1991). In other words, attitudes allow them to be used instantly by conjuring up knowledge and other attitudes associated with them. They help people make quick decisions because they provide the information necessary to make choices (Sanbonmatsu & Fazio, 1990). Their links with behavior are somewhat weaker. Sometimes behavior is controlled by attitudes, sometimes not. Behavior can also change attitudes. The relationships between attitudes and behaviors can go in either direction. Attitudes can control behavior and sometimes behavior can control attitudes (Taylor et al., 2007). Kağıtçıbaşı (2008) also emphasizes that attitudes and behaviors are often incompatible and that we cannot predict behavior from attitudes, and the reasons for this are listed as follows:

- ✓ The first is whether we measured correctly. We need to define well what we want to measure and what kinds of questions we should ask.
- ✓ Another reason is the time factor. The longer the time between attitude and measuring behavior, the more variables that will affect the attitude-behavior relationship may be involved, so the likelihood of consistency between attitude and behavior decreases.
- ✓ Both attitudes and elements differ in power. Generally, established, deep-rooted attitudes have both high strength as a whole and the strength of their individual elements. Strong

attitudes are more determinant in predicting behavior (Petty & Krosnick, 1992). The stronger an attitude is, the more difficult it is to change it. One of the things that makes an attitude strong is knowing about an attitude object. Another thing depends on one's relationship to the object of attitude.

- ✓ Some attitudes can be recalled more quickly from memory and thus more easily reach the level of consciousness and affect behavior. This is called attitude availability.
- ✓ Another factor affecting the attitude-behavior relationship is awareness. Research shows that high awareness strengthens the attitude-behavior relationship. Awareness makes it easier to reach attitudes; when our awareness is high, we know better what our attitude is to any subject, and attitudes are more easily recalled to memory, thus affecting behavior more easily.

A distinction must be made between attitudes and knowledge. Although it is difficult to distinguish the two with a clear line, the main distinguishing feature of attitudes is that they contain an evaluation or emotional element. A second difference is that once developed, attitudes are much more resistant to change. Attitudes do not change easily in the face of a new reality (Taylor et al., 2007). Attitudes are learned later (Hançerlioğlu, 1988; İnceoğlu, 2000; Taylor et al., 2007; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008) and are generally obtained through the following ways: direct experience, reinforcement, imitation, social learning. Attitudes are some tendencies that are not themselves observed, but are supposed to lead to some observed behavior. Thus, they can be used as an intermediary variable in analyzing events. Considering that each element of attitudes causes some observable and measurable responses and these elements are also assumed as a result of their observation, the elements also appear as intermediate variables. Attitudes cannot be measured directly, but indirectly through behavior. The behavior generally used in this measurement is verbal behavior, which appears as answering questions or expressing opinions (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2008). Some researchers have stated that one-dimensional measurements of attitudes are not accurate, they should be measured with multi-dimensional scales due to their multi-dimensional structure, and thus much better results will be obtained (Gardner, 1985; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Silverman & Subramaniam, 1999; Renaud, 2013).

ATTITUDES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

It is discernable from the relevant literature (Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) that the attitudes and beliefs of an individual have an important place in language learning, which is a psycho-social process. While the attitude towards language can

be defined as the psychological structures that an individual has towards his / her mother tongue or other languages (Crystal, 1992); foreign language attitudes can be defined as an individual's attitudes towards a language other than his / her mother tongue, all learning contexts and processes related to that language, the speakers of that language and the culture in which that language is spoken. Chambers (1999) states that the attitude towards language means a set of values that the student brings to the experience of learning a foreign language, and this attitude is shaped by the successful results that the student hopes and the advantages he / she sees in language learning. These values can be determined by the experience of learning the target language or target language community, travel experience, the influence of parents and friends, and the attitudes they can show or express. This definition of Chambers (1999) is very important because it clearly places attitudes in the language learning context and mentions the social, cultural and educational factors that can affect them. The social dimension of attitude formation is particularly important here, because attitudes towards foreign languages are not limited to the foreign language class (Young, 1999; Bartram, 2010).

Ellis (1994) states that a student's foreign language learning ability could be affected by their attitudes towards the target language, native speakers and culture of the target language, the social value of learning a foreign language, and the student's attitudes towards himself as a member of his own culture. In this regard, Brown (2000) noted that all students have both positive and negative attitudes to varying degrees, and negative ones can be replaced by careful instructional methods such as using materials and activities that will enable students to understand and appreciate the target foreign culture. Again in Brown (2007), it is stressed that negative attitudes may occur due to a stereotyped prejudice originating from the target language or its culture. Richards and Schmidt (2002) note that expressions of positive or negative attitude towards a language can reflect expressions such as linguistic difficulty or ease, difficulty or ease of learning, degree of importance, elegance of language, social status, etc.; and that attitudes towards language can also indicate what people think of speakers of the relevant language; thus language attitudes can have an impact on second or foreign language learning. On the other hand, Sakuragi (2006) suggests that language attitudes towards language education and attitudes towards a specific language itself are divided into two; the first is related to the attitudes towards learning the relevant language and the second is related to how important the learner considers the language. Duan (2004), who makes a wide classification on attitudes towards language, states that it is an umbrella term that indicates attitudes under eight headings and divides language attitudes into the following headings:

1. Attitudes towards language changes, accent and speaking styles

2. Attitudes towards learning a new language

3. Attitudes towards a particular minority language

4. Attitudes towards language groups, communities and minorities

5. Attitudes towards language lessons

6. Attitudes towards the use of a particular language

7. Parental attitudes towards language learning

8. Attitudes towards language preference

It is known that the first studies on the role of attitudes in foreign language learning were carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Brown (2007) notes that Gardner and Lambert's work were the first systematic attempts to examine the impact of attitudes on language learning. However, in the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), attitudes and motivation are intertwined together and in most places without being completely separated. In this sense, it is not always clear what the difference between attitudes and motivation is in second language learning research (Ellis, 1985). Drawing attention to this concept ambiguity, Ellis (1985) tries to focus on the subject. In the context of this discussion, while Schumann (1978) lists 'attitude' as a social factor with variables such as 'size of the learning group', and 'motivation' as an affective factor with 'culture shock'; Gardner and Lambert (1972) defines "motivation" as the general goal or orientation of the second language learner, and "attitude" as the perseverance of the student in striving for a goal. Oroujlou and Vahedi (2011) stressed the necessity of separating attitudes and motivation, emphasizing that attitude is a set of beliefs and motivation is a reason for doing something. For example, the person may be motivated to learn English because they have a positive attitude towards English culture or an English teacher.

Drawing attention to the importance of attitudes in effective language learning, Wenden (1991) suggests that language learning attitudes consist of cognitive and affective components. The cognitive component includes beliefs or perceptions about language itself or situations related to attitude; whereas the affective component is the degree of liking or dislike, approval or disapproval associated with the attitude object, such as language teacher, language class (Gan, 2011). On the other hand, McCombs (1990) states that attitudes towards the learning environment can affect students' efforts to maintain the learning task on a self-directed basis. Similarly, how students conceptualize the language

learning process may affect how they actually approach the language learning task. As a result, language learning attitudes or beliefs serve as the basis for how students approach their learning, the strategies they implement, and their success in language learning (Oxford & Lee, 2008; Riley, 1996; Gan, 2011).

With regard to the role of attitudes in foreign language learning, Gardner (2001) argues that language learning is a futile undertaking without enough positive attitudes to support it (Dörnyei, 2005). Gardner (1985) establishes his socio-cultural model for foreign language learning in the context of motivation and attitudes, and in this sense assumes that motivation in a foreign language consists of four elements - goal, effort, desire to achieve the goal, and positive attitude towards the relevant activity. And in this sense, he distinguishes two distinct motivation as the instrumental motivation to learn a foreign language to get a job, to read a technical material or to go to study in the country where that language is spoken and the integrative motivation to mingle with the culture of the target language and to integrate with members of that culture. Cook (2008) notes that in these two concepts, motivation in a foreign language is mostly used to mean long-term persistent attitudes in students' minds. Merisuo-Storm (2007) states that positive attitudes towards language learning can increase students' motivation and help them in language learning. Krashen (1987) suggests that attitudes can play as a barrier or bridge to learning a new language.

Atchade (2002) summarizes the affective and personality factors that determine or affect attitudes towards foreign language learning as follows:

A. Affective Factors: Affective factors that determine or affect students' attitudes towards language learning can be divided into two categories (Gardner, 1985):

a) Factors before the student's second / foreign language study: Before entering the learning state, students may have different attitudes. These attitudes can create positive or negative tendencies towards second / foreign language learning. The student's impression of the second / foreign language and the society of that language, the people who speak that language, can determine their attitudes towards learning that language.

b) Factors developing in the learning process: During the second / foreign language learning experience in the classroom, the student can develop different attitudes towards the learning situation. These attitudes can be beneficial or detrimental to successful language learning. This depends on the affective situation from which these attitudes originate. What the student feels about learning the language in a particular learning environment or from a particular teacher can lead to rejection or acceptance

of learning. If the learning situation is a cause of concern for the student, s/he will likely develop negative attitudes towards learning. In addition, the student's comments about their parents' feelings about language learning can also affect their attitudes towards second / foreign language learning. The degree of motivation sustained during language learning is also determinant on the student's attitude towards learning. For example, a student who finds a particular language course no longer interesting has become demotivated and will likely develop a negative attitude. Therefore, the stronger the motivation, the more positive the attitude will be. In their research on the affective domain, Dulay and Burt (1982) suggested that there is an affective filter that determines how much of the input a student receives will go through the language processing mechanism. Accordingly, the students do not pay attention to all the inputs they are exposed to. Rather, they just take some and filter out the others. Therefore, as a result of affective factors such as attitude, the student becomes "on" or "off" with the second / foreign language.

B. Personality factors: Some personality traits create a positive or negative tendency towards second / foreign language learning. Learning a new language requires being flexible and open to new language norms and social norms of behavior. An individual who is ethnocentric, that is, who sees his or her group as more important than others, is likely to tend to display a negative attitude towards second / foreign language learning. On the other hand, an individual who is anomic, that is, open to the requirements of a different language or culture and is critical of his/her own society, tends to learn other languages successfully. Another personality trait researched in this sense is the extrovert personality. Extroverted individuals tend to have a positive attitude towards language learning, they learn faster; they are social, risk-taking, lively and active individuals; however, introverted individuals were reported to be quiet and prefer non-social activities (Strong, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Another feature of personality traits that is effective in language learning is inhibition. It prevents risk-taking out of fear of disapproval or ridicule. The inhibited individual is known for his/her hesitation in saying anything in a foreign language.

C. Social Impact: The social context may, to some extent, explain the student's attitude towards the second / foreign language. In addition, there are a number of people whose attitudes are important during second / foreign language learning: parents, teachers, peers… etc. Such social factors help to form student attitudes, which ultimately affect learning outcome (Ellis, 1994; Atchade, 2002). According to Vega (1995), part of the socialization process of children includes the development of attitudes towards languages, therefore classroom experience is very important in the development of attitudes towards language (Quiles, 2009).

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE

In the relevant literature, it has been emphasized that individuals who have a positive attitude towards a language and its speakers and culture are more successful in learning than those who have a negative attitude (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Ellis, 1985; Prince, 1987; Morello; 1988; Pritchard and Loulidi 1994; Ellis, 1994; Midraj, 1998; Mitchell and Myles, 1998; Brown, 2000; Atchade, 2002; Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Elyıldırım & Ashton, 2006; Brown, 2007; Fakeye, 2010; Garrett, 2010; Yu , 2010; Bartram, 2010; Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011; Youssef, 2012; Abidin et al., 2012).
As a matter of fact, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that an individual's attitude can determine the intended behavior and this thus affects the result. In this context, Elyıldırım and Ashton (2006) noted that when students with a positive attitude are successful, their attitudes are reinforced, on the other hand, students with a negative attitude may not progress in case of failure and their attitudes towards language learning may become more negative. Bartram (2010) states that studies between language attitude and performance / achievement are carried out with the assumption that there may be a connection between attitude and behavior, but this relationship may be controversial because attitude may not always turn into an observable behavior or performance.

Lightbown and Spada (2011) state that it is difficult to know whether positive attitudes lead to successful learning or whether successful learning determines positive attitudes or whether both are influenced by other factors. In this sense, Oller and Perkins (1980) concluded that there is no relationship between attitude and academic achievement. Burstall (1975) concluded that success affects later attitudes and that subsequent success affects either the next success or the next attitudes more than the initial attitudes (Ellis, 1985). Gardner (1985) also noted that attitude is related to behavior but this relationship may not be direct. In this sense, Baker (1992) emphasized that there may be relationships between the cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions of attitude, so beliefs about the importance of language learning may not turn into real language learning behavior, on the other hand, a positive cognitive component may hide a negative affective component. For example, someone may believe that learning English has value, but may not like the language learning process.

Renaud (2013) stated that relatively less research has been done on this subject, as it is generally thought that there is a positive relationship between attitude and academic achievement. For example, an important research on this subject has noted that attitude is mostly evaluated as a dependent variable and very few studies have examined the relationship

between attitude and success (Silverman & Subramaniam, 1999; cited in Renaud, 2013). Oller et al. (1977, 1978) conducted various large-scale studies on the relationship between attitudes and language achievement. In these studies, they investigated the relationships between Chinese, Japanese and Mexican students' academic achievement in English and their self-attitudes, attitudes towards their own language family and target language family group, and the reasons for learning English and traveling to America. Researchers were able to identify several meaningful attitude elements that were positively associated with success. In studies, it has been observed that mostly positive self-attitudes and individuals' attitudes towards their own language and target language increase the success (cited in Brown, 2007).

RELEVANT STUDIES IN TURKEY

Attitudes towards foreign language and foreign language courses has been one of the most researched topics in second language research in Turkey, and the results of various studies on these topics are remarkable. Temur (2013), in her study on 170 university students who received compulsory and optional English preparatory education, concluded that students who took English preparatory education on demand had higher motivation level and their attitude was more positive. Üzüm (2007) conducted a study with 219 university English preparatory students, investigating students' attitudes towards the English language and English-speaking societies and the historical and socio-political factors that may have influenced these attitudes. At the end of the study, it was concluded that the students developed positive attitudes towards English thanks to the cultural products of English-speaking communities and the functional value of English as a world language. Baklacıoğlu (2011), in his study on the students of the English language education department, found that the students who received preparatory class education had more positive attitudes towards English than those who did not. Yüksek (2013) found in his/her study of monolingual and bilingual students studying in English preparatory class that bilingual students have a more positive attitude towards English. Özdinç-Delbesoğlugil (2013) noted that in most of the related studies, it is understood that Turkish students generally have a positive attitude towards English and its culture. On the other hand, Karahan (2007), in her study with students, shared the conclusion that the Turks could not tolerate speaking English among themselves.

Conclusion

As the role of attitudes is well-established in the relevant literature, and the fact that foreign language attitudes are mostly shaped afterwards in the learning environment, there are some lessons that could be drawn. In this regard, teachers are the first and foremost determinants in the

formation of language attitudes in most countries. Thus, teachers need to make a foreign language an enjoyable learning and communication experience using more communicative methods that will enable students to get to know a different language and a different culture, rather than a lesson. It should not be forgotten that teacher attitudes towards foreign language and foreign language lesson are effective in the formation of students' attitudes towards foreign language and their self-efficacy perception about foreign language. The fact that foreign language teachers are the primary source directly related to the target language for students gives them a role in reducing the anxiety of students towards foreign language and creating positive attitudes.

REFERENCES

Abidin, M. J., Pour-Mohannadi, M., ve Alzwari, H. (2012). EFL students' attitudes towards learning English language: The case of Libyan secondary school students. *Asian Social Science, 8*(2), 119-134.

Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, personality and behavior*. Chicago: Dorsey Press.

Atchade, M.P. (2002). The Impact of Learners' Attitudes on Second or Foreign Language Learning. *Sciences Sociales et Humaines*, 004, 45-50.

Baker, C. (1992). *Attitudes and languages*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Baklacıoğlu, M. (2011). *The Impact of Learners' Attitudes and Learning Strategies of ELT Department Students on Academic Success*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Maltepe University Social Sciences Institute. İstanbul.

Bartram, B. (2010). *Attitudes to modern foreign language learning*. London, UK: Continuum.

Brown, H.D. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Longman: New York.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. 4th ed. Pearson Education Inc., White Plains, NY.

Chambers, G. (1999). *Motivating Language Learners.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cook, V. (2008). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. Hodder Education, an Hachette UK Company.

Crystal, D.(1992). *An encyclopedic dictionary of language and languages*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Csizer, K., ve Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 19-36.

Cüceloğlu, D. (2014). *İnsan ve Davranışı*. Remzi Kitabevi: İstanbul.

Demirel, Ö. (2007). *ELT Methodology*, 4th Ed. Pegem A Yayınları: Ankara.

Doğan, Y. (2016). *Examination of prep-class students' metacognitive awareness, self - efficacy beliefs, foreign language anxiety levels, foreign language attitudes and academic achievement in foreign*

language (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Fırat University, Elazığ, Turkey.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005) *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Duan, L. (2004). *A Sociolinguistic Study of Language Use and Language Attitudes among the Bai People in Jianchuan County, China*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Payap University, Chiangmai.

Eagley, A.H. ve Chaiken, S. (1998). Attitude change: multiple roles for persuasion variables. In: Gilbert, D.T., Fiske, S.T. ve Lindzey, G. (eds) *The Handbook of Social Psychology 2*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study Of Second Language Acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Elyıldırım, S., ve Ashton, S. (2006). Creating Positive Attitudes towards English as a Foreign Language. *English Teaching Forum*, 4, 2-11.

Fakeye, D. (2010). Students' Personal Variables as Correlates of Academic Achievement in English as a Second Language in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Sciences, 22*(3), 205-211.

Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I., 1975. *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: an introduction to theory and research*. Canada: Addison-Wesley.

Gan, Z. (2011). L2 Learner Individual Differences: An Integrative and Contextualist Perspective. *Reflections on English Language Teaching,* 10 (1), 67–88.

Gardner, R. (1980). On the validity of affective variables in second language acquisition: conceptual and statistical considerations. *Language Learning*, 30 (2), 255-270.

Gardner, R. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: the role of attitude and motivation.* London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R., ve Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and motivations in second language learning.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Garrett, P. (2010). *Attitudes to Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Haddock, G., ve Huskinson, T.L.H. (2004). Individual Differences in Attitude Structure. In: Haddock, G., ve Maio, G.R. (eds).

Contemporary Perspectives on the Psychology of Attitudes. New York: Psychology Press.

Hançerlioğlu, O. (1988). *Ruhbilim Sözlüğü*. Remzi Kitabevi, İstanbul.

İnceoğlu, M. (2000). *Tutum-Algı İletişim*. İmaj Yayınevi: Ankara.

Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. (2008). *Günümüzde İnsan ve İnsanlar: Sosyal Psikolojiye Giriş*. Evrim Yayınevi, İstanbul.

Kang, S. Y. (2012). *Individual Differences in Language Acquisition: Personality Traits and Language Learning Strategies of Korean University Students Studying English as a Foreign Language*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, Indiana State University.

Karahan, F. (2007). Language attitudes of Turkish students towards the English language and its use in Turkish context. *Çankaya Üniversitesi Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi, Journal of Arts and Sciences, 7, 73-87.*

Kormos, J., & Csizer, K. (2008). Age-Related Differences in the Motivation of Learning English as a Foreign Language: Attitudes, Selves, and Motivated Learning Behavior. *Language Learning*, 58(2), 327-355.

Krashen, S. (1987). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. UK: Prentice Hall International Ltd.

Lightbown, P.M., ve Spada, N. (2011). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford University Press.

Masgoret, A.-M., ve Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123–163.

Merisuo-Storm, T. (2007). Pupils' Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning and the Development of Literacy Skills in Bilingual Education. *Teaching and Teacher Education Journal*, 23(2), 226-235.

Midraj, S. H. (1998). *ESL students' attitudes and communicative competence.* Dissertation Abstracts International, 60 (12). 4305 A.

Mitchell, R. ve F. Myles. (1998). *Second Language Learning Theories.* London: Edward Arnold.

Morello, J. (1988). Attitudes of students of French toward required language study. *Foreign Language Annals.* 21;435-42.

Oller, J.; Baca, L.; Vigil, F. (1977). Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: A sociolinguistic study of Mexican Americans in the southwest. *TESOL Quarterly*, 11 (2), 173-183.

Oller, J. and Perkins, K. (1980). *Research in Language Testing.* Rowley MA: Newbury House.

Oroujlou, N., ve Vahedi, M. (2011). Motivation, attitude, and language learning. International Conference on Education and Educational Psychology, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 29, 994 – 1000.

Özdinç-Delbesoğlugil, A.B. (2013). *As Predictors of Academic Success in EFL Classrooms, Self-Regulation, Self-Esteem and Attitude (A Case Study).* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Gaziantep University Educational Sciences Institute.

Prince, J. A. (1987). The Language Learner: Improving Attitudes toward Language Learning. *Hispania*, 70(3), 669-670.

Pritchard, R.M.O., ve Loulidi, R. (1994). Some Attitudinal Aspects of Foreign Language Learning in Northern Ireland: Focus on Genderand Religious Affiliation. *British Journal of Educational Studies,* 42 (4), 388-401.

Quiles, N.S. (2009). *Attıtudes Of Elementary School Students Towards Learnıng And Use Of Englısh: Implıcatıons For Currıculum Desıgn/Implementatıon*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, University of Puerto Rico Department of Graduate Studies.

Renaud, R.D. (2013). Attitudes and Dispositions. In J. Hattie ve E.M. Anderman (Eds), *International Guide to Student Achievement* (pp. 57-58). New York: Routledge.

Richards, J.C., ve Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.

Sakuragi, T. (2006). The Relationship between Attitudes toward Language Study and Cross-cultural Attitudes. *International Journal of Intercultural Studies*, 30(1), 19-31.

Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual Differences in Second Language Learning.* London: Edward Arnold.

Taylor, S. E., Peplau, L. A., & Sears, D. O. (2007). *Sosyal Psikoloji* (Çev: Ali Dönmez). İmge Kitabevi Yay.

Temur, M. (2013). *A Study on Determining the Attitudinal and Motivational Levels of Compulsorily and Voluntarily Students of English Preparatory Higher School at Inonu University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Kafkas University Social Sciences Institute. Kars.

Üzüm, B. (2007). *Analysis of Turkish Learners' Attitudes towards English Language and English Speaking Societies*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, ODTÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. Ankara.

Young, D. J. (1999). *Affect in Foreign Language and Second Language Learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere.* McGraw-Hill Companies: the USA.

Youssef, A. M. S. (2012). Role of Motivation and Attitude in Introduction and Learning of English as a Foreign Language in Libyan High Schools. *International Journal of Linguistic*, 4 (2), 366- 375.

Yu, Y. (2010). *Attitudes of Learners toward English: A Case of Chinese College Students*. Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, United States-Ohio.

Yüksek, S.S. (2013). *Bilingualism and Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Çağ Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. Mersin.