THE IMPACT OF MASS MEDIA TOOLS ON EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS

Muhsin Yanar

Piri Reis University, 34940 Tuzla, Istanbul, Turkey

omayyy@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. BirsenTütüniş

Kültür University, Şirinevler Campus English Prep. Building 706

tutunisster@gmail.com

Biodata

Muhsin YANAR is currently working for Piri Reis University as an English instructor. He holds an MA Degree and as a PhD. Candidate at İstanbul Aydın University, he is highly interested in different aspects of language acquisition and learning.

Prof. Dr. Birsen TÜTÜNŞL has received her PhD from University of Sussex. She has been working in our field as an English instructor, as a lecturer and as an administrator for years. She has written articles and books on different issues related to our field. Her recent interest lies on learner training..

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MuhsinYanar
omayyy@gmail.com

BirsenTütüniş
tutunisster@gmail.com

Abstract

It is a well-known fact that mass media tools have tremendous impact on people all around the world, and it is also becoming a significantly important research area for scholars, educators and researchers in applied linguistics. EFL students in Turkish context complain about their speaking skills in English despite their exposure to English for a long period of primary and secondary education. Knowing this fact as a member of this community, an exploratory practice was conducted as a detailed study to find out young adult EFL students' (38) perceptions on the impact of mass media tools in the improvement of their speaking skills. The results displayed the fact that subject EFL students believed in the positive effect of mass media tools on their speaking skills but they were not aware of.

Keywords: MMT (mass media tools), A-V M (audio-visual materials), ESL (English as a Second Language), EFL (English as a Foreign Language)

> The words and structures of a person's languages control his way of   thinking and ultimately the whole culture to which it belongs.
>
> Benjamin Whorf

1. Introduction

Technological developments and advances have changed the distribution of mass media in twentieth century radically. Today, it is integrated in nearly every corner of social life as a conflict, change, dominance, or social integration. It can also be said that the power of media has always influenced general or daily opinions, ideas and behavior of people. At present millions of people all around the globe fully rely on mass communication as the flow of information, and knowledge is unbelievably quick, fast and diverse.

In educational settings mass media enriches instruction. The enrichment may come from interesting presentation of audio visually developed/advanced movies, educational television programs, chat rooms and television series. Therefore, these materials can reach larger numbers of individuals than those used in classrooms, as they are easy to access and they have a wide publicity. The mass media also reach students easily, who do not prefer to participate in classroom instruction, and those ones who are distant from campus, working and unable to coordinate their business life schedules with class times, or those ones dealing with taking care of their children, the handicapped and many more.

As the mass media and the communication are interconnected, it is not unreasonable to make use of mass media tools such as TV and radio programs, news, films, songs and internet in EFL.

The role of the language and media is in fact needed to be focused on and analyzed in a good perspective in terms of its practicality, intelligibility, quality of doable-ity in terms of learning. Therefore, there is an urgent need to construct a relation between language and the media.

The language teaching situation in terms of the students' speaking competence is not successful in schools. There is an urgent need for a solution. The mass media tools could be considered as a remedy as these materials have the highest potential to attract the students by being flexible, entertaining and interactive. It will be easier, faster and more effective in improving students' listening and speaking skills.

Television with its authentic audiovisual materials, radio with its authentic audio materials, news with its authentic everyday language and the internet facilities which has all sorts of materials will be an effective way of learning and using the language. The use of these mass media teaching materials can add zest, interest and vitality to the teaching learning situation or environment. In addition to that, using authentic mass media teaching forces the students will be encouraged to be interactive, to learn faster and to remember. Mass media is materials, devices and symbols make a subject more comprehensible and interesting. They provide learners with realistic experiences (real-life situations) which gets their attention and help in understanding of the mechanics of the language.

This study is conducted with the aim of finding out the impact of spoken discourse of mass media on second language speaking skills development. In this study, a small scale action research was conducted. It is a research technique that can be employed by teachers to improve on the educational environment in the classroom. Usually, action research is done by teachers to analyze behavior and various classroom situations to better the classroom environment. For the study in question, it was hypnotized students cannot use daily expressions unless they are taught explicitly and a solution was searched. Some students were given a questionnaire which was analyzed as a pilot study to see such study will be useful for the students. Then questionnaire, interview, test techniques were used to collect the data.

The use of authentic mass media tools such as television, radio, films, videos, songs, and teach the expressions used in daily life is seen as a solution.

The study was conducted at Piri Reis University with 38 (19 experimental group and 19 control group) students. The following research questions are put forward for the whole study:

1. Can I make the EFL students use daily expressions if I expose them to oral media?

2. What is the role of mass media tools such as television, radio, films, videos, songs, and internet (social media) on the development of speaking skills in EFL?

However, the pilot study in this paper is done to understand whether mass media tools can or may be used to improve SS speaking skills or not.

2. Literature Review

Heinich (1990) believes that mass media serves many roles in teaching. It can easily become a teacher or it can serve as an interlocutor. Mass media can supply the words which go beyond the experience of the students. The teacher, by making use of mass media can bring in authentic materials that are real and life-like. It develops and improves student attitude and interest

towards learning. Plus, it makes learning permanent as it pushes students to attend, to gain more accurate information and to remember.

The impact of television on learning is accepted as undeniable. Television has one of the highest potential to revolutionize education and to link learning more closely to real life. Television can attract and motivate large audience, and so address national, universal problems as no other medium can. Only television has the scope, the visual impact and the potential for persuasion and behavior change to move masses (Siraj, 2001, Hwang, 2005).

For the authenticity of the materials, Tomilson (2001) for example of the opinion that authentic materials are valuable because they contain cultural aspects and show the students the real samples of language as used by native speakers. Constructed materials on the other hand, are seen less effective and less interesting since they do not introduce real world to learners. Berardo (2006) highlights the idea that non-authentic materials have an 'artificial and unvaried' language as they only concentrate on the subject that is supposed to be taught, and 'false-text indicators' which are sentences formed perfectly, questions formed by grammatical structures and followed by a full answer, and structures repeated. These make the texts seem very different to the ones in the real world as the real language use reflection. Hwang (2005) similarly holds the idea that while those authentic materials are interactive, EFL textbooks are implemental. She also insists that relying on carefully written materials for English teaching is not enough in order to supply the native-like proficiency.

3. Problem

The language teaching situation in Turkish context seems to rely heavily on course books and in general, especially in terms of the students' speaking competence there is no success and students after 12 years' school education cannot communicate in a foreign language. The mass media tools could be considered as a remedy since these materials have the potential to attract the students by their flexibility and interactivity that would at the same time be entertaining for the learners. It will be easier, faster and more effective to improve students' listening and speaking skills. In addition to this, EFL or ELT community has been designing coursebooks according to different teaching approaches or methods such as audiolingual, grammar-based, communicative and so on. All these approaches and methods tried to be effective on teaching the second language. However, the students find speaking English difficult as the language being used in the class is not similar to the one being used in real life. Grammatically, the students are successful, but on speaking, they are not that successful beacuse the semi-authenticity of the books and the way of teaching. Therefore, I believed that , bearing the other researchers in mind, using authentic mass media tools / materials will solve the speaking problems of EFL learners as these materials are from real life and totally authentic.

4. The Venue

The English Preparatory School of Maritime University accommodates students who study English before they start their departmental courses. The participants were given 5 skills courses: Structure, Reading and Writing, Listening and speaking skills. The same curriculum was used for all the students who studied an intensive English language program at preparatory school.

EFL students are expected to pass the proficiency exam at the end of the year. During the year, students had quizzes and examinations prepared by the English Preparatory School. The aim of the quizzes is to test the content of the course. Quizzes are marked by the class instructors

and after the administration, papers are returned to the students. In each quarter, there are two mid-terms. The aim of the midterms is to show students the areas that need to be studied further. Through the midterms, the course content and language skills are tested. Apart from the tests, there is listening and speaking class for 8 hours each week. In these classes, the students are exposed to a lot of social media materials and authentic audio. With this, the aim is to evaluate the students listening and speaking skills. The students are given listening quizzes and tests and oral exams. All the students are expected to have a passing rate of 60 out of 100 in order to take the proficiency examination at the end of the year.

5. Subjects of Study

This study was done with 2 randomly chosen groups of EFL students. 19 students were in the experimental group and 19 students were in the control group. They were aged between 18-21 Participants were studying at a Maritime University English preparatory class with diverse educational background. All students had a very limited English background. The two groups were treated differently in their listening speaking classes. For example, the control group was studying actual Q-Skills Listening and Speaking Course book, while the experimental group was supposed to study both the regular curriculum and many extra authentic media materials such as movies, news, interviews and songs.

6. Tools of Research

The researcher has used primary and secondary sources for data collection. The primary source was mass media tools such as television, radio, and online videos and from daily life. The secondary source was the course books.

a. Questionnaire

Two surveys were designed by using questionnaires. The researcher opted to use both open ended and closed ended questionnaires in two respective surveys.

b. Interview

Secondly, interviews were conducted to evaluate the effect of social media on speaking accurately and fluently.

c. Observation

The subjects were observed in two ways; on a guide for the study in class, on data and on how they speak. In-class experience and observations provided a holistic view to the research problem.

d. Content Analysis

English TV programs, news, radio programs, videos and movies with/out English subtitle and songs with lyrics were analyzed and a syllabus was designed for classroom use. The syllabus designed was conducted in the experimental group's class whereas the control group was taught with the syllabus of the school.

7. Data Collection

Several data were used to draw conclusion based on their information. All data were collected in the first term of 2011 – 2012 academic years. To get a holistic view of Listening and Speaking

class, we had data relied on classroom observations including classroom studies, questionnaires, statistic knowledge obtained from the written and oral tests of students.

8. Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to get the students' general idea of the advantages of mass media tools such as videos, movies and TV on speaking accurately and fluently, and plus, whether these tools would be effective and improve the students' speaking skills and get the colloquial language. To get the results, six questions were asked to the students. (see Appendix 1)

9. Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire 1 was given to the students to understand the common perspective of them about Listening and Speaking. It was the first week of the term and the English level of students was low and found it hard to understand. The teacher asked some basic questions about Listening and speaking to reveal students' perception about the course. Through oral social media feedback, the first questionnaire was based on some basic oral questions and listening media materials. (see Appendix 2). The students were wanted to catch and use the daily expressions from oral social media feedback/materials. (see Appendix 2)

10. Questionnaire 2

The research hypnotizes that developing awareness and raising interest of students towards the Listening and Speaking by using materials from social and mass media tools such as news, videos, authentic speaking sources will result in better listening, accuracy and fluency. Therefore, in order to check whether the study was fruitful or not, students' interest towards the subject needed to be researched. (see Appendix 3)

11. Tests / Examinations

Tests and examinations prepared according to the course book and authentic media sources were given regularly to assess the outcomes of the materials used. The authentic materials from media tools and materials from the book chosen were used to evaluate the students' listening comprehension. Before using the media materials in the class, the researcher taught some common daily expressions such as 'actually, well, I think, for me, you know, personally, personally I think' and so on. Afterwards, the students tried to grasp these expressions while watching the videos. The main purpose of these activities is to teach how to speak or how to sound naturally and more sensibly. Furthermore, the students need to use them while speaking the second language if they would like to speak naturally. (see Appendix 4 -5).

12. Data Analysis
12.1. Pilot Study Analysis

The pilot study was conducted and six questions were asked. As the students did not understand the questions, they were translated into Turkish to help them understand.(see Appendix 1)

Table 1. *Pilot Study*
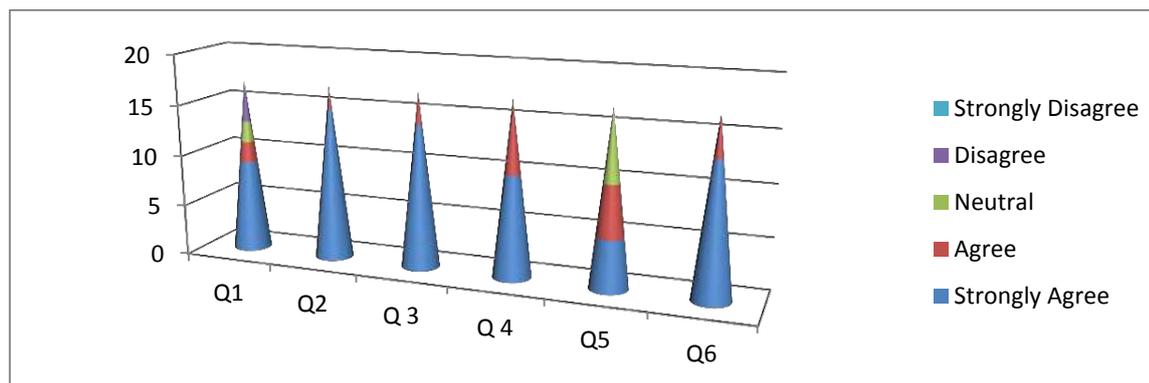
From the pilot study, it can be understood clearly that most of the students chose the answer ' strongly agree' which means that the students had the general idea that films, movies, television, chatting with native speakers and English songs would be a productive and an effective way of learning daily/ colloquial language and using it accurately and fluently. (see Appendix 1)

12.2. Questionnaire 1 Analysis

The research question, 'Can I make the EFL students use daily expressions if I expose them to oral media as much as possible? What is the role of mass media tools such as television, radio, films, videos, songs, and internet (social media) on speaking skills and speaking fluently?, an attitude questionnaire was given to students at the beginning of the term. The questionnaire had six questions and each question had five different options. The questions were designed to reveal students' opinions regarding their attitudes towards Listening and Speaking. The results were analyzed question by question. The students found the questions and their options hard to understand, and therefore the whole questionnaire was translated into Turkish and given in Turkish. (see Appendix 2). It was understood that the students could not catch and use the daily expressions, which are the crucial part of fluent speaking. Here is the result of students' attitude questionnaire;

In this questionnaire, the students were tested according to some criteria such as fluency, comprehension, communication, vocabulary, structure and accent. The first question is about fluency, the second one is comprehension, the third one is communication, the fourth one is vocabulary, the fifth one is structure and the last one is accent. Each of these has five options. The students choose one option that matches with their level of fluency, comprehension, communication, vocabulary, structure and accent. (see Appendix 2)

Table 2: *The pre- checklist for measuring communicative abilities*.
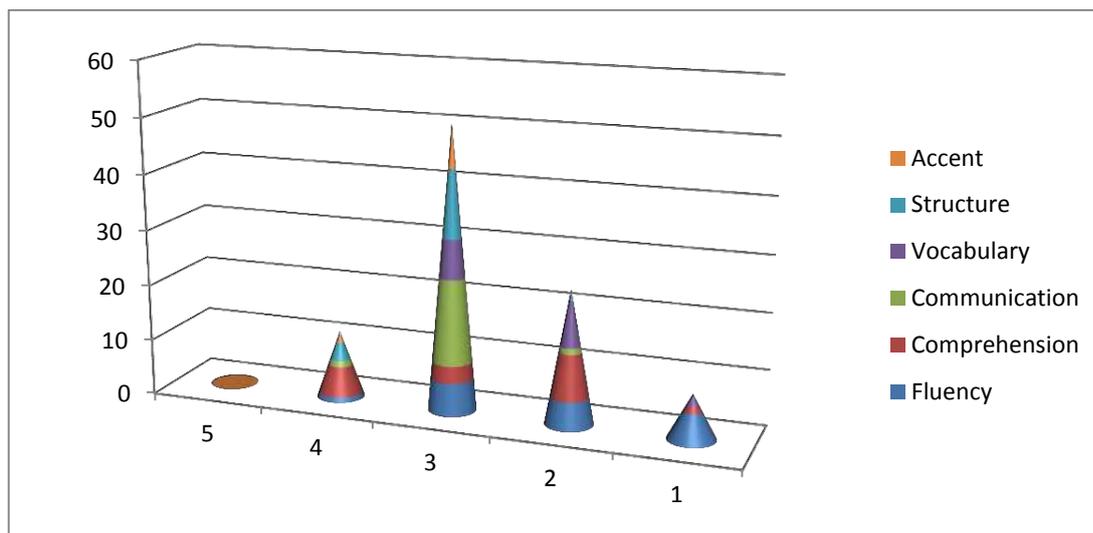
As it can be clearly understood from the Table 2 that in the first questionnaire, the students have the idea that they mostly speak hesitantly and slowly because of simply paraphrasing and searching for words and speak in short patterns (1, 4). In addition to that they can understand simple sentences (2, 2) and they are almost unable to communicate (3,1), only able to communicate for personal and survival needs (3,2). Furthermore, the table shows that they use limited vocabulary (4, 2) or some basic words and use predominantly present verb tenses (5, 2) and make severe errors (6, 2). Lastly, the students have pronunciation problems, which are almost unintelligible.

12.3. Training Session

After the 1st questionnaire observations, students were trained about how /when to use these daily expressions list which has 'Giving opinions, Agreeing, Disagreeing, Asking for opinions, Interrupting, Making things clear, Making a point/ stating a fact, Saying that you're not sure, Trying to remember, Checking that you've understood' and fillers. (see Appendix 3). After training, the students watched many authentic social media tools such as movies, news, interviews, lecture and songs. These online materials (www.ted.com), (www.realenglish.com, www.elllo.org), (www.youtube.com), were chosen according to the spoken language in the context. It was thought that if the students were exposed to these materials a lot, they would produce more common daily expressions. At the end of this training session and its applications, the students were given while listening test.

12.4. Analysis of Tests / Examinations

When the first written 'fill in the blank with the daily expressions test' was given, they were not very successful; 14 out 19 students could not fill in the gaps, but only 4 out of 19 students could fill in the gaps with the correct alternatives of useful expressions that help them to sound naturally and fluently. Therefore, the researcher decided to give the expressions on giving opinions, agreeing/ disagreeing, asking for opinions, making a point and so on.

Table 6. *The usage of useful expressions pre- training*.
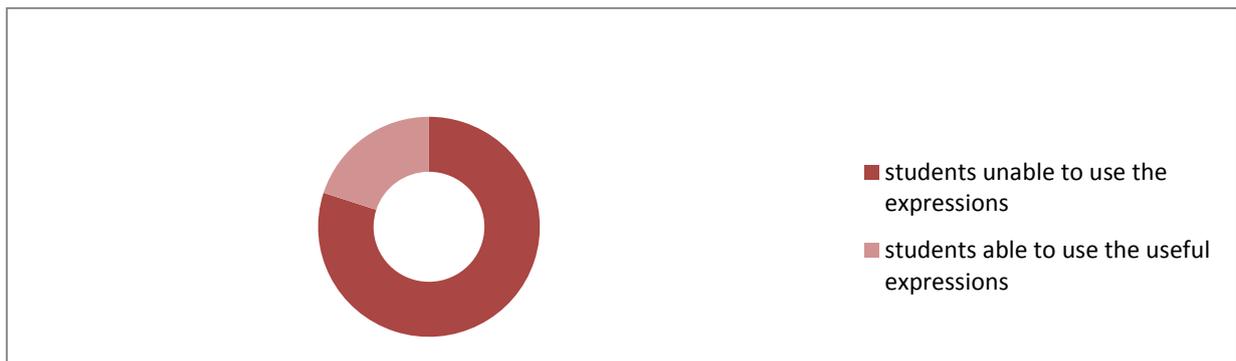
However, after the study sessions about the daily expressions and being exposed to variety of social media tools such as news, videos, interviews, songs and lectures, the students understood the key point, which is the usage of daily expressions while speaking the language. It is observed that they began to use these expressions whenever they were given a speaking task.

Table 7. *The usage of useful expressions post- training*

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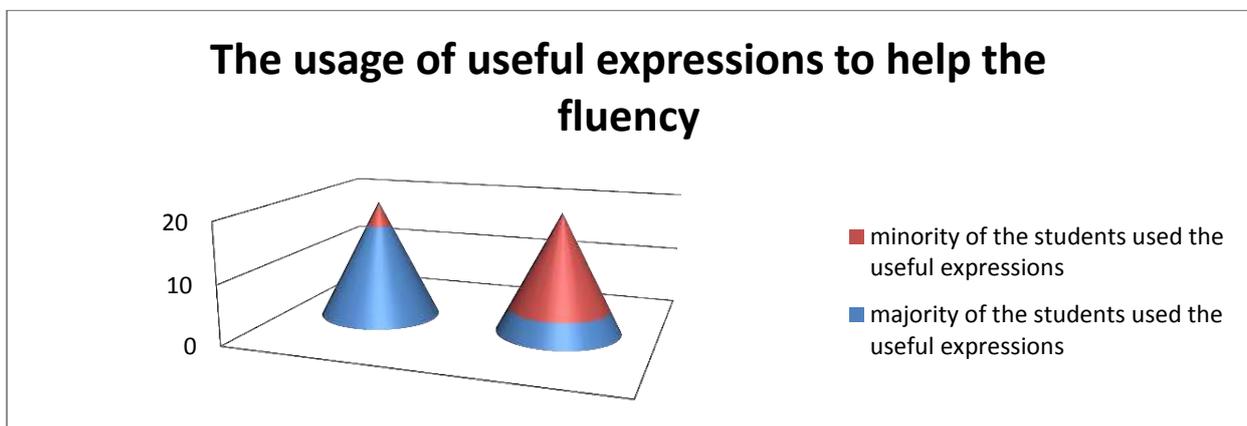
The students watched videos, short soap operas, speeches, lectures and songs with lyrics, weather forecasts, news and other supplementary audio-visual authentic materials. They were told to catch the phrases and expressions that they were trained about. Afterwards, they were tested by the researcher to see the outcomes of the training. It was seen that 16 out of 19 students could fill in the gaps with correct alternatives of daily expressions while 4 out of 19 students could not do it efficiently enough.

Table 8. *The usage of useful expressions– pre- training*.

Table 9. *The usage of useful expressions post- training*
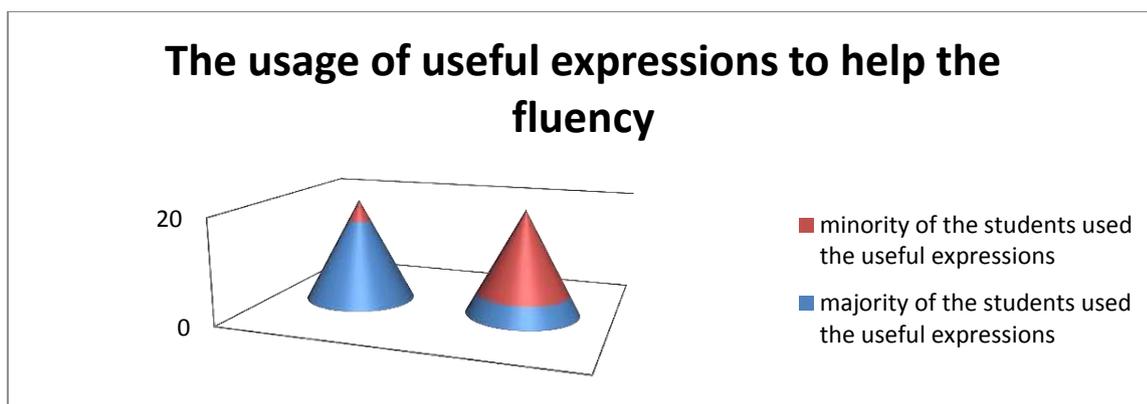
When before training and after training session compared, it can obviously seen that mass media authentic materials seem to be more effective and motivating than the course books studied during the class as these audio-visual authentic materials produce or are capable of producing an intended result or having a striking effect on picking up the daily expressions.

In this test, the students were asked to fill in the blanks with the daily expressions that they heard. (see Appendix 4). This was repeated a couple of times and the students understood that the daily expressions are the significantly key elements/points for speaking the language fluently. Afterwards, it was obviously seen that they are able to use these daily expressions whenever their opinions/ideas were asked for any speaking task.

12.5 Analysis of oral tests

Oral test was conducted to evaluate formally whether the students used the daily expressions well enough. There were two groups; experimental and control group. Experimental group did not have any training sessions on usage of daily expressions while speaking. However, control group had training session on usage of daily expressions to make their speaking more fluent and accurate. There were five students in each group and each student was asked six questions ranging from education, social life, health and so forth. Each student was asked to pick a card from an envelope and in each card, there were six questions. (see Appendix). Picking a card was not important for the researcher, rather, using daily expressions while speaking was my key point.

Each experimental group student picked a card from the envelope and began to speak on various subjects. However, it was seemed that their way of speaking was accurate but not fluent. 90 % of the students did not use daily expressions. Their way of speaking about given subjects sounded like reading sentences from a book and dull. However, 10 % of the students spoke using daily expressions which sounded like more natural, accurate and fluent.

Table 10. *Experimental group usage of daily expressions*.
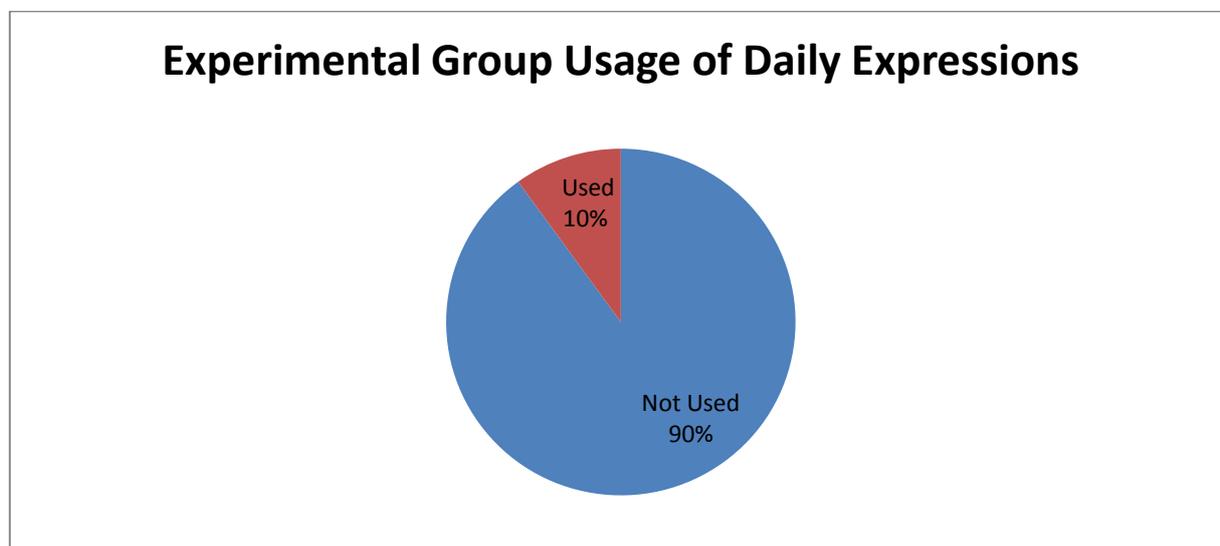
However, each student in control group picked a card from the same envelope and spoke about almost the same topics. 90 % of the control group students spoke using daily expressions such as ' Actually, I think, You know, Well, I think, For me, In my opinion, and so forth which sounded more natural, accurate and most importantly fluent. Only 10 % of the students did not used these daily expressions.

Table 11. *Control group usage of daily expressions*.
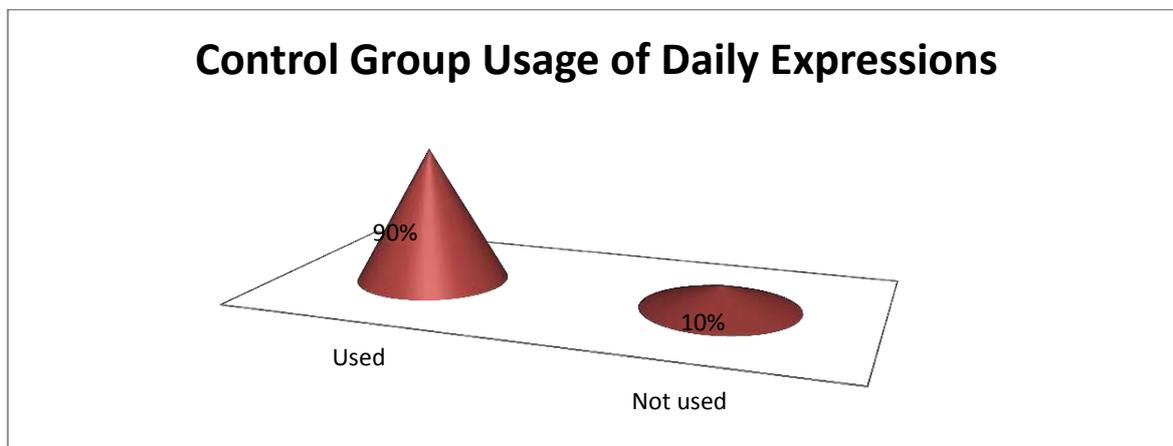
At this point, it is seemed that using authentic mass media materials in class is effective on using common daily expressions while speaking. When both experimental and control group oral interview / tests taken into consideration, it is also understood that these authentic mass media

materials can be used in the class to destroy the barrier between real life speaking language and classroom language.

12.6. Questionnaire 2 Analysis

After, the students watched authentic videos, short online lectures online authentic language teaching materials and some other materials such as news, weather forecast, soap operas which are short and with/ out English subtitle, and also some other course book listening materials to understand which one(s) is/are more helpful and motivating to make them speak naturally and fluently. The students figured out that authentic audio-visual materials are more helpful and effective to make them speak fluently and sound naturally.

Table 3. *The post- checklist for measuring communicative abilities*.
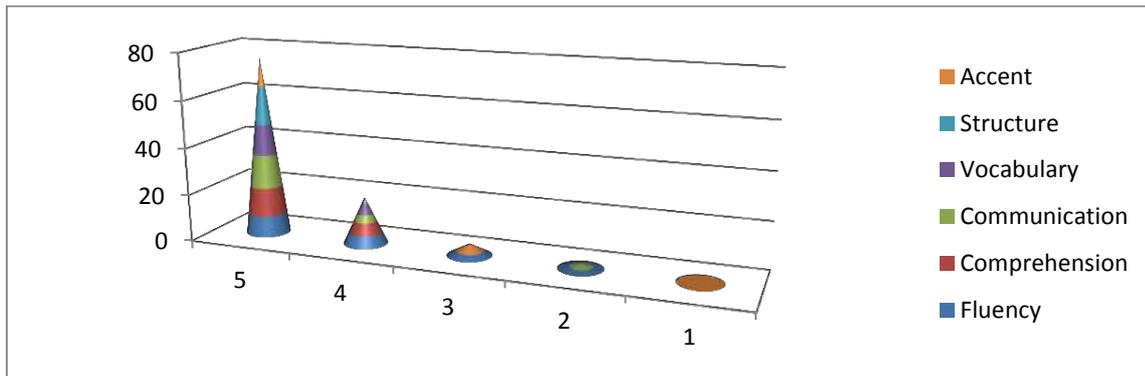
From the Table 3, it is seen that when the students exposed to audio-visual authentic media materials they speak with less hesitations (1, 4), and understand most spoken language (2, 4), initiate and sustain conversations (3, 3), and it is also observed that they can form/ produce some academic and colloquial vocabulary and expressions (4, 4), use some complex sentences (5, 3) and speak with few phonemic errors (6, 4), but more intelligible pronunciation. In summary, their fluency, comprehension, communication, vocabulary, structure and accent showed better progress.

Table 4. *The pre- checklist for measuring communicative abilities*.
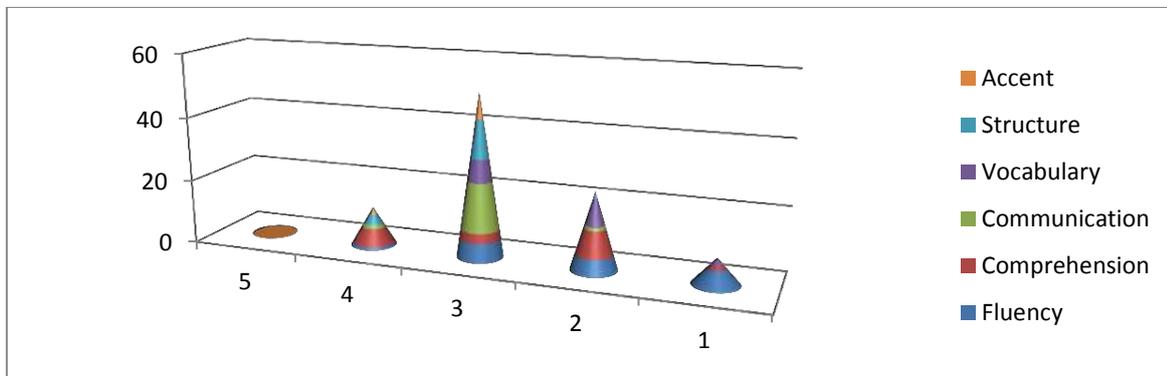
Table 5. *The post- checklist for measuring communicative abilities*.
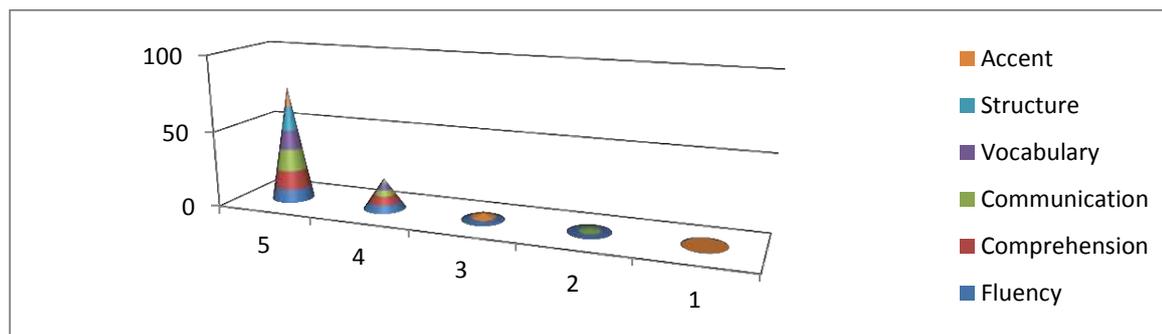
When compared to the first table, it is clear that the students are more familiar with English in many ways. For example, the students became more fluent, and it was easier for them to understand a native speaker. In addition, they could use the common daily phrases as they figured out that the people on videos, movies and TV used these while speaking. After exposed to these online and media tools, they could understand the accents and plus, they did try to have an accent while speaking. In short, it is seen that this study was productive, efficient and problem solving for the students.

13. Conclusion

The study was conducted to judge the effectiveness of mass media authentic materials on picking up the colloquial language in speaking English. The selected Preparatory School listening and speaking courses are devoted to this study of mass media authentic materials were carried out during the learning process. The results of the study presented the effectiveness of teaching these authentic materials in foreign language speaking skills development. The analysis of the data collected from the EFL students' speaking on one hand and the effectiveness of mass media authentic materials on the other. The results, considerably high success with a score of percentage 80, and the questionnaires showed significant evidences of the study conducted throughout the year. Students developed positive attitude towards mass media authentic materials rather than non-authentic course book materials. The rate of speaking a foreign language accurately and fluently in the class increased compared to the beginning of the year. In addition, the results of the study revealed that authentic mass media materials used in the class are much more effective and efficient than those ones in the course books.

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Appendix – Questionnaire

1- Strongly agree   2- Agree   3- Neutral   4- Disagree   5- Strongly Disagree

1. Film language is from daily English, whereas course books is not ………………….....................……..   1 2 3 4 5
2. Watching soap opera, videos and movies will improve my speaking ……………………….………………   1 2 3 4 5
3. Chatting with native speakers will improve my speaking ……………………………………..   1 2 3 4 5
4. Computer games will improve my vocabulary knowledge ……………………………………..   1 2 3 4 5
5. Listening to audio- visual media will be an effective on speaking fluent and accurate English……………………………..   1 2 3 4 5
6. TV and radio programs, films, news and English songs will improve my speaking skills ……………………………………..   1 2 3 4 5

1- Kesinlikle katılıyorum   2- Katılıyorum   3- Nötr   4- Katılmıyorum

5- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

1. Film dili günlük İngilizce iken, ders kitapları günlük İngilizce değildir. …………………..........
   1 2 3 4 5
2. Diziler, videolar, ve filmler İngilizce konuşmamı geliştirecektir. …………………………………
   1 2 3 4 5
3. Anadili İngilizce olan birisiyle konuşmak İngilizcemi geliştirecektir. ……………………………
   1 2 3 4 5
4. Bilgisayar oyunları kelime hazinemi geliştirecektir. ………. ……………………………..
   1 2 3 4 5
5. Media araçları doğru ve akıcı konuşmak için etkili bir yoldur. …………………
   1 2 3 4 5
6. Televizyon ve radio programları, haberler ve İngilizce şarkılar İngilizce konuşma becerimi geliştirecektir. ……………………………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix 2 - The Checklist for Measuring Communicative Abilities

<u>**Scale 1 – fluency**</u>

5. I speak fluently.

4. I speak with native-speaker like fluency, pauses and hesitations do not interfere with comprehension.

3. I speak with occasional hesitations.

2. I speak hesitantly and slowly because of searching for words.

1. I speak in single word and short patterns and I am unable to make connect the sentences.

Scale II – comprehension

5. I understand academic discourse without difficulty.

4. I understand most spoken language.

3. I understand academic discourse with repetitions, rephrasing and clarifications.

2. I understand simple sentences and words. .

1. I understand very little or no English.

Scale III - communication

5. I communicate competently in social academic settings.

4. I speak fluently in an academic setting; errors do not interfere with meaning.

3. I initiate and sustain conversation and it exhibits self-confidence in social situations.

2. I begin to communicate for personal and survival needs.

1. I am unable to communicate.

Scale IV - vocabulary

5. I use extensive vocabulary in any domain appropriately.

4. I use varied vocabulary to discuss general topics and in special interests.

3. I use academic vocabulary, but I use some word inappropriately.

2. I use limited vocabulary.

1. I have inadequate basic vocabulary.

Scale V – structure

5. I master a variety of grammatical structures, almost no errors.

4. I make some grammatical errors, but I do not have any problem with understanding.

3. I use some complex sentences.

2. I use present tense verbs.

1. I make severe errors.

Scale VI – accent

5. I have acceptable pronunciation with few traces of foreign accent.

4. I speak with few phonemic errors, but almost intelligible pronunciation.

3. I need to listen attentively to get the accent.

2. I make severe errors.

1. I do not understand any speaking.

İletişim Becerileri Ölçüm Listesi

Ölçüm 1 – akıcılık

5. Akıcı bir şekilde konuşuyorum.

4. 'Native speaker' ile akıcı gibi konuşuyorum, durmalar ve tereddütler anlamaya engel teşkil etmiyor.

3. Bazı tereddütlerle konuşuyorum.

2. Kelime aradığım için yavaş konuşuyorum.

1. Tek kelime ve kısa kalıplarla konuşuyorum ve cümle kuramıyorum.

Ölçüm II – anlama

5. Akademik konuşmayı zorlanmadan anlıyorum.

4. Çoğu konuşma dilini anlıyorum.

3. Akademik konuşmayı tekrarlar, başka cümlerlerle anlatılınca ve açıklamalarla anlıyorum.

2. Basit kelime cümleleri anlıyorum.

1. Çok az anlıyorum veya hiç anlamıyorum.

Ölçüm III - iletişim

5. Sosyal akademik ortamlarda etkili bir şekilde konuşuyorum.

4. Akademik ortamlarda etkili bir şekilde konuşuyorum, yanlışlar anlamaya engel teşkil etmiyor.

3. Koşumaya başlayıp sürdürüyorum, ve sosyal durumlarda kendine güveni sergiliyor.

2. Kişisel ve günlük ihtiyaçlar için iletişim kurmaya başlıyorum.

1. İletişim kuramıyorum.

Ölçüm IV – kelime

5. Herhangi bir alanda uygun bir şekilde yoğun kelime kullanıyorum.

4. Genel ve özel ilgi alanı ile ilgili konuları tartışmak için çeşitli kelime kullanıyorum.

3. Akademik kelime kullanıyorum, ancak bazı kelimeleri doğru kullanamıyorum.

2. Sınırlı sayıda kelime kullanıyorum.

1. Yetersiz temel kelime hazinesine sahibim.

Ölçüm V – yapı

5. Çeşitli dilbilgisi yapılarına hakimim, hemen hemen hiç hata yapmıyorum.

4. Bazı dilbilgisi hataları yapıyorum, ancak anlama konusunda hiçbir problemim olmuyor.

3. Bazı kompleks cümleler kuruyorum.

2. Geniş zaman kullanıyorum.

1. Ciddi hatalar yapıyorum.

Ölçüm VI – aksan

5. Birkaç yabancı aksanı içeren kabul edilebilir telafuzum var.

4. Birkaç ses hatasıyla konuşuyorum, ancak hemen hemen anlaşılır bir telafuzum var.

3. Aksanı anlamam için dikkatli bir şekilde dinlemem gerekiyor.

2. Ciddi hatalar yapıyorum.

1. Konuşmayı hiç anlamıyorum.

Appendix 3 – Common Daily Expressions Training

Giving opinions

As I see it,

Personally, I think…

From my point of view,

For me,

It seems to me…

In my experience,

Asking for opinions

What makes you say that?

What do you think about that?

What's your opinion?

What do you think?

Agreeing

I suppose you're right

Exactly

Oh yes, definitely

There is no question that you're right

I guess it is, yes

You've got a point there

I absolutely agree

Disagreeing

I don't think so
The point is,

Let's face it,

Maybe you're right, but…

That's a good point, but…

I'm afraid I can't agree with you there

Come on

Not necessarily

Interrupting

Can I just say something?

Sorry for interrupting, but…

May I say something here?

Making things clear

What I meant was…

Let me explain what I think about…

My point was…

What I'm trying to say is…

Saying that you're not sur

I guess…

I'm not sure…

Maybe/ Perhaps

Making a point / stating a fact

The thing/fact is,

Fillers

"like", "y'know", "so", "actually", "literally", "basically", "right", "I'm tellin' ya" and "you know what I mean?"

Appendix 4 – Common Daily Expressions Listening Tests

A. Complete the dialogue with the expressions taught before.

A: …………………..that students need computers.

B: …………………, small classes are important.

A: …………… that our school is great.

B: ……………… that the classes are interesting.

C: ………………………. the classes are too big.

B. Complete the dialogue with the expressions taught before.

1. A: ……………., a good school gives a lot of tests. Then students study every day.

B: ……………. Class discussions make students study.

2. A: …………….. that sports are really important. Students need healthy bodies.

B: …………….. exercise is very important.

3. A: ………………… the food in our dining commons isn't very good. I don't like it!

B: ……………………….. that it tastes terrible. I usually cook my own food.

4. A: …………………we need a new library. The building is really old.

B: ………………… I like our library**. ………………….** that it's beautiful.

5. A: Our school isn't in a good neighborhood. **…………………….** that it's very dangerous. I hear police sirens all the time.

B: …………………… You hear sirens because the police station is on the same street! ……………………………, the school is very safe.

C. Complete the dialogue with the expressions taught before.

Female student: Hi, can I interview you about your food choices?

Male student: …………….

Female student: ………….. What's your favorite food?

Male student: ………………….. pizza's my favorite food.

Female student: And why is it your favorite?

Male student: Because it's cheap and convenient. Also, I love cheese.

Female student: ……………………do you think organic food is good for you?

Male student: I really don't know. I don't buy it.

Female student: Why not?

Male student: Because in my opinion, it's too expensive.

Female student: …………….. And what kinds of food do you avoid?

Male student: …………………. I try to avoid strawberries.

Female student: Why do you avoid strawberries?

Male student: Because I'm allergic to them.

Female student: ………………… And what do you usually eat for breakfast?

Male student: Nonfat yogurt.

Female student: Why do you choose nonfat yogurt?

Male student: ………………… it fills me up and gives me energy.

Female student: ……………………… That's it. Thanks a lot!

D. Complete the dialogue with the expressions taught before.

Todd: OK, Keri, I've heard you talk about your father quite a bit. He sounds like a very interesting man. Can you talk a little bit about him?

Kerri: Sure. My dad's name is Robert and he's an interesting guy. He's retired now and lives in Oregon and in his free time he's building an airplane (wow!) ………………..!

Todd: ……………..can he fly a plane as well?

Kerri: ……………………. he has a private pilot's license.

Todd: …………….. that must be pretty difficult. He's actually making a plane from scratch.

Kerri: …………….. he used to be an airplane mechanic, so quite awhile ago. But yeah, he's doing all the riveting, building all the different parts of the plane and assembling it.

Todd: ……………….. when do you think he's going to be finished.

Kerri: I don't know. I got an e-mail from him recently that said he's just putting the tail section on soon. But I haven't seen a picture of that yet.

Todd: Wow. So are you going to go in this plane with your father as soon as it's finished?

Kerri: ……………….He's having someone else test fly it which made me happy when I found out. Although I trust his work cause he's meticulous but it made me feel good that someone else is going to try it for the first time, ……………….. after it's finished, when he's ready to take up passengers.

Todd: ……………………

Kerri: ………………………

E. Complete the dialogue with the expressions taught before.

Jake: So, Lyndsay do you like to text message a lot on your cell phone?

Lindsay: Yeah, ……………………..I text message a lot.

Jake: I don't do it so much. Sometimes I prefer to just call someone on the phone if *I'm in a hurry*.

Lindsay: ………………..*I go both ways*. Sometimes I know I don't really want to talk to the person. I just want to ask them one question, so it's so much easier for me just to text them and say, "Are you going to the party tonight" for example instead of calling them, because I know if I call them, I'm gonna have to have a long conversation.

Jake: ……………………. Well, usually I get off the phone pretty quickly when I call someone. I'm not a big talker.

Lindsay: …………………… Jake. You don't talk a lot. But, in general, I like to call people because ……………….. it adds a more personal touch.

Jake: So are you fast at writing the messages with your thumb?

Lindsay: ………………. when I first got a cell phone, which was actually only five years ago, I was so slow, …………………. I would never text message, and I always called people, but then people kept text messaging me so I felt obligated to try to learn how to text message, so now, I'm pretty fast ………………………. What about you?

Jake: ……………………… I have the opposite problem, where when I first got my cell phone, I thought it was so cool and I had to text message all my friends who had one, and I was pretty fast with my thumb then, but ………………………..now I don't use it so much, and I've gotten slower …………………….

Lindsay: ………………….. the text message actually is sort of has to do with your age, for example, I text message a lot and I know people younger than me, for example people in high school, they text message a lot, but I asked my father if he text messages, and guess what he said?

Jake: What?

Lindsay: …………………… he said he never text messages. He thinks it's very juevenile and unprofessional to text message someone.

Jake: …………………………….It's usually associated with young people and considered pretty informal to text message someone.

Lindsay: Yeah, it is really informal, …………………..because you're just using your thumb and you're trying to write fast. Rarely do you ever write 'dear' or 'from' or use polite language, right?

Jake: ……………….., because you're using your thumb, you have to write the messages as short as you possibly can.

Lindsay: ……………………… it sort of makes sense; when I think that I would never text message someone I didn't know very well. I only text message people I'm good friends with and comfortable with.

Jake: …………………. it serves it purpose then, doesn't it.

Lindsay: …………………………… it is cheaper than calling someone, but, you know, other times it's better to call someone, don't you think.

Jake: Yeah, definitely.

Appendix 5 – Common Daily Expressions Oral Interview

PACK 1

1. What is important in your life? Education, entertainment, family etc…Why?

2. Is it better to work in an office or from home? Why? Give your reasons.

3. Which is more important money or friendship? Why?

4. Does a name affect someone's personality?

5. Most students are not interested in arts. Do you agree or disagree?

6. People make friends on Facebook, Yonja and other web pages. Do you think it is good or bad, why?

PACK 2

1. What do people do in their free time? What are your favorite free time activities?

2. What can we do to have a good health?

3. Are you a good friend? Why? Why not?

4. Why do people name their babies after an older family member?

5. What are you interested in in your daily life? Explain.

6. What kind of person are you? Describe your personality in detail.

PACK 3

1. What do you usually do at the weekends?

2. Describe your favorite pop star? What's s/he like? What does s/he like doing?

3. Tell us about your best friend's appearance and character?

4. What are the naming traditions in Turkey?

5. Which sports are you good at?

6. What is your dream job?

PACK 4

1. Why do you usually eat out?

2. What is your favorite season? What activities do you usually do to feel relax in that season?

3. People sometimes lie to make their friends happy? Do you agree or disagree?

4. You have a company, how do you choose a name for it?

5. Hobbies are good for people. Why? Why not?

6. What are the requirements to find a good job in Turkey?

PACK 5

1. What do you do in the evenings?

2. What is the worst experience you have ever had? Describe it in detail.

3. Which is more important money or friendship? Why?

4. Is it easy or difficult to find a job in Turkey? Why?

5. What activities are relaxing do you think? Do you do those activities in your free time?

6. Why is laughter the best medicine?

PACK 6

1. What are the special events? What do you do to celebrate a special event, like a wedding?

2. What are your New Year's resolutions for this year? Tell why or why not?

3. Who is more important; your best friend or your boy/girlfriend? Why? Why not?

4. What is /makes a good school? Explain.

5. How do people make friends? Explain by example.

6. What are the advantages of living in a dormitory with your friends and your own apartment with your family?

PACK 7

1. Tell me about your ideal girlfriend/boyfriend.

2. What is the most boring movie you have ever watched? Why? Describe it in detail.

3. Do you have enough time to rest after school? Why? Why not?

4. You are going to be a mariner/ sailor, what kind of skills and qualifications do you need?

5. What is /makes a good school? Explain.

6. What foreign country do you want to live in? Why?

PACK 8

1. What are the advantages or disadvantages of watching a film in the cinema?

2. What is the best or worst present you have ever had so far? Why? Describe it in detail.

3. What do you like about going to school?

4. What are the reasons for immigration?

5. Do you think that sports clubs are very important at a university? Why / why not?

6. What are the important things when you want to buy or rent a house? Why?

PACK 9

1. 1. Tell me about your dream holiday place.

2. 2. How do you come to school? What are the good and bad points of commuting to school?

3. Do you think academic term should be shorter at this university? Why? Why not?

4. When a person immigrates, how does his/her life change?

5. A big campus is very important in a good university. Do you agree/disagree?

6. What is Turkey or your hometown famous for? Give information about your hometown.

PACK 10

1. 1. People all over the world waste their time watching a lot of TV. Do you agree/disagree?
2. What do you do in your free time? Tell us about your free time activities.
3. Do you need more time after school? Why? Why not?
4. There is a country and it gets immigration all the time, what kind of a country it might be?
5. It is important to learn English at a university. Do you agree/disagree?
6. What is the best kind of vacation? Why? Explain.

WHY ADULTS LEARN: INTERPRETING ADULTS' REASONS TO PARTICIPATE IN EDUCATION IN TERMS OF ECCLES' SUBJECTIVE TASK VALUE

Julia Gorges

Bielefeld University

E-mail: julia.gorges@uni-bielefeld.de

Department of Psychology, Educational Psychology, Bielefeld University, PO 100131, 33501 Bielefeld, Germany, Phone: +49 521 1064530, Fax: +49 521 106156865

Biodata

Dr. Julia Gorges has received her Diploma in adult education from the University of Cologne and her PhD in educational psychology from Bielefeld University. She currently holds a post-doc position in the department of psychology at Bielefeld University.

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Julia Gorges

julia.gorges@uni-bielefeld.de

Abstract

Psychological research shows that subjective task value, a basic component of expectancy-value theory as outlined by Eccles, predicts task choice (e.g., going to graduate school). However, Eccles' approach has not been used to investigate adult learning so far. Therefore, the present study investigated a specific form of subjective task value and task choice, namely adults' subjective task value of participation in education. Based on expectancy-value theory, qualitative content analyses of 16 interviews with adult learners (aged between 21 and 67) from varying age groups and educational backgrounds show a differentiation of positive value according to points of reference and a revised conceptualisation of cost as an independent component of subjective task value with four subcomponents. Apparently people estimate positive value and cost separately at first and only later weigh these components against each other to arrive at an overall evaluation of subjective task value, which, in turn, predicts participation in education. Moreover, results suggest a distinction between anticipated subjective task value prior to participation and subjective task value based on experience (i.e., in hindsight). Benefits of using expectancy-value theory for future research on adults' participation in education are discussed.

Keywords: adult education, motivation, expectancy-value theory, subjective task value

1. Introduction

Adults typically choose the educational activities they engage in (Zmeyov, 1998) and may decide not to participate in formal learning (e.g., Beder, 1990). Therefore, adults' participation (or non-participation) in education constitutes a major area of research in adult learning throughout the last century (cf., Boeren, Nicaise, & Baert, 2010; Courtney, 1992). However, although many studies gathered and classified adults' reasons for or against participation, the literature lacks coherence and a larger theoretical framework (cf., Courtney, 1992; Schmidt, 2009).

From an educational psychology perspective, the decision (not) to participate in education represents a specific form of motivated behavior commonly referred to as task choice. Task choice is one of educational psychology's key research objects (cf., Wentzel & Wigfield, 2009). Empirical studies based on expectancy-value theory consistently show that one major factor predicts task choice: Subjective task value (cf., Eccles, 2005). Subjective task value reflects people's answers to the questions 'Do I want to do it [i.e., perform a task] and why?'. Adult learners' subjective task value of participation in further education should predict task choice, that is, actual participation. According to Eccles' (1983, 2005) conceptualization of subjective task value (STV), positive and negative value aspects converge in a cost-benefit analysis. The concept of STV may be useful to explain both adults' participation and non-participation in education. However, Eccles' expectancy-value theory has not found its way

into the adult education literature yet, neither does research on adults' motivation to engage in ongoing learning constitute an important area of research in educational psychology.

Therefore, this study aims at exploring adults' STV with respect to their decisions (not) to participate in education within Eccles' expectancy-value framework (2005). Using qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000; for a methodological review, see Butler, 2006) made it possible to capture the unique perspective of adult learners on their reasons for (non-) participation and to re-interpret these as task value, thereby adapting the existing theoretical concept of STV to the context of adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005; Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2008). This approach connects people's individual reasons for participation to the theoretical framework of expectancy-value theory. Thus, results may advance research addressing the pinnacle question concerning adults' learning motivation, that is, why adults do (not) engage in further education. Moreover, a detailed conceptualization of subcomponents of STV may help to understand the diversity of adults' participation in education and, hopefully, stimulates further research on adult learners from educational psychology.

1.1. Adults' Motivation to Participate in Education

Two major lines of research characterize existing research on participation in further education: First, analyses of people's reasons (not) to participate in education, and second, theoretical models of (non-) participation (for a summary, see Author, 2011; Courtney, 1992). As will be outlined in this section, using an expectancy-value approach may integrate these lines of research.

Several studies present a bottom-up classification of people's reasons (not) to engage in further education and identify higher order factors (e.g., Beder, 1990; Boeren, Holford, Nicaise & Baert, 2012; Boshier & Collins, 1985; Fujita-Starck, 1996). These may be integrated into a model of positive and negative determinants of participation in further education (Henry & Basile, 1994). Overall, this approach gives a comprehensive picture of the variety of reasons people may have for (non-) participation in education. However, because this approach adheres to the content of people's reports it is limited to descriptive results. Prescient from the content emphasis on concrete reasons results from this line of research broadly reflect values of education.

In contrast, other researchers developed models of participation in education (e.g., Blair, McPake & Munn, 1995), which can be subsumed as *decision models* (Courtney, 1992). Although most decisions models do not use this terminology, they basically depict adults' decisions to engage in an educational activity as an interaction of expectancies and values. However, most existing theoretical models have not been tested empirically (cf. Courtney, 1992; Schmidt, 2009).

Theory-driven empirical studies of adults' participation in education predominantly draw on the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Using this approach, attitudes and subjective social norms predict specific behavioral intentions which, in turn, predict behavior (i.e., participation in a particular course available to the participants; Yang, Blunt, & Butler, 1994). However, the theory of planned behavior can ultimately be considered a situation-specific application of expectancy-value theory because attitudes draw on subjective expectancies and values (Ajzen, 2002). Moreover, while attitude is conceptualized as a predictor of behavior, its origin is not within the focus of the theory.

Existing but somewhat outdated applications of variants of expectancy-value theory failed to stimulate further research (e.g., Milbach, 1993). Though being predestined for investigations of participation in education, Eccles et al.'s sophisticated expectancy-value

model (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) had surprisingly little impact on research in the field of adult education and continuing (however, see Yang, 1998, for a similar model). Thus, although existing research on adults' participation in education offers many links to expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983, 2005), there is virtually no connection between adult education literature and educational psychology literature.

1.2. Eccles' Expectancy-Value Theory

Eccles' expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983, 2005; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) offers an integrative socio-cultural framework for empirical investigations of motivation. According to expectancy-value theory, achievement and achievement-related choices in education are based on one's expectancy of success ('Can I do a task?' mostly conceived as academic self-concept of ability) and STV ('Do I want to do the task and why?'). Eccles (2005) and Battle and Wigfield (2003) particularly elaborate on students' STV, which is composed of four different types of values. Three of these value components are positive leading to task engagement (Eccles, 2005): Intrinsic value (i.e., the task is joyful and interesting), utility value (i.e., the task is useful in attaining future goals), and attainment value (i.e., the task is personally significant and contributes to one's identity). The fourth value component, costs, may put people off the task (Battle & Wigfield, 2003). 'Task' may refer to a course, a subject, or a whole educational program (e.g., Battle & Wigfield, 2003). Thus, task could also mean participation in further education.

Expectancy-value theory has mostly been used to predict course choice within high school or university settings (Eccles, 2005). Because students could not refuse to choose at least one course from the range of alternatives, costs were excluded from most studies (cf., Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). However, costs come to the fore when people have to decide about taking a course or not staying in education at all (as was the case in Battle & Wigfield's study of women's decision to go to graduate school, 2003). Battle and Wigfield point out that 'cost refers to what the individual has to give up to do a task, as well as the anticipated effort one will need to put into task completion.' (2003, p. 58). Thus, costs are broadly conceptualized as alternative costs, that is, 'cost of investing time in one activity rather than another' (Eccles, 2005, p. 108) as well as direct costs arising from task engagement related to the task's worth (i.e., effort, fear of failure). In measuring costs, Battle and Wigfield (2003) mainly used judgmental wording such as 'would be worth…' or 'requires more effort than I'm willing to put into it' (p. 73). However, using this terminology implies that positive value has been weighted up against costs to calculate the task's worth. Therefore, costs in this sense are intertwined with value; they cannot be considered a separate element of the value component within expectancy-value theory.

To date, costs remain a rather fuzzy concept. Nevertheless, for adult learners, costs should be an important factor for their educational decisions. In fact, many adults hold further education in high regard, and yet do not participate (OECD, 2005). Thus, costs could counterbalance intrinsic, utility, and attainment value leading to non-participation. Therefore, costs of participation in education should receive extensive attention when investigating adults' educational decisions.

1.3. The present study

The present study was designed to explore STV underlying adults' educational decisions to pioneer future (quantitative) investigations. The term 'educational decision' denotes people's (potential) transition from non-participant to participant (and back). Educational decisions thereby comprise personal and external decisions to participate (e.g., mandatory participation in a course). Focusing on a detailed analysis of STV aimed at understanding the

diversity of adults' educational activities (i.e., beyond the distinction between intrinsic, attainment, and utility value and cost).

Adults should decide in favor of participation if the cost-benefit analysis of an educational offer holds a positive balance, that is, value is greater than cost. In most cases the range of alternative educational offers includes non-participation. However, existing studies mostly focused on either participants (i.e., reasons to participate in further education) or non-participants (i.e., reasons not to participate). Thus, most existing studies limit their view to one positive educational decision (i.e., participation in one particular course) and leave out that this educational decision simultaneously means that people have decided against participation in one or more alternative courses and against non-participation. Being inherently linked to participation, this paper argues that non-participation should be considered, too, when explaining participation because it reflects the other side of the coin. Accordingly, this study addressed both positive (i.e., participation) and negative (i.e., non-participation) educational decisions at the same time following. Negative educational decisions were distinguished from positive educational decisions in terms of participation and persistence in a course (i.e., non-participation in a course or in further education at all, or drop-out; Darkenwald & Valentine, 1985; Tinto, 1993). Thus, it was possible to reconstruct people's cost-benefit analyses, that is, their balancing of positive and negative aspects of STV which is assumed to precede the actual educational decision.

To easily pinpoint educational decisions the scope of the study was limited to people's participation in formally organized educational courses (referred to as educational programs). Thus, engagement in education and learning will not go unnoticed by the participants themselves (unlike informal learning; Marsick & Watkins, 2001). Adults explained why they did or did not participate in further education in guided interviews. Interviews were analyzed using qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000) within the theoretical framework outlined by Eccles (2005, Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). This approach made it possible to capture and elaborate on people's subjective description of why they participated in further education based on a conceptual foundation of STV. Thus, findings may be related to existing psychological research on task choice.

2. Method

2.1. Sample

To produce many different reasons for / against PAE, the qualitative sampling plan implemented the principle of variance maximization demanding a wide range of ages, variance in number of educational decisions, variance in types of adult and further education that was participated in, and different life situations (Patton, 1990). Participants were contacted using gatekeepers (Creswell, 2007) and via (online) social-networks. The sample covered non-traditional undergraduate students, senior citizen students at university, learners at various adult and continuing education institutions (adult education centre, second-chance education institute, vocational school, and business college), and people from specific occupational groups with a high versus low demand for continuing education and training. Unfortunately, the sample did not cover individuals without participation in education after graduating from secondary school. Overall, interviews with 16 participants (aged between 21 and 67) who reported a total of 60 educational decisions (including eight decisions not to participate and four decisions to drop-out) have been analyzed. A short summary of participants' biographies is presented in Table 1 (names have been changed to preserve anonymity).

Table 1 *Sample Overview*

Short educational biographies

Amy (23) enrolled in second-chance education to gain GQHE after vocational training.

Anne (27) completed two vocational trainings and then enrolled in psychology at university.

Betty (67) completed further education building on her occupation, went to evening school to get her GQHE and studied science for one semester. Moreover, she enrolled in computer courses twice. She then enrolled for senior citizen studies.

Charlie (32) joined the local work council and participated in several related trainings. He then completed an extra-occupational course to become human resource specialist including a trainer certificate and enrolled at a distance learning university in business studies. However, he dropped out from that and enrolled in business psychology.

Charlotte (29) completed a three-year course to become state-certified business administrator.

Emma (67) went to stay in England, France and Switzerland. She earned several language certificates, took courses at university level, participated in various job-related further education courses, and finally enrolled in senior citizen studies.

Heather (61) did not participate in further education except for mandatory courses.

Jack (45) gained GQHE in second-chance education, studied engineering and later on completed a further education course to become sales engineer. He participates in internal trainings on a regular basis.

Kate (27) gained her GQHE in distance second-chance education and enrolled in psychology at university.

Laura (21) was in second-chance education to gain GQHE since she wanted to enroll at university.

Lily (30) enrolled at a business college to become state-certified business administrator and, thereby, earned a trainer certificate as well.

Lucy (52) participated in further education courses which were supported by the Federal Employment Office while she was unemployed. Later, she enrolled in senior citizen studies.

Mary (23) went to second-chance education to gain GQHE.

Peter (27) enrolled at a business college to earn GQHE while doing shift work, being overman. With this, he fulfilled the requirement to become state-certified business administrator which he then enrolled for.

Tina (26) earned her GQHE in second-chance education and then enrolled in psychology. Before getting enrolled for psychology, she studied science for two years.

William (50) worked with a business audit company and passed two demanding professional exams, tax consultant and business auditor. He eventually completed a language course and several internal trainings.

Note. Names have been changed to preserve anonymity; GQHE = general qualification for higher education

2.2. Procedure

The semi-structured interviews followed a broad guideline covering people's participation in further education, learning behavior and motivation, epistemological beliefs, goals, and school experience (in this order). The guideline allowed for further remarks and side notes and followed a fixed order unless interviewees anticipated later questions.

The present analyses are solely based on the questions dealing with people's educational decisions, which were "Please describe your academic and professional development.", for each educational decision, "Please describe why you decided to engage in this educational activity, what would have been the alternatives, and why you decided against the alternatives.", and "Would you say that educational decisions were especially difficult or easy for you? In what way? Please describe."

The female interviewer, a post-graduate student in psychology, was instructed to phrase all questions openly and to avoid suggestive wording. The full interviews took between 60 and 90 minutes. Interviewees were informed about the goals of the study, the interview procedure, and the processing of their data (including anonymization and use of direct quotes) in advance and gave their consent.

2.3. Analyses

All interviews were transcribed in full and anonymized before the analytic procedure began. The analytic procedure aimed at establishing a set of categories to adequately reflect adults' STV of participation in education. Using qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2000) allowed for detailed theoretical presuppositions in terms of deductively derived categories while complementing these with inductively derived categories.

A team of four researchers (the author, the interviewer and two undergraduate students) implemented a four-eye-principle for categorization and interpretation of results to ensure methodological rigor (cf., Fossey, Harvey, McFermott, & Davidson, 2002). The researchers revised the initial set of categories (see Table 2) based on inductively derived categories (i.e., if data in one category was rather heterogeneous, the researchers developed a new category to capture the differences). Overall, 232 text passages were categorized using all available text passages (between 5 and 27 text passages per interviewee). Assignment to multiple categories was allowed if the text passage corresponded with more than one category. Interrater reliability was very good (kalpha=.98; Hayes & Krippendorf, 2007).

3. Results

The final set of - both inductively and deductively derived - categories is depicted in Table 2. Deductive categories for STV were intrinsic, utility and attainment value as well as cost. Positive value was further differentiated based on inductively derived points of reference (content/activity, status as participant, and degree/certificate). Similarly, costs were classified in terms of four inductively derived categories distinct from the costs outlined by Eccles (2005) and Battle and Wigfield (2003). Types of costs were effort, time, money, and psychological strain with each type being high or low, independent of the task's worth. The categories are presented in detail below.

Not all statements about educational decisions referred to reasons people had to engage in education at the beginning of an educational program. Therefore, assignments of categories distinguished between aspects considered prior to participation (i.e., from the beginning) and changes in or new aspects revealed later on and reported in hindsight, thereby reflecting potential changes in STV.

Table 2 *Set of categories*

Category	Subcategory	Definition (with respect to participation in an educational program)
Intrinsic Value	*Content / activity*	Participation in the educational program holds interesting and / or enjoyable contents and activities.
	Status as participant	The status of being a participant of the educational program is interesting and / or enjoyable.
Attainment Value	*Content / Activity*	Participation in the educational program holds personally significant contents and activities.
	Status as participant	The status of being a participant of the educational program is personally significant.
	Degree / certificate	Participation in the educational program will lead to a degree / certificate which is or will be personally significant.
Utility Value	*Content / Activity*	Participation in the educational program holds useful contents and activities.
	Status	The status of being a participant of the educational program is useful.
	Degree / certificate	Participation in the educational program will lead to a degree / certificate which is or will be useful.
Cost	*High Effort*	Large amount of effort is necessary to succeed in the task (i.e. task is difficult to accomplish)
	Low Effort	Small amount of effort is necessary to succeed in the task (i. e. task is easily accomplished)
	Time-consuming	It takes a lot of time to participate in the educational program.
	Time-saving	It does not take a lot of time to participate in the educational program.
	Expensive	Participation in the educational program costs a lot of money.
	Inexpensive	Participation in the educational program does not cost a lot of money.
	High strain	Participation in the educational program is associated with high levels of emotional and motivational strain (e.g., fear of failure, stress).
	Low strain	Participation in the educational program is associated with low levels of emotional and motivational strain.

Note. Inductively derived categories are printed in italics.

3.1. Reference points of positive value

Categorization of positive value produced different reference points of values specifying existing definitions. Each subtype of value– intrinsic, attainment, and utility value – may refer to the content/activity of the task, the status of being a participant, or the degree/certificate that can be obtained (see Table 2). Content/activity refers to what can be

learned or to the activity people engage in when participating in the course. For example, as a senior citizen student, Emma expresses intrinsic-content value, 'I'm taking it [a particular subject at university] because I'm very interested in it and I find it very fascinating' (all statements translated by author). In contrast, Charlie refers to utility-content value when he says, 'I benefitted from the insight I gained…' (HR specialist course) and William refers to attainment-content value talking about English language courses, 'Well, because I realized that in our job without decent English skills you… well… make a fool out of yourself in the best case but in the worst you're not capable of doing anything (laughs).'

Status of being a participant refers to being enrolled or being member of the class and/or educational institution. Betty's statement illustrates intrinsic-status value. Betty is talking about evening school: 'I enjoyed going there'. In contrast, Lucy needed to have the status of being a participant in various mandatory courses—'…it was enforced by the Federal Employment Office. […] And if you didn't do it without having a special reason you wouldn't get any money.'(utility-status)—while for Emma, who never had the chance to become a regular student at university, participation held great personal value, 'In the end I actually attended French lectures at [a well-known university in Paris, France] for one semester.'

Degree value refers to the degree, certificate, or the like that can be obtained from completing the course (i.e., becoming a state-certified business administrator). For example, William said about his business auditor course, '… and then it was clear to me that if I wanted to achieve anything there I would have to pass that exam' (utility-degree), and Peter referred to attainment-degree, saying '… I started going back to school for my ego, because I thought […] I really would like to have [degree].' Only one combination could not be found in the data: Intrinsic value of degree/certificate. Therefore, this category was omitted from the final set of categories.

3.2. Four types of cost

With respect to cost-benefit analyses, positive values are on one side, and cost is on the other. While cost is broadly conceptualized as alternative costs (i.e., lack of time / money for other desirable activities; Battle & Wigfield, 2003) the results presented here suggest that cost should be conceptualized independently of positive task value. Hence, cost may be high or low, but this does not yet mean that the task is not worth the cost. Thus, cost is proposed to be weighted in relation to positive task values only after people have judged each aspect individually. Therefore, four distinct subcategories roughly relating to Battle and Wigfield's (2003) considerations were construed to categorize costs based on inductive categorization: effort, time, money, and psychological strain. Each subcategory had two levels, high and low.

Effort denoted the intellectual demand and/or amount of work required for (successful) course completion (i.e., a very difficult course content may require much effort). Reflecting high effort, Jack said about his general qualification for higher education, 'It was a hard nut to crack. Well at least for me it was a hard nut. ', while Emma expressed low effort referring to her hotel management course, 'That was really easy for me'.

Time cost referred to the amount of time required for course attendance and (successful) course completion (i.e., duration of course, time in class, time for course preparation and wrap-up) in addition to potential exoneration of other responsibilities (e.g., work may be interrupted for participation). Courses may be time-consuming, as was reported by William with respect to his extra-occupational business auditor course, 'And if you consider all the preparation that's necessary […].And all that in addition to our work, which is already quite time-consuming itself'. In contrast, earlier on William took a short-term intensive course

instead of a long-term extra-occupational course to qualify as a tax advisor, which was time-saving, 'I decided to take a 3-months course instead. So that lasted 3 months, 5 days per week'.

While secondary school is free, money is an important issue in further education. Monetary costs include tuition fees, additional expense (i.e., costs for transportation, learning materials), potential loss of income, and potential financial support or funding. For Emma, participation in a professional school for hotel business was expensive, 'And I was more or less out of money […] …and then I had saved money to pay for the professional school for hotel business in [location]. […] And then I had, well, allowed myself this course.' In contrast, Jack's sales engineer training was inexpensive because he did not have to pay tuition fees and the Federal Employment Office granted a subsidy to cover his living expenses (at least in part), 'It was paid for by the Federal Employment Office, you got paid some support.'

Finally, fear of failure, pressure caused by the course demands and/or by side effects (i.e., distraction from other tasks), worries, financial burden, and social costs of participation (e.g., rejection due to violation of social norms) as well as self-control needed to regulate motivation and emotion fall into the category of psychological strain. For example, Charlotte pointed out, participation in the extra-occupational course to qualify as a state-certified business administrator was 'really hard' and she asked herself, 'What are you getting into? Why are you doing this to yourself?' As announced by the teachers, slightly more than half of the class actually finished the three-year course. In contrast, with respect to attending evening classes, Betty reports low strain, 'I enjoyed going there, there was always someone to talk to […] and you could have conversations on different topics and you could ask someone about things.'

Considering costs as a distinct component of STV, especially as being independent from a task's positive value, costs could even promote participation if, for example, cost is low compared to a similar educational program. An independent cost component can and should be evaluated in relation to the positive value of that same task as well as the positive values and costs of alternative tasks. Moreover, a high level of effort associated with an educational program may be an indicator of the program's quality and reputation. Successful completion of such an educational program is likely to make participants proud and lead to positive outcomes, such as improved job opportunities. Thus, even an educational program associated with high levels of costs may be the best choice from a range of alternatives.

3.3. Connecting positive and negative value

Based on a cost-benefit analysis, a positive balance of value and costs should promote participation. On the other hand, if costs exceed positive value, people should be put off the task. Conceptualizing reasons for non-participation in terms of a negative cost-benefit balance differs from the concept of 'barriers to learning' commonly used in adult education literature (Cross, 1981). Barriers, in this sense, imply that people are prevented from learning by something they cannot change (at least not in that particular situation). However, the results presented here suggest that (real) barriers are distinct from costs. For example, Peter could not enroll in a particular degree program due to his level of education ('You have to do this extra-year of study if you do not have a qualification for higher education'). Lack of formal qualification for an educational program makes participation impossible; at least participation in that particular program and in that particular situation (i.e., one may decide to gain the qualification needed and try again later). Thus, barriers referring to actual constraints that limit people's latitude can be distinguished from costs.

In contrast, William decided not to enroll in a certified public accountant course because it would take too much time away from his family life while not being necessary for his career. As he put it, 'It was not necessary; really, it would just have been nice to have it [the title] on the business card'. In this case, the time-requirements associated with the course are not insurmountable. Rather they represent costs that are, from William's perspective, not justified by positive values: the cost-benefit analysis did not proffer enough positive value to outweigh the associated costs. Nevertheless, people can (and actually do) bear high costs if positive value is strong enough to justify them.

3.4. STV during Participation

While most statements about educational decisions referred to reasons people had to engage in education beforehand, some referred to people's actual experience during participation. To keep these two perspectives apart, value considered prior to participation (i.e., anticipated STV) was distinguished from new aspects of or changes in value revealed later on and reported based on experience (i.e., in hindsight).

Why is this distinction important? When people describe their educational decisions in hindsight, they are able to compare initial anticipations of STV with actual facts. That is, people's anticipation of STV may turn out to be inadequate or wrong. Moreover, additional aspects may arise; people may realize that contents are not as useful as expected, unexpected costs arise, or educational programs expected to be dull turn out to be fun. For example, Charly talks about his business studies at a distant university only in hindsight, saying 'business studies is too dull for me, I have tried this once, shortly after having finished my vocational training'. In contrast, statements about his current studies in business psychology refer to anticipated STV, 'because I am also interested in mediation and coaching, and a friend suggested that I should gather some information on this topic [business psychology]'. Thus, he anticipated high intrinsic value associated to an enrolment in business psychology. In hindsight, his anticipation turned out to be right, 'and now, after having finished one semester, I can say that it is very interesting and exciting, especially all the psychological stuff'.

While non-participation is mostly based on anticipation of what it would be like to engage in an educational program, drop-out is probably based on actual experiences (see Charly's statement on his business studies, which he did not complete). Thus, it is important to compare people's initial reasons for participation and expectations they had with their actual evaluation of the educational program to understand why people are (not) satisfied with a course, or why they have different plans for future educational decisions.

4. Discussion

The purpose of the present research was to translate adults' reasons for participation in education into a – possibly revised – conceptualization of subjective task value (referred to as STV) of education based on Eccles' expectancy-value theory (2005). Findings include inductively derived reference points of positive value specifying intrinsic, utility, and attainment value: content/activity, status as participant, and degree/certificate. Moreover, the conceptualization of costs and barriers outlined in the literature turned out to not adequately reflect the cost-related findings from this interview study. The revised conceptualization of costs includes four categories, effort, time, money and psychological strain, and is distinguished from barriers. STV is found to be not only highly subjective, but also highly dynamic. People's initial evaluation of STV may change due to their own aspirations or to their actual experience during participation. Therefore, a distinction between anticipated STV and experienced-based STV has been introduced.

4.1. Subjective task value in the field of adult and continuing education

Considering different reference points of value might explain why people probably use different criteria to evaluate expectancy of success and other value aspects underlying their final choice of educational program. For example, if one only needs the status as a participant (utility-status), expectancy of success should be less relevant (e.g., Lucy's mandatory participation in further education from the Federal Employment Office; Charlie's participation in short-term trainings to network). Similarly, if one seeks community (intrinsic-status), the content of an educational program could be less relevant (e.g., Betty's participation in evening classes). On the other hand, if only the obtainable degree is important, one may not be interested in the content (e.g., William's participation in tax advisor training). However, since people rarely mention only one aspect of value, it is difficult to point out differential effects of single aspects of value or reference points based on the data.

Distinguishing insurmountable barriers from costs may be useful for future investigations of non-participation. For example, policy or institutions could help to reduce costs (e.g., by providing financial support or childcare). Positive value may be increased by choosing contents according to people's needs or improve appreciation of obtainable degrees and certificates. However, people only consider costs and barriers when they seek—or at least consider—participation in further education but ultimately do not participate, or reject participation in one educational program in favor of another. Moreover, sometimes educational offers may hold a positive cost-benefit balance but do not meet people's demand. Thus, people cannot be made to consider participation in education by policies and institutions if they are not inclined to do so in the first place.

Decisions to participate in education appear to be based on anticipations of task value and people's momentary demand. However, what participants in further education want and what they get may vary over time based on endogenous (perceptions, goals) and exogenous factors (contextual factors, course announcement versus course reality). Thus, estimations of STV constantly develop in interaction with people's experience of life; STV is a snap-shot at any one time. Moreover, evaluation of STV may be subject to bias, which is especially salient when people compare anticipated expectancies and values to actual experiences during participation.

Overall, the present study yields insight into the structure of adults' STV of education. Results relate educational psychology research based on Eccles' expectancy-value theory to adult education research. Drawing on the large body of literature on expectancy-value theory in future studies on adults' participation in education will hopefully make this exploratory study fruitful for research into adult learning.

4.2. From a research perspective in adult education and learning

Results from this study relate psychological approaches to (previous) conceptions of participation in adult learning (e.g., Rubenson, 1978, quoting Courtney, 1992) in an effort to arrive at an empirically based understanding of adults' engagement in ongoing education., Adapting existing measures from expectancy-value research to adult learning would enable theory-driven research on adults' motivation to participate in further education. Items for quantitative research could be developed to reflect reference points of value and aspects of costs. For example, utility-content ('Learning about business administration will be useful for achieving my professional goals.') could be delineated from utility-degree ('It will be useful for achieving my professional goals to hold the title state-certified business administrator.').

Beyond that, a stronger connection between adult education research and educational psychology may be beneficial in two ways: First, underlying principles of learning motivation, although they may have to be customized to adult learners, could be useful to investigate adults' engagement in further education (Brookfield, 1995). Drawing on established theories of motivation in education (cf. Schunk et al., 2008), psychological research could help explain stable patterns in adult education surveys and inform adult education practice (e.g., how to increase course participants' motivation to learn). Second, learning in school probably lays the groundwork for learning in adulthood in terms of expectancies of success and values (Gorges & Kandler, 2012). In school, people engage in learning and develop beliefs about their own abilities and interests which are not erased once they enter further education (Norman, 1999). In fact, schools and higher education institutions may cover fundamental phases for the promotion of continuing motivation to learn and, consequently, lifelong education (Cropley, 1977). After all, taking previous learning motivation and experience into account when deciding to engage in education again could explain the consistent finding that level of education and previous participation predicts future participation in education (OECD, 2005). This is not to say that previous findings from school contexts are just as valid for adult education. However, research aiming at bridging the gap between schooling and adult learning (Gorges & Kandler, 2012; Wai, Lubinski, Benbow, & Steger, 2010) provides hints concerning the role of school experience for participation in education throughout people's lives.

4.3. From a motivational psychology perspective

Although STV has been extensively studied in educational psychology (cf., Wigfield & Cambria, 2010), little attention has been paid to the dynamics of STV development over the life course and during participation in education. Therefore, future research should address factors contributing to people's subjective evaluations of task value in more detail. Moreover, it may be easier to handle expectancy-value theory if costs are explicitly distinguished from positive task value. In fact, it may be adequate to split the value component into benefit (i.e., intrinsic, utility, and attainment value) on the one hand and cost on the other to emphasize that people engage in cost-benefit analyses.

It is essential to note that values can only be effective when individual learners are aware of and attach importance to them. Therefore, predicting participation in further education remains difficult. People's assessment of STV (and expectancy of success) with respect to an educational program is subject to people's individual weighting of positive and negative aspects of particular educational offers, and of participation in educational in general. That is to say, depending on people's life tasks (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987), ongoing education may have different functions. Therefore, it may be fruitful to focus more on the individuals' resources and goals, which may systematically influence the salience of particular aspects of STV (and expectancy of success). From this perspective, people participate in education when individual demands and educational offer fit.

4.4. Limitations and Outlook

Owing to the nature of qualitative research, results do not claim to represent final support for theoretical postulates. Results are based solely on people's subjective views and interpretation of their educational decisions. Nevertheless, results may inspire further research but there is no attempt at generalization.

Although the principle of variance maximization was applied to selecting participants, the sample did not cover every possible branch in the field of further education (e.g., political adult education, denominational adult education, etc.). An investigation of adult learners from

different settings would be desirable to refine the results and to validate them across educational programs. Moreover, results may be biased in favor of positive educational decision because every interviewee reported participation in education. Future research should pay special attention to people who do not participate in further education (see Reich-Claassen, 2011, who deliberately addressed people who acted contrary to expectations based on socio-demographic characteristics). However, it may be difficult—if at all possible—to analyze educational decisions of people who never have thought of participating in further education. In addition, the results from the present study need to be further validated using a larger sample and probably quantitative research methodology.

The decision to use one particular strategy for data analysis implies that other possible strategies, which may have led to different results, have not been used. Thus, the results presented here represent but one interpretation of the data. In addition, STV is only one component of a larger theoretical framework (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). While this study is dealing with its structure, antecedents of STV, such as the individual learner's characteristics (e.g., personal goals, resources, dispositions, motivational orientations) and the role of the environment (e.g., awareness and existence of educational offers, and beyond), as well as the concept of expectancy of success, have been neglected. They should be included in future research.

4.5 Conclusion

The results from the present interview study demonstrate that Eccles' (2005) conceptualization of STV—a key determinant of educational task choice—may be useful for further theory-driven research on adults' motivation to learn and to participate in education. A wide range of reasons for participation in education reported by 16 adults could be mapped to the four components of subjective task value (i.e., intrinsic, utility, attainment value, and cost). Nevertheless, results also indicate that Eccles' STV components are rather broad and many not adequately represent the many different reasons for adult learning. Hence, some more detailed specifications may improve the additional benefit of using expectancy-value theory in adult education research. More specifically, the introduction of reference points of value regarding positive value aspects, a clear separation of negative value aspects (i.e., cost) versus positive value aspects, and the subsequent combination of positive and negative value aspects in terms of a final balanced value, which may be individually calculated by the learner, may further our understanding of why adults learn and why—sometimes—they do not.

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MEASURING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER CANDIDATES' INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY: A KEY ELEMENT TO FOSTER INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Zeynep Çetin Köroğlu

Bayburt University

zeynepcetin86@gmail.com

Biodata

She graduated from Dumlupınar University in in 2010. Her bachelor department was British Language and Literature. Her academic background mainly consists of English Language Teaching. She graduated from Gazi University in 2013 and got her MA degree. She completed her Ph.D at English language teaching in 2015. Currently, she is working as an assistant professor at Bayburt University. She is especially interested in intercultural communication, second language acquisition, teacher education and literature use in language teaching.

MEASURING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER CANDIDATES' INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY: A KEY ELEMENT TO FOSTER INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Zeynep Çetin Köroğlu

zeynepcetin86@gmail.com

Abstract

A multicultural and global society makes intercultural communication an indispensable part of communication. As an affective dimension of intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity has drawn the attention of scholars throughout the past years. However, there is still a misperception about intercultural sensitivity with other cognitive, affective and behavioral domains of intercultural communication such as intercultural awareness, intercultural adroitness and intercultural communicative competence. Important scholars in the field define intercultural sensitive persons as those who are conscious in their interactions and accept interlocutors' ideas without judgment of their personal complexity. In this angle, English language teachers' sensitivity towards other cultures has significant meaning to make language learners better foreign language learners and speakers (Crawford, 2008). Thus, the current study aims to investigate English Language Teacher candidates' intercultural sensitivity level. In this study, ISS (intercultural sensitivity scale, Chen and Starosta, 2000) is used to measure the results of the 61 student teachers who participated in the study. Participants' intercultural sensitivity levels are analyzed in SPSS due to interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, enjoyment and attentiveness. The results show that English language teacher candidates enjoy interacting with people from other cultures and they are sensitive towards cultural differences and complexities.

Keywords: Intercultural Communication, Intercultural Sensitivity, Culture, English Language Teachers.

1. Introduction

As the world is becoming more globalized and communication technologies make communication easier between different cultures in various settings, intercultural communication has gained more attention than before. According to Holm et al (2009) intercultural education should serve to increase one's cognitive, affective and behavioral skills. As intercultural sensitivity is an affective domain of intercultural communicative competence, the skills of domain include empathy and respect for other peoples and their cultures (Taylor, 1994). Similar to this perspective, Chen and Starosta (1996, 1998) mention that the affective part of intercultural communicative competence is related with intercultural sensitivity, which means 'an active desire to motivate themselves to understand, appreciate, and accept differences among cultures' (Chen and Starosta, 1998, p.367). Another important scholar Bennett (1984) relates intercultural sensitivity not only to the affective part of intercultural communicative competence but also relates intercultural sensitivity to cognitive and behavioral parts of intercultural communication. In other words, as Chen and Starosta (2000) state, an intercultural sensitive person has a dual identity which makes him emphatic towards different cultures and overcoming the problems of cultural denial. Research suggests that people who have higher intercultural sensitivity handle problems well in intercultural settings (Peng, 2006).

A language cannot be separated from the culture which is represented by the language. As Alptekin's research indicates, learners' language skills are improved when they express their own culture or their own experiences through their second language. However, English serves as a common language among cultures all around the world and does not belong to any single nation or country anymore (Crystal, 2008). Kramsch (1998) points out that language and culture are so elaborately related that their boundaries are blurred. Teaching a language to a language learner means opening his mind to new cultures, ways of life, and new perspectives together with linguistic features of language (Çetin Köroğlu, 2013). Foreign language teachers have a very significant role to open their students' minds to other cultures and prepare them for intercultural communication. Contents of teaching materials affect foreign language learners' attitudes towards different cultures. Alptekin (1993) states that most textbook writers are native speakers who are consciously or unconsciously conveying the values, beliefs, attitudes and feelings of their own language community. Foreign language teachers, whether they are aware or not, are so involved in cultural transmission through their material selection, such as newspapers, videos, or pictures, which all have an impact on educational basis (Duff and Uchida, 1997). However, English as a lingua franca cannot be related only to the United Kingdom and United States of America. As teachers of English, English language teachers should develop students' intercultural sensitivity. From this angle, the current study aims to determine pre-service English language teachers' intercultural sensitivity towards other cultures. The current research is guided by the following research question;

1: How do English language teacher candidates respond towards their own culture and other cultures?

2: What is English language teacher candidates' intercultural sensitivity level?

2. Review of Literature

As an important scholar whose research made great contribution to the field, Bennett developed the Developmental Model of Intercultural sensitivity (DMIS) in 1986/1993. According to Bennett, one can experience cultural difference in six stages (1986, p.182). As the model shows below:

Development of Intercultural Sensitivity

Experience of difference →

Denial — Defense — Minimization — Acceptance — Adaptation — Integration

Ethnocentric Stages   Ethnorelative Stages

Bennett divides these stages as Ethno centric Stages and Ethno relative Stages. In Ethno centric Stages, a person understands reality due to his own culture and ways of life. On the

other hand, in Ethno relative Stages, a person's culture is understood in relation to other cultures (Lange, 2011). Bennett explains these six stages.

Ethno centric stages are explained as (Bennett, 1993);

1. In the first ethno centric stage, denial, the individual denies the difference or existence of other cultures by erecting psychological or physical barriers in the forms of isolation and separation from other cultures.

2. In the second ethno centric stage, defense, the individual reacts against the threat of other cultures by denigrating the other cultures (negative stereotyping) and promoting the superiority of one's own culture. In some cases, the individual undergoes a reversal phase, during which the worldview shifts from one's own culture to the other culture, and the own culture is subject to disparagement.

3. Finally, in the third ethno centric stage, minimization, the individual acknowledges cultural differences on the surface but considers all cultures as fundamentally similar.

Ethno relative stages which are related with one's cultural understanding related with other cultures. These three stages are explained as follows;

1. (4) during the acceptance phase, the individual accepts and respects cultural differences with regard to behavior and values.

2. (5) in the second ethno relative stage, adaptation, the individual develops the ability to shift his frame of reference to other culturally diverse worldviews through empathy and pluralism.

3. (6) in the last stage, integration, the individual expands and incorporates other worldviews into his own worldview.

As a dynamic model for intercultural sensitivity, Bennett does not explicitly describe the role of communication in intercultural sensitivity (Snicrope et al. 2007). Chen and Starosta (1997) conceptualized intercultural sensitivity as "the ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication" (p.5). Chen and Starosta (2000) developed the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) with 24 items to measure intercultural sensitivity. The scale has five domains, which are interaction attentiveness, interaction confidence, interaction engagement, interaction enjoyment and respect for cultural differences. As Chen and Starosta (2000) state, "intercultural sensitive persons were predicted to be more effective in intercultural interactions and to show positive attitudes towards intercultural communication events" (p.11).

Education and communication are inseparable and an effective teaching-learning process requires an effective interaction (Aydın et al. 2013). In the language learning process, interaction should include significant domains such as intercultural communication. Baker states that knowledge of lexis, grammar and phonology of one language (here the case is English) are not enough for successful intercultural communication through English (2012). Besides, literature focuses on the fact that teachers have a significant role in intercultural education (Bennett, 1993). Thus, language teachers should be aware of their personal views and understanding about different cultures before they can help students to understand and develop intercultural communication (Yuen & Grossman, 2009). Important scholars state that teacher training courses are responsible for preparing teacher trainees to teach English effectively in relation to intercultural communication (Herman, 2002, & Jones, 2002). Intercultural communication has started to gain importance over the last 20 years, but related research with ELT students' intercultural sensitivity in Turkey is still quite limited. Recent

research has been carried out by Çubukçu (2013) where the researcher tried to discover the cultural sensitivity of sixty-five teacher trainees. Results show that pre-service English teachers are eager to integrate language teaching skills with culture teaching objectives. Besides, they perceive that intercultural sensitivity is significant and should be part of language teaching (Çubukçu, 2013). Research on intercultural awareness and diversity perception of English language teacher trainees was conducted by Sarıgöz (2014). The research focuses on the impact of an English Language Teaching (ELT) program on teacher trainees' understanding of intercultural diversity and awareness. The results of the study show that ELT teacher trainees deal with international and intercultural matters in language skill development. Besides, participants think that learning a foreign language develops self-reflection and self-confidence. Other research related to intercultural competence in teacher education was carried out by Akpınar and Ünaldı (2014). In this study researchers compared science students and foreign language teacher trainees' intercultural outcomes of short-term study visit programs. The results indicate that there is a significant difference of understanding between the two groups.

As mentioned before related research with Intercultural Sensitivity for the Turkish context, and especially intercultural sensitivity of English language teacher candidates, is limited. However, it is possible to analyze similar research around the world. For example similar research has been carried out in the Asian context by Huen and Grossman (2009). In this study, levels of the intercultural sensitivity of three samples of student teachers in Hong Kong, Shanghai and Singapore has been investigated through Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). The results show that the majority of participants tended to see the world from an ethnocentric perspective and tended to simplify or polarize cultural differences.

2. Method

According to Yuen and Grossman (2009), to improve one's intercultural sensitivity, the existing level of intercultural sensitivity should be known. The present study aims to measure, compare and analyze pre-service English language teachers' intercultural sensitivity level. Participants are pre-service English language teachers in Turkey from Gazi University ELT department's freshmen students. Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) was used to collect the data for the research. The scale has 0.88 alpha reliability coefficients. The ISS is a 24-item, 5-likert scale, which includes Interaction Engagement, Respect for Cultural Differences, Interaction Confidence, Interaction Enjoyment and Interaction Attentiveness. For each item in the scale, there are five options: 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=uncertain, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree. The participants of the study were 61 first year students of the ELT Department at Gazi University. Participants' ages range from 18 to 20 years. Participants were mostly females, at 51, as well as 10 male participants.

3. Findings and Discussion

In order to investigate student teachers' intercultural sensitivity, Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (ISS) was administered to first graders of ELT department, Gazi University. The data were analyzed through SPSS program. The researcher used descriptive statistics to analyze the data. As data collection tool comprised of various domains of intercultural sensitivity, the frequency of each item was presented in details.

3.1. Interaction Engagement

The first domain is interaction engagement which is related with participants' willingness for intercultural communication and items such as 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23 and 24 are related with the domain.

Table 1. *Results for interaction engagement domain*

Items	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	%	4	%	3	%	2	%	1	%
1	36	59.0	15	24.6	8	13.1	2	3.3	0	0
11	5	8.2	13	21.3	35	57.4	8	13.1	0	0
13	35	57.4	15	24.6	7	11.5	3	4.9	1	1.6
21	15	24.6	28	45.9	16	26.2	0	0	2	3.3
22	1	1.6	15	24.6	22	36.1	15	24.6	8	13.1
23	6	9.8	21	34.4	25	41.0	9	14.8	0	0
24	14	23.0	22	36.1	21	34.4	2	3.3	2	3.3

As the table presents, item 1 aims to find out participants' eagerness to communicate with people from different cultures. This item has 59.0 % 'strongly agree' and 24.6 % 'agree'. Totally, 83.6 % of the participants enjoy interacting with people from other cultures. Item 11 is related with participants' forming an impression of culturally-distinct counterparts. The item has 57.4 % 'somewhat agree' and the results show that participants tend to wait before forming impressions in communication. Item 13 questions whether participants are open towards people of other cultures and the item has 57.4 % 'strongly agree' and 24.6 % 'agree'. In total, 82 % of participants are open-minded towards people of other cultures. Item 22 questions whether participants avoid situations where they have to deal with culturally-distinct counterparts. The results of the items show that participants tend to avoid such situations. Items 21, 23 and 24 ask participants' responses to culturally different counterparts, their feelings towards differences between counterpart and participant, and understanding in communication. The results of the items show that participants enjoy realizing differences between cultures. Besides, participants have positive responses in communication. As the results point out, English language teacher candidates are open-minded towards other cultures and have positive attitudes to interaction with culturally different counterparts. Although participants did not take a culture-related course in high school, they have a positive perspective towards differences.

3.2. Interaction Enjoyment

Interaction Enjoyment domain aims to find out participants' reaction toward intercultural communication.

Table 2. *Results for interaction enjoyment domain*

Items	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
	5	%	4	%	3	%	2	%	1	%
9	3	4.9	3	4.9	11	18	26	42.6	18	29.5
12	4	6.6	5	8.2	10	16.4	27	44.3	15	24.6
15	5	8.2	2	3.3	6	9.8	21	34.4	27	44.3

The second domain of the scale is related with interaction enjoyment. It consists of three items. Items 9, 12 and 15 question whether participants feel negative emotions during interaction with people of other cultures. These emotions are stated in items such as useless, feelings of discouragement and getting upset. Participants disagree and strongly disagree with the items in this domain. Thus, participants enjoy the interaction, are productive during interaction and have a cooperative role to carry out interaction. The results suggest that English language teacher candidates enjoy interaction with people of other cultures.

3.3. Interaction Confidence

Table 3. Results for interaction confidence domain

The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor

	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
Items	5	%	4	%	3	%	2	%	1	%
3	12	19.7	24	39.3	21	34.4	3	4,9	1	1.6
4	4	6.6	16	26.2	19	31.1	18	29.5	4	6.6
5	6	9.8	14	23.0	29	47.5	8	13.1	4	6.6
6	13	21.3	23	37.7	17	27.9	6	9.8	2	3.3
10	11	18	26	42.6	18	29.5	4	6.6	2	3.3

The third domain is related with confidence in interaction. The domain is questioned with five items. Item 3 is 'I am pretty sure of myself in interacting with people from different cultures'. This means the total of the positive responds for item three is 93 % (19.7 'strongly agree', 39.3 'agree' and 34.4 'somewhat agree'). Participants are quite sure of themselves in interaction. Item 4 questions whether or not participants find it hard to talk in front of people from different cultures. Participants agree 26.2 % and 'somewhat agree' 31.1 % on this item. Totally 57.3 of the participants find it hard to talk in front of people from different cultures. Item 5 asks whether participants know what they say in an interaction. The results of the item show that the majority of the participants (86.9) know what they say in an interaction. Item 6 questions whether or not participants' are being social in interaction. Similar to item 5 results, the majority of the participants state that they can be sociable in an interaction. The last item of the domain is about confidence in interaction. The results of this item present that most of the participants have confidence in interaction with people from different cultures. According to findings which are presented above, first year students of the English language teaching department have confidence in interaction with people from other cultures.

3.4. Interaction Attentiveness

Table 4. Results for interaction attentiveness domain

	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
Items	5	%	4	%	3	%	2	%	1	%
14	11	18.0	22	36.1	24	39.3	3	4.9	1	1.6
17	25	41.0	23	37.7	11	18.0	2	3.3	0	0
19	12	19.7	21	34.4	23	37.7	5	8.2	0	0

The fourth domain of the scale is interaction attentiveness. The domain is investigated through three questions. Item 14 is 'I am very observant when interacting with people from different cultures'. The results for the item show that 93.4 % (18.0 % 'strongly agree', 36.1 % 'agree' and 39.3 % 'somewhat agree') are observant in interaction. Item 17 is related with whether or not participants are trying to get as much information as they can during an interaction. The results of this item show that 41.0 % of the participants 'strongly agree' with the item. The majority of the participants attentively listen and cooperate in interaction. The last item of the domain questions whether or not participants are sensitive to their culturally-distinct counterparts' subtle meanings during their interaction. The results show that the majority of the participants tend to be sensitive to subtle meaning in interaction.

3.5. Respect for Cultural Differences

Table 5. Results for respect for cultural differences domain

	The number of choices and their percentage for each item in the factor									
Items	5	%	4	%	3	%	2	%	1	%
2	3	4.9	4	6.6	13	21.3	18	29.5	23	37.7
7	3	4.9	3	4.9	3	4.9	18	29.5	34	55.7
8	34	55.7	22	36.1	4	6.6	0	0	1	1.6
16	25	41.0	25	41.0	7	11.5	3	1.6	1	4.9
18	4	6.6	3	4.9	5	8.2	17	27.9	32	52.5
20	5	8.2	15	24.6	29	47.5	8	13.1	4	6.6

The fifth domain of the scale is respect for cultural differences. The domain has six items. Items 2, 7 and 18 present a negative attitude towards other cultures. For example, item 2 is 'I think people from other cultures are narrow-minded' and item 7 is 'I don't like to be with people from different cultures'. The results of these items show that participants disagree or strongly disagree with these items. The results indicate that participants do not reject culturally different counterparts' opinions and enjoy being with people from different cultures. Also, participants are open to people of other cultures. Items 8 and 16 are related with respect towards other cultures. Item 8 questions whether participants respect the values of people from different cultures and 55.7 % 'strongly agree' while 36.1 % 'agree'. Totally, 91.8 % of the participants respect the values of other cultures. Similar to item 8, item 16 is related with respect to culture-bound behaviors. The total of the positive responses (strongly agree and agree) to this item is 82%. The results show that the majority of English language teacher candidates respect other cultures' values and culture-bound behaviors. However item 20 is 'I think my culture is better than other cultures' and the result of this item 80.2 % 'strongly agree', 'agree' and 'somewhat agree'. As Bennett (1993) mentions, people at ethnocentric stages may perceive the world from their own cultural view. As the result for the domain present participants accept other cultures and respect their values. The results also indicate that English language teacher candidates have a shift from ethno-centric stages to ethno relative stages.

4. Conclusion

According to Koster (2005) teacher trainers are those "who provide instruction or who give guidance and support to student teachers, and who thus render a substantial contribution to the development of students into competent teachers" (p.157). As Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is considered as the sixth element of communicative competence and the national standards for foreign language education developed in part with ACTFL (American council of Teachers of Foreign Languages) were based on 'knowing how, when and why to say, what to whom' language teachers' intercultural competence and its sub-domains are quite critical to teaching a foreign language. Within the framework, the present research examined freshman students of the ELT department of Gazi University. The findings present significant results in terms of language teacher candidates' intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity and their perspective towards cultural differences. In, conclusion English language teacher candidates have a positive attitude towards cultural differences and they respect other cultures' values and culture-bound behaviours. As the results obtained through intercultural sensitivity scale indicate, English language teacher candidates of Gazi University, Turkey, are open-minded towards different cultures and enjoy interaction with people of different cultures. As these English language teacher candidates have high intercultural sensitivity, they will teach English without being bound to a certain nation. Besides, they can create an appropriate atmosphere for successful

intercultural communication in their language classrooms. As results show, pre-service English language teachers enjoy interaction with people from different cultures and they are eager to communicate. In addition, according to the results they are confident during the communication process in 'third place'. The results indicate that pre-service English language teachers are open to different cultures and they accept their existence as well. Despite the fact that participants are freshman students of ELT department, their intercultural sensitivity level is quite high. The results may be interpreted as they do not have prejudice towards other cultures and ready to accept their existence. English language teachers resembles to cultural transmitter in language classrooms. In this respect, the results of current research present quite positive perspectives in terms of participants. According to another important result is that participants think their culture is superior to other cultures. This result can be interpreted that pre-service English language teachers in Turkey have limited opportunity to learn about other cultures through experience.

To sum up, as an affective domain of intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity refers to one's desire to learn, appreciate and compare similarities and differences among cultures. The present study reveals that pre-service English language teachers who participated in current study are intercultural sensitive persons and they have the necessary capabilities to teach and use English in intercultural settings.

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MEDICAL ETHICS EDUCATION IN TURKEY; STATE OF PLAY AND CHALLENGES

Perihan Elif Ekmekçi MD, PhD
Ministry of Health EU Department
drpelifek@gmail.com

Biodata

Perihan Elif Ekmekci is medical doctor and PhD in History of Medicine and Ethics. She has masters in research ethics. Currently she is teaching history of medicine and ethics at Medical faculty of TOBB University. Her main areas of interest are right to health of vulnerable populations, research ethics, bioethics education and health legislation.

MEDICAL ETHICS EDUCATION IN TURKEY; STATE OF PLAY and CHALLENGES

Perihan Elif Ekmekçi MD, PhD

drpelifek@gmail.com

Abstract

Medical ethics can be traced back to Hippocratic oat in antiquity. Last decade witnessed improvements in science and technology which attracted attention to the ethical impacts of the innovations in medicine. The need to combine medical innovations with a preservation of human values and to cultivate ethical competencies required by professionalism conceived medical ethics education in various levels in medical schools. Despite the diversities regarding teaching hours, methodology and content of the courses, medical ethics became a fundamental part of medical education around the world. In Turkey medical ethics education is given both in undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The high increase in the number of medical schools and shortfall of instructors who have medical ethics as their primary academic focus creates a big challenge in medical ethics education in both levels. Currently there are 89 medical schools in Turkey and only six medical schools are giving postgraduate medical ethics education. In 2010 only 33 of all medical schools could establish a separate department dedicated to medical ethics. There are no medical ethics courses embedded in residency programs. The quality and standardization of undergraduate medical ethics education has started but there are no initiatives to do so in postgraduate level.

Keywords: Medical ethics education, education, ethics, bioethics, medical schools

1. Introduction

In 1971 when Potter wrote his book "Bioethics, the bridge to the future", he defined bioethics as "...a new discipline to contribute the future of human species…" by enabling "two cultures, science and humanities that seem unable to speak to each other.." to communicate and find common grounds to contribute the development of human kind. Since then, bioethics has evolved as an umbrella concept composed of the three pillars; medical ethics, environmental ethics and animal ethics. The vast improvement in medical sciences and technology made medical ethics a crucial concept which medical professionals and researchers must be aware of. Thus the need for medical ethics education is realized and this awareness led to the generation of medical ethics education programs to build the bridges Potter defined. (Potter 1971, Ekmekci, Arda 2014)

The first traces of medical ethics can be found in Hippocratic Oath (500 B.C.E.) in antiquity. In medieval times and early modern period Islamic medicine had the lead and the book "Conduct of a Physician" by Ishaq ibn Ali al-Ruhawi was a step forward for the development of the medical ethics concept. In 18th and 19th centuries the attention of the medicinal society was more drawn to this newly flourishing concept. Thomas Percival's book named "Medical Ethics" is considered as a corner stone in this regard. (Güven 2000, Davis 2003) Depending mainly on the principles of this book American Medical Society approved the first code of ethics in 1847. However recognition of the fundamental importance of medical ethics depends on the tragic implementations during Second World War. The torturous researches of Nazi camps led to the first widely accepted medical ethics code called the Nuremberg Code in 1947. Tuskegee Syphilis Study, Willowbrook Hepatitis Experiments

are examples of scientific misconduct which were recognized lately and ironically contributed to the formation of the contemporary discourse of medical ethics.

Apart from the researches carried out in medicine, rapid developments in technology changed the "possibilities of innovations" in medicine. Gene therapy, cloning, cell, tissue and organ transplantations have become a reality that each and every human being may be subject to. This new set of possibilities led to emerge of many ethical problems which did not exist in the conventional way of being a medical doctor and reckoned the scientific and ethical communities to reconsider the importance of medical ethics. (Ekmekci, Arda 2014)

Hence the role of a physician changed from a simple *healer* to an ethical agent who has to find out the "right thing to do" in a variety of situations with ethical dilemmas such as allocation of resources, deciding about the issues related to the beginning and end of life problems and research on human subjects.

2. Medical Ethics Education

The evolution of medical ethics concept created the need for medical ethics education. The increase of scientific misconduct cases and ethical problems concerning financial conflicts of interest were other motives to create a curriculum for bioethics education. The pragmatic goal of medical ethics is to teach ethics as a way of learning skills for diagnosing and solving ethical dilemmas in everyday practice. Beyond this pragmatic goal there exists a broader view for the goal of medical ethics education. This view refers to medical ethics education as a main branch of bioethics education to counteract the dehumanizing and objectifying tendencies in contemporary medicine and technology. In this broad view, medical ethics education is not defined as means only to facilitate decision making but also contribute to make the innovations in the related fields more humane. (Have, Gordjin 2012) (Ekmekci, Arda 2014)

Medical ethics education applies to undergraduate medical faculty students or postgraduate medical doctors who are already performing their professions. Undergraduate medical ethics education has flourished in the last decades in most developed countries. In 1972 only %4 of US medical schools had a separate, formal required course on medical ethics. By 1989 the proportion of medical schools with separate required medical ethics education had risen to %34 and medical ethics education became a part of all medical schools' curricula in 1995. (Fox et al, 1995) However not all medical schools around the world followed this rapid improvement. There is a variety regarding the existence of required courses as well as teaching and assessment methodology of medical ethics courses in medical schools in different parts of the world. (Mijaljica 2014)

A survey reviewing the teaching of ethics in the European Union Schools of Medicine exposes the great variety by declaring that 11 out of 25 schools of medicine from 18 European Union Member States uses vertical teaching method, and only 2 out of 14 South East European countries had transversal teaching method in their curricula. (Claudot et al 2006) A survey by Mattick and Bligh showed that shortfall in compatencies in medical ethics did not preclude graduation from medical schools in UK. (Mattick 2006)

The situation in Asia is in concordance with the results of the surveys of Europe. The study conducted in 206 medical schools in Asia showed that medical ethics education has a widespread feature of medical curricula and the kinds of programs, especially with regard to integration into clinical teaching, were greatly diverse throughout the study area. (Miyasaka et al 1999) (Ekmekci, Arda 2014) Likewise Medical Council of India does not have medical ethics in any of courses and neither requires a separate course on medical ethics. (Ravindran 2008)

According to UNESCO Observatory Data, currently there are 235 teaching programs from 43 countries in Central and Eastern Europe, the Arab region, the Mediterranean region and Africa are identified and described in this data base. (UNESCO 2015)

Researches reveal the shortcomings existing in the literature of medical ethics regarding theoretical work done on overall goals of medical ethics education, empirical studies attempting to examine the outcomes of the education, studies examining teaching methods in medical ethics education and evaluating the effectiveness of teaching methods. (Eckles et al 2005).

2.1 Medical Ethics Education in Turkey

Medical school of Ankara University was the first medical school launched after the establishment of Turkish Republic in 1945. There has been a constant increase in the number of medical schools since then and the increase in number made a peak in the last three decades. Number of medical schools rose from 19 in 1980 to 74 in 2010. Together with that, the quota of medical school students per year peaked from 2409 in 1980 to 8090 in 2010. (Turkish medical Association Undergraduate Medical Education Report 2010) Today the number of medical schools reached to 89 and the total number of students in undergraduate training became 67197. (Turkish Student Assessment Evaluation and Placement Center 2015)

Table 1 *Number of medical schools and quota of medical schools*

Years	Number of medical schools	Quota of medical schools
1980	19	2409
1990	25	4847
2000	47	4176
2010	74	8090

2.1.1 Undergraduate medical ethics education

The increase in number of medical faculties raised concerns about the quality and created a need for standardization of the medical education. Council of Higher Education started an initiative to determine the core competencies of the medical school graduates and published "National Core Education Program" in 2002 and updated in 2014. Medical schools are required to set their curricula in coherence with the core program. (Turkish Council for High Education 2014)

National Core Education Program refers to medical ethics and states that "one of the aims of undergraduate medical education is to embed humanitarian and professional values in the students and enable them to perform their profession in coherence with ethical values". In the Program the core competencies of a medical school graduate related to medical ethics are listed as follows;

- "Advanced ability to consider the humanitarian, cultural and social ethical values and human rights during decision making process with respect to disparities."

- "Developed professional identity with the awareness of ethical values emerging from history of medicine and philosophy of science, and acting in compliance with these values in every procedure and implementation of their profession, able to combat with unethical behaviors."

- "Enhanced professional and legal responsibility and protect and defend patient and medical doctors' rights…"

- "Internalized rights based approach to health and work together with partners to provide equal opportunity to health and to remove barriers to health services." (Turkish Council for high Education 2014)

Depending on this theoretical basis National Core Education Program listed the minimum requirements of the curricula content of medical schools. The requirements about medical ethics education takes place under the section of "education for professional values and behaviors" and are as follows;

- Rights based approach to health

- History of medicine and philosophy

- Medical ethics, ethical values and obligations of a medical doctor, humanitarian, social and cultural values and responsibilities

- Patient rights, physician responsibility, physician patient relationship

- Ethical dilemmas in medicine

- Research ethics

- Inequalities in health and gender mainstreaming

Most medical schools updated their curricula in compliance with the National Core Education Program. In Turkish medical schools, medical ethics and history of medicine studies are merged in the same department called "History of Medicine and Ethics". Hence the courses and curricula of medical ethics departments include both subjects. Most of the medical schools have required history of medicine course in the first term and required medical ethics course in the second term of first year curricula. History of medicine course gives the general information to form a baseline for the medical students regarding health related concepts in the historic discourse. Medical ethics courses constitute of the following topics;

- Concepts of ethics, bioethics, medical ethics

- Basic ethical theories

- Principals of medical ethics

- Paternalism, informed consent and respect for autonomy

- Ethical dilemmas and ethical decision making process

- Confidentiality and patient privacy

- Physician patient relationships

The general inclination of medical schools is to insert another required medical ethics course in the third or fifth year of medical education which is dedicated to clinical ethics and research ethics. The aim is to draw the attention to special topics of medical ethics which future physicians are most likely to face during their profession. These courses focus on the listed topic below;

- Euthanasia and other ethical issues about the end of life

- Personhood and ethical issues about the beginning of life

- Genetics and ethics

- Ethical dilemmas regarding tissue and organ transplantation

- Research ethics

- Patient rights, telling the truth

- Futile treatment

- Informed consent

- Ethical dilemmas regarding research or care choosing process.

The most common methodologies are lectures, group discussions and case studies. Evaluations are mainly done by written exams. (Turkish Medical Association Undergraduate Medical Education Report, 2010)

2.1.2 Postgraduate medical ethics education programs

In Turkey medical ethics has been excluded from postgraduate medical residency programs. Therefore the only means for postgraduate training in this area are masters and PhD programs. There are four masters programs in ethics. Three of these programs are run by medical schools and one is run by the Faculty of Science and Letters. (UNESCO 2015)

Table 2: *Masters Programs in Medical Ethics*

Title of masters program	University	Area of ethics	Faculty
Bioethics and women	Ankara University	Bioethics	
Ethics	Maltepe University	Philosophical ethics	Science and Letters
History of Medicine and Medical Ethics	Kocaeli University	Medical ethics	Medicine
Medical Ethics and Deontology	Marmara University	Medical ethics	Medicine

PhD Programs are run by five well established medical schools. Four of these programs are considering medical ethics and history of medicine in the same program while one is particularly focusing in medical ethics and bioethics. (UNESCO 2015) The main topics of the PhD programs are as follows;

- History of science

- Philosophy of Science, sociology and law

- Philosophical ethics, Axiology

- Medical deontology

- Clinical ethics

- Research ethics

- Legal and forensic medicine

Lectures and seminars are the basic education methods to give an overview of the legislation on medical ethics and the philosophical and theoretical background of the ethic norms. Role plays, personal reflection presentations, case-study analysis, peer presentations and peer- education methods are the means to be used for the training of PhD candidates. Every student is asked to present seminars on particular topics of medical ethics. Collaborative classes with pharmacy school and forensic medicine as well as law school is commonly arranged to ensure a holistic and integrated view for the students.

Table 3: *Medical Ethics PhD Programs*

Title of Course	University	Faculty	Area of Ethics
Ethics of Science and History of Science	Ankara University	Health sciences Institute of Health Sciences Medicine	Science ethics
History of Medicine and Medical Ethics	Kocaeli University	Medicine	Medical ethics
History of Medicine, Medical Ethics and Deontology	Marmara University	Medicine	Medical ethics
Medical Ethics and History of Medicine	Ankara University	Medicine	Medical ethics
Medical Ethics and Bioethics	Istanbul University	Cerrahpasa Medical School Medicine	Bioethics
Medical Ethics and History of Medicine	Hacettepe University	Institute of Health Sciences Medicine	Medical ethics

3. Discussion

The vast increase in the number of medical schools and the quantity of medical students is the main challenge for medical ethics education in Turkey since the increase in number of lecturers and professors of medical ethics did not soar in parallel. The percentage of increase in the number of all medical school teaching staff has been %8 from 2008 to 2010 while number of students in medical schools grew by %14 in the same period. Basic medical sciences, especially newly developing specialties such as medical ethics, find it very hard to cope with the increase in demand. As a consequence of that in 2010, of 74 medical schools only 33 had a separate department for medical ethics and half of these departments did not have any professors recruited. (Turkish Medical Association Undergraduate Medical Education Report, 2010)

The well established medical schools in main cities of Turkey have developed their capacities to some extent thus they are in better situation compared to new medical schools in remote cities. Most medical schools without separate departments of medical ethics recruit visiting professors or professors from other basic or clinical sciences departments are

compensating for the deficit. (Turkish medical Association Undergraduate Medical Education Report, 2010)

This shortage in teaching staff creates concerns about the quality, competence and sufficiency of the medical ethics education both in undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The theoretical work to standardize and determine core competencies of medical education encounters high risk of failure because of deficiencies in the newly established schools. The interdisciplinary nature of medical ethics gives the chance to lecturers from other medical specialties to teach medical ethics all through the world. Ten Have and Gordjin remarks that not even half of the bioethics instructors in the U.S. have published an article in bioethics and that most of the teachers involved in bioethics education do not have ethics as their primary academic focus. (Have, Gordjin 2012) Although medical schools are using this advantage to solve the problem this is only a temporary solution which carries risk of its own. The crucial point is the educators' competency level and the quality of the education. Besides the lack of deficiency of specialized medical ethics specialists not only creates failure in medical ethics education but also leads to weakness regarding clinical ethical committees, institutional review boards, ethical consultations and researches.

The exclusion of medical ethics from residency programs in 2005 has been a breakpoint for the medical ethics departments in Turkey. With the new regulation, postgraduate medical ethics education became limited to only PhD programs hence the number of the new lecturers and professors could not be increased in parallel with the demand. (Civaner 2014) Besides, Council for Higher Education has published a new legislation regarding PhD educations and banned medical schools' departments with less than five professors from giving PhD education. The new legislation will be in force from 2016 and it will possibly have a devastating impact on medical ethics education and limit the postgraduate medical ethics education even to a worse state.

Other challenges regarding medical ethics education exists apart from the shortage in training staff. Standardization of medical ethics education and determining the core competencies is a common problem which has been recognized by most institutions globally. (Soleymani et al 2004Although National Core Education Program has succeeded in standardization to some extend this is only for undergraduate education. Regarding the post graduate masters and PhD programs there has been a growing consensus among the academicians about the need for the determination of minimum competencies however no concrete action is taken up-to-date. (Turkish Bioethics Association 2013)

Recent literature shows the growing consensus about the insufficiency of current medical school ethics education to answer the needs of professionals and informs us about the benefits of embedding medical ethics education into residency programs curricula. (Manson 2008) Diagnosing and solving ethical dilemmas emerging from clinical practices or research with human subjects, gaining competencies stipulated by professional and accreditation agencies, developing medical professionalism are among the needs to the medical ethics education in residency programs. (Jocobson et al 1989, Alfandre Rhodes 2009, Carrese et al 2015, Braddock et al 2012) Despite the growing tendency to support residence education by established medical ethics courses we see no intention for that in Turkish medical schools. Most residency programs neither have medical ethics education in their formal programs nor have plans to do so in near future.

4. Conclusion

Since the importance of medical ethics is realized by the scientific and professional community, medical ethics education is embedded in the curricula of both undergraduate and postgraduate curricula of medical schools. Despite the current diversities and shortfalls in

many medical schools around the world, significant improvements such as standardization of curricula and determining core competencies of medical education are taking place. Turkey faces great challenges in this regard. The huge increase in the number of medical schools and the inadequacy in number of instructors with medical ethics as their primary focus as academic work has been the Achilles hill for medical ethics education in Turkey. Furthermore the lack of medical ethics courses in residency programs and shortage of separate medical ethics departments create a risk for having medical professionals with ethical competency in the near future.

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A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY ON THE PROFILE OF SOME POTENTIAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı Mirici

Hacettepe University

hakkimirici@gmail.com

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gonca Yangın Ekşi

Gazi University

goncayangin@gmail.com

Biodata

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ is a full time academic at Hacettepe University ELT Department in Ankara, Turkey. He was also the elected President of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction (WCCI), and the Founder of the WCCI Turkish Chapter. He has been lecturing at Turkish universities for about 28 years. He has about 20 books and 50 articles published. He has participated in the steering committees of several national and international education projects. His main fields of studies are English Language Teaching, and Curriculum and Instruction.

Dr. Gonca Ekşi is an associate professor at Gazi University, department of ELT. Her research areas are teacher training, curriculum and materials development, language and culture, technology and language teaching and young learners.

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İsmail Hakkı Mirici
hakkimirici@gmail.com

Gonca Yangın Ekşi
goncayangin@gmail.com

Abstract

This study aims to investigate why high school students might wish to choose teaching as a career. Who chooses teaching and why is important for policy makers the teacher is an important variable in determining the quality of education. Countries, especially developing ones, are aware that they need to train better teachers who would educate citizens of the 21st century. Teacher recruitment policies also play a role in the selection and maintenance of practicing teachers. This study aims to (1) investigate the motives of high school students who wish to major in English, and most of whom may become English language teachers as a result of alternative recruitment policies; (2) to find out some information about the student's language learning beliefs and habits. The opinions of their parents and their language teachers have also been looked into to uncover any persuasion or dissuasion from people around the entrants. Three questionnaires were developed by the researchers to gather information from 86 students, 30 parents and 29 teachers. The data of the study were analyzed via frequency distributions and percentages to demonstrate the motives and profiles of students and the opinions and influence of parents and teachers. The findings suggest that students may choose teaching English as a career because they like it and they are interested in the language and its culture. Teaching is also regarded as an advantageous job by students and their parents. Language teachers persuade students who have some perceived ability to teach and who like languages. The findings show that because of the entrance exam used for selection, students may lack proficiency in skills that are not assessed.

Key words: Teacher candidates, teaching as a career, profile of potential teachers

1. Introduction

The 21st century has become the information age with the technological developments and "knowledge" plays the leading role. "The changing needs in economy, service and manufacturing industry, and society necessitate new forms of knowledge, skills and responsibilities" (Perkan Zeki & Güneyli, 2014:1). To become active players and to sustain economic growth countries need to make reforms. "Wealth creation through application of human knowledge and creativity is steadily outpacing wealth creation through extraction and processing of natural resources" (Kefela, 2010: 68). Therefore, it is important particularly for many developing countries like Brazil, Turkey, China and South Africa to be able to compete by investing in education to raise new generations who can reach, acquire, disseminate and use knowledge more effectively for greater economic and social benefits. The necessity to learn a foreign language, English in most cases, stems out of the growing status of English as a *lingua franca* and the increasing multicultural work practices. Finally, the fact that the content in the Internet and profession-related literature are predominantly in English makes

enhanced foreign language proficiency a must for developing countries. The key to effective English language instruction is the qualified teachers.

Language education programs in the higher education system in Turkey are introduced in different faculties depending on the program content and features. English Language Teacher Training programs are in the Faculty of Education. On the other hand, English Language and Literature programs, American Language and Culture programs, Translation and Interpretation programs, and English Linguistics programs are in the Faculty of Letters. Among those students who select one of these programs as their major, the most successful ones with higher scores in the university entrance examination are placed in the relevant program.

English Language Teacher Training Department graduates may start teaching in any educational institution after graduation without any additional requirement. The graduates from the other departments are in need of attending a pedagogic formation certificate program for two semesters to become a teacher of English. Therefore students may choose one of these fields of English as their major and after graduation they all have the chance to become an English teacher. Statistical records by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) indicate that of the 31,248 English language teachers in primary and secondary schools, 21,178 (67,7%) are ELT graduates, 6,486 (20,7%) are other English majors and 3,548 (11,4%) are graduates of other faculties (2013).

A considerable number of researches have been conducted to explore the teacher as an important variable in an educational system. Who the teacher was prior to and is during the teacher education programs and what the teacher's beliefs, characteristics, experiences, knowledge, and attitudes are matter a great deal in the pedagogical processes (Aksu et al, 2010; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Richardson & Watt, 2006). Akyeampong and Stephens highlight the importance of what teacher candidates bring along upon entering a teacher education program: "the input characteristics and qualities of the typical beginning student teachers are important indicators of the quality of trained teachers at the point of exit and of their continuing long-term commitment to the profession" (2002, p.262). Identifying the profile of potential teachers and the range of motives for choosing teaching as a career are important points to develop more effective teacher recruitment policies and to improve teachers' professional skills and knowledge. It will be ideal if teaching is regarded a good career choice rather than a poor one. To improve the motives and quality of future teachers, it is safe to suggest that one should first define and determine the current profile of potential teachers, their opinions about the teaching profession as well as some other factors and people playing a significant role in the decision making.

Numerous studies focus on identifying background characteristics, socio-economic status, socio-cultural values and pedagogical beliefs of entering teacher candidates and how the attitudes and perceptions of teacher candidates change according to these variables (Aydın and Sağlam, 2012; Baykara Pehlivan, 2008; Çapa and Çil, 2000; Richardson & Watt, 2006). Several studies investigate the attitudes of pre-service teachers in relation to different variables such as faculty of graduation, program, gender, technology and so on (Çapa and Çil, 2000; Çapri and Çelikkaleli, 2008; Erkuş, 2000; Kışoğlu, 2000; Johnson and Howell, 2005). This line of research offers the benefit of understanding and predicting the behavior of teachers.

The reason why people prefer a particular professional identity is a matter of various aspects. A perceived teaching ability, providing an important service to society, making a difference in society, desire to shape future and work with children, desire and ability to work in a particular subject matter field, job security, work schedule and extended vacations,

previous experiences and personal fulfillment are cited as the as the most common reasons for choosing teaching profession as a future career (Aksu et. al, 2010; Barmby, 2006; Chin & Young, 2007; Crow et al, 1990; Eifler & Potthoff, 1998; Farkas et al, 2000; Jarvis & Woodrow, 2005; Krecic & Grmek, 2005; Pop & Turner, 2009; Richardson & Watt, 2006; Salyer, 2003; Smulyan, 2004). Besides, family influences, teacher influences, peer influences and teaching influences are also identified as some other major sources that influence individuals' goal of choosing teaching as a career (Schultz, Crowder & White, 2001, p.299).

Richardson and Watt (2006), in their study with 1,653 first year pre-service teacher education candidates in three Australian universities, developed and validated a scale named "FIT-Choice" (Factors Influencing Teaching Scale) to determine the strength of influence for a range of motivators. Their study suggested that a comprehensive understanding of why individuals choose teaching yield strategies for teacher recruitment campaigns that would improve the view about teaching as a poor career choice. The study also indicated perceived teaching abilities, the intrinsic value of teaching, and the desire to make a social contribution, shaping the future, and working with children/adolescents as the most commonly rated motivators. Choosing teaching as a "fallback" career was the lowest rated motivation, which was counter to the much earlier literature (Haubrich, 1960). As to the perceptions about profession, the participants generally perceived teaching as a career "high in demand, low in return" (Richardson and Watt, 2006, p.46). The participants also regarded teaching as a highly expert career but with relatively low social status with a low salary. One noteworthy finding of the study was the far greater number of females than males enrolling in teacher education programs. The teacher education entrants also reported "relatively strong experiences of social dissuasion from teaching as a career" (Richardson & Watt, 2006, p.49). Still, despite the negative social influence, career choice satisfaction ratings were high. In their study with pre-service teachers, Eret Orhan and Ok (2014) found that gender, department, desire to be a teacher, satisfaction from department, satisfaction from conditions of the country, and general life satisfaction were found to be significant factors affecting candidates' attitude towards teaching.

Sinclair (2008), in her study with teacher candidates at different ages, conventionally categorizes these reasons as intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors involve social utility values, such as working with children and intellectual stimulation whereas extrinsic factors related to personal utility values are seeking a career change, a perceived fit between home and work life and the influence of others in the decision making process. Her findings suggest that all teacher candidates are motivated more by intrinsic factors than extrinsic factors regardless of their age. An interesting finding of her study is that an inability to enter another line of work was not found to be significant even for mature teacher candidates (cited in Evans 2011, p.611), which is in line with the findings of Richardson and Watt (2006).

As can be seen, the majority of the studies have been conducted on pre-service teachers in the faculties of education while very few studies shed light on high school students who wish to become teachers. Güleçen, Cüro and Semerci (2008), in their study with Anatolian teacher high school students, found that the attitudes of students towards teaching profession were average and in terms of groups, the attitudes of language students were higher than those of science students. Gömleksiz and Cüro (2012), however, found that Anatolian teacher high school students held a negative attitude towards teaching profession courses and demanded reducing content and teaching hours of these courses. The students in the study also stated that they did not think of becoming teachers in the future. It appears that studies conducted solely with participants from faculties of education or teacher training high schools may fall short. Therefore, the present study is thought to contribute to the literature by providing an insight into students from various high schools and their opinions and choices.

In terms of teacher selection, governments worldwide acknowledge the highly valued role of teachers in achieving the mission of each citizen having the knowledge, skills and values for the upcoming years. Teaching appears to be a socially valued profession. Yet, many countries are currently experiencing difficulties in attracting and maintaining effective teachers (Liu et. al, 2000). Unless teaching is made an attractive career choice for entrants, the shortage of well-qualified teachers may appear to get worse. The efficiency of any educational system mainly relies on how well teachers are educated and recruited (Johnstone, 2004; OECD, 2005). If policy-makers are to effectively attract suitably qualified people into the profession, they will need to understand who chooses teaching and why.

The procedure which determines the selection of those majoring in English also has a significant effect on entrants' skills and knowledge. In the Turkish context, university entrance exam is a multiple choice exam and it has the advantage of being able to test large number of candidates in a time and effort-saving way. However, being a high-stake exam, it determines life-altering decisions and placements for the enrollment in universities. That results in "studying for the exam". In other words, assessment drives learning- the so called "washback effect". Washback effect might be regarded as either negative or positive on learning and teaching. Negative washback occurs when a test aims to assess a narrow scope of language ability, and so constrains the teaching and learning context. Johnson (2009, p.87) highlights how assessment might affect how and what to teach and learn as: "High-stakes language testing, particularly when initiated at the state or national level, represents a powerful macro-structure that has a tremendous impact on what L2 teachers teach, how they teach, and what their L2 students ultimately learn". What a high-stake multiple choice exam assesses and what it does not assess can also affect how candidates study and what competences they have. Any government aiming to increase the quality of education in their country should improve the teacher selection and recruitment process before all else (Thaman, 2007). Hence, the study skills of candidates and their beliefs about language proficiencies also add a dimension to the profile of potential teachers.

1.1. Practising English Language Teachers in the Turkish Context

Peyton (1997) defines the knowledge and skills of a good language teachers as (a) a high level of language proficiency in all skills of the target language; (b) the ability to use the language in real-life contexts, for both social and professional purposes; (c) the ability to comprehend contemporary media in the foreign language, both oral and written, and interact successfully with native speakers (Philips, 1991); (d) a strong background in the liberal arts and the content areas; (e) understanding of the social, political, historical, and economic realities of the regions where target language is spoken; (f) pedagogical knowledge and skills, including knowledge about human growth and development, learning theory and second language acquisition theory, and a repertoire of strategies for developing proficiency and cultural understanding in all students (Guntermann, 1992); (g) knowledge of the various technologies and how to integrate them into their instruction.

In the review of pre-service ESL teacher education programs, Day (1993) identifies four components of knowledge that form the basis for these programs: content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and support knowledge. This knowledge is delivered to the teacher candidates through different models that involve lectures, readings, discussions, microteachings and the practicum.

Yet, not all practicing English language teachers in Turkey go through the same training. This study's specific aim is to focus on who makes English language teachers in terms of their background features and their language teachers' and parents' opinions about their

choice. Therefore, a brief look at who the practicing teachers are in Turkey will be illuminating at this point.

English language teacher education programs are offered by 55 faculties of education (40 state universities and 15 private and/or foundation universities) in Turkey and five faculties of education in North Cyprus Turkish Republic. The language teacher education curricula offered by these departments is established by the Higher Education Council (HEC), and is revised to meet the demands of the national and international changes in education. The most recent revision was made in 2006 as a need to accord the program to train English language teachers with the demands of global world. In the Turkish education context, graduates of other degree programs (other than those of ELT departments in faculties of education) practice as language teachers. Graduates of faculty of letters have sometimes had the right to be appointed as teachers in the recent years depending on changes in policies of the state (Tercanlıoğlu, 2004). Other majors of English have often sought a pedagogy certificate in case they wish to practice as English language teachers in schools. Teachers of other languages (such as French and German), provided they have attended an English language certification course with 40 credits, can also become English language teachers. Individuals who already hold a bachelor's degree from an English medium university can also be appointed as English language teachers provided they have a pedagogy certificate. Of the graduates of all departments mentioned above, those wishing to be appointed to teaching positions in state schools should take the KPSS (the Selection Exam for Professional Posts in Public Organizations) as the final step of the selection process. As can be seen, due to the urgent need to cover the need for English language teachers, alternative recruitment policies have resulted in career switchers in Turkey. The current figures of practicing English language teachers at schools indicate that the students of the above mentioned departments may end up being English language teachers at state schools in Turkey. Hence, a study attempting to shed light onto prospective English language teachers' backgrounds, study experiences and motives, and what roles and opinions their parents and their language teachers at their high schools have are important factors.

2.Problem

The main problem of this research is "What are the viewpoints of high school students who wish to major in English and those of their parents and language teachers about teaching English as a career and about their own English proficiencies prior to enrolment in a program at a university? The specific research questions are: (1) Do students in high schools who want to major in English at university think teaching as a career? (2) What are the roles and opinions of parents in their choice? (3) What are the roles and opinions of their language teachers in their choice? In terms of the language proficiency of these students the sub-research questions are: (1a) How do these students study? and (1b) What are their opinions about their own competences and language learning? As to their teachers, the study also seeks answers about the teacher's opinions about the students' competences and classroom practices.

3.Method

This descriptive study employs a survey method to gather information from potential teachers, their parents and their language teachers on learning English and teaching as a career. The participants consist of high school students who plan to major in English language programs at university, language teachers who work at high schools with those students and the parents of the students. The data was gathered during a large scale meeting held to inform the participants, who were actually coming from several different high schools in Turkey with their parents and language teachers. The participants were informed about

departments that they could enroll at university. Hence, convenience sampling was used. The participants answered and returned questionnaires on voluntary basis. Almost all of the participants, that is the high school students, their parents and teachers who were also present at the meeting, agreed to answer the questionnaires. A total of 86 students, 30 parents and 29 teachers participated in the study. Though the number is small, which might be a limitation of the study, the sampling involves much variety, on the other hand, as the participants were from several different types of high schools and grades. The findings of the study might be illuminating in that respect as it presents opinions and motives of students from different high schools and their parents and the language teachers who study with them.

4.Instrument

Three questionnaires were developed by the researchers. Validity is the extent to which a measurement instrument really measures what it is supposed to (Schnell et al. 1999, p. 148). The validation of the questionnaires were ensured as follows: Since a questionnaire is a survey technique in which each of the questions or items is independent from one another and thus the participants do not get an overall mark as a result, conventional validity and reliability measures are not implemented as in a scale. Instead, the content validity of the questionaires, that is if the items represent the attribute that should be measured to a high degree (Diekmann 2000, p.224), was ensured by two reviewers who have knowledge of the subject matter in terms of how much they served the purpose of the study. "The assessment of content validity typically involves an organized review of the survey's contents to ensure that it includes everything it should and does not include anything it shouldn't" (Litwin, 1995, p.35). The experts also reviewed all of the items for readability, clarity, scope and comprehensiveness and came to some level of agreement about its final form. Thus validity was ensured in terms of fitness for the particular purposes of the study. As to the ethics, the high school students participating in the study answered the questionnaires with consent of their parents and language teachers, who were present during data collection.

The first questionnaire with 13 questions was developed to gather information about students' demographic information, how they study English, what opinions they have about their English language competences and what motives they have for their future careers.

The second questionnaire with 10 questions was developed to gather information about teachers who teach and guide these students. This questionnaire focused on the data such as what language aspects the teachers focused on in classes, what competences their students had and how and why they guided and/or persuaded their students to choose teaching English as a career.

The third questionnaire, consisting of six questions, was designed to find out the demographics of parents and their influence on their children's choice of English language as a major in their higher education process.

5.Findings

5.1.Findings Based on Students' Questionnaire

Of the 86 students who answered the questionnaire, 33,7% (n:29) were between 15-16 years old, 62,8% (n:54) were 17-18 years old and 2,3% (n:2) were above 19 years old. Of these students, 77,9% (n:67) were female and 19,8% (n:17) were males. The distribution of students according to the schools they were attending was as follows: high schools 29,1% (n:25), Anatolian high schools 51,2% (n:44), private high schools 4,7% (n:4), Teacher high schools 1,2% (n:1), Anatolian high schools 11,6% (n:10), Anatolian Religious high schools 2,3% (n:1). Of the students, 5,8% (n:5) were 9th graders, 12,8% (n:11) were 10th graders, 52,3% (n:45) were 11th graders and 27,9% (n:24) were 12th graders. Of the students, 80,2%

(n:69) were attending to language groups whereas 15,1% (n:13) were not. Other important findings of the study are shown in the tables below:

Table 1. Reasons for students to wish to be enrolled in an English language teaching program

Frequency	*Statements*								
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*	*f*	*g*	*h*	*i*
1	**29**	5	0	3	4	0	0	7	0
2	7	8	3	**11**	**11**	0	0	8	0
3	8	5	2	10	8	1	0	**14**	0
Total	**44**	18	5	**24**	**23**	1	0	**29**	0

As to the first three motives of students for majoring in English language teaching, the mostly cited reason is "I like learning a foreign language"[a]. The second most frequent answers are "I believe it to be advantageous as a profession"[d] and "I want to get to know the language and the people speaking it better"[e]. The third mostly cited reason is "I believe I am/will be successful in the field"[h]. Other statements by the students are as below: "I like teaching as a profession" [b], "I take my teacher as a model" [c], "my family wants this and persuades me" [f], my teachers want this and persuade me" [g], and other [i].

Table 2. *Language aspects that participant students study in English classes*

	Never		*Rarely*		*Sometimes*		*Often*		*Always*	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	5	5,8	2	2,3	7	8,1	29	33,7	**42**	**48,8**
Vocabulary	9	10,5	7	8,1	19	22,1	27	31,4	23	26,7
Reading skill	11	12,8	11	12,8	24	27,9	26	30,2	14	16,3
Listening skill	13	15,1	21	24,4	33	38,4	10	11,6	8	9,3
Speaking skill	16	18,6	15	17,4	34	39,5	12	14	9	10,5
Writing skill	18	20,9	15	17,4	21	24,4	20	23,3	12	14
Pronunciation	15	17,4	22	25,6	21	24,4	20	23,3	8	9,3
Multiple choice tests	9	10,5	4	4,7	9	10,5	20	23,3	**44**	**51,2**

The student's answers about how much time they allocate to the aspects of language classes show that the majority of them spend the most of their time studying grammar (48,8%

always, 33,75% often) and doing multiple choice tests (51,2% always, 44% often). Vocabulary (26,7% always, 31,4% often) and the reading skill (16,3% always, 30,2% often) also receive considerable time. The language aspects that students spend least time are listening (9,3% always, 15,1% never), pronunciation (9,3% always, 17,4% never), speaking (10,5% always, 18,6% never) and writing (14% always, 20,9% never).

Table 3. *Language aspects that students feel competent about*

	Very poor		Poor		Moderate		*Good*		*Excellent*	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	3	3,5	4	4,7	23	26,7	**41**	**47,7**	14	16,3
Vocabulary	5	5,8	13	15,1	**36**	**41,9**	22	25,6	10	11,6
Reading skill	1	1,2	4	4,7	26	30,2	**38**	**44,2**	16	18,6
Listening skill	2	2,3	12	14	**29**	**33,7**	22	25,6	20	23,3
Speaking skill	4	4,7	14	16,3	**38**	**44,2**	23	26,7	5	5,8
Writing skill	0	0	13	15,1	25	29,1	**37**	**43**	11	12,8
Pronunciation	1	1,2	8	9,3	**33**	**38,4**	31	36	13	15,1
Multiple choice tests	3	3,5	6	7	19	22,1	**32**	**37,2**	26	30,2

The answers about how competent they think they are about skill areas and other aspects of language study show that most students regard themselves as "good" in grammar, reading, writing and doing multiple choice tests. They also think they can display a moderate performance in vocabulary, listening, speaking and pronunciation.

Table 4. *What students do to improve their English*

Values				Statements						
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*	*f*	*g*	*h*	*i*	
N	**65**	22	1	44	**62**	**53**	37	6	5	
%	**22,0**	7,4	0,3	14,9	**21,0**	**17,9**	12,5	2,0	1,6	

The analysis of the answers related to ways of improving their English outside the class reveals that the mostly cited three techniques are "studying on my own" (22%), "watching foreign movies/series" (21%), and "reading books, newspapers and/or magazines" (17,9%). Other answers in descending order are "attending a private course" (14,9%),

"communicating with foreigners" (12,5%), "studying with friends" (7,4%), "going abroad" (2%), "other" (%1,6) and "being tutored" (0,3%).

Table 5. *Students' beliefs about having a good command of English*

	Totally disagree		disagree		undecided		agree		Totally agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Learning lots of grammar rules	3	3,5	0	0	3	3,5	26	30,2	**53**	**61,6**
Learning lots of vocabulary	2	2,3	0	0	2	2,3	13	15,1	**68**	**79,1**
Being able to translate	2	2,3	0	0	6	7	18	20,9	**59**	**68,6**
Being able to read	2	2,3	0	0	1	1,2	10	11,6	**71**	**82,6**
Being able to understand what is listened to	2	2,3	0	0	2	2,3	12	14	**69**	**80,2**
Being able to speak and conduct spoken interaction	2	2,3	0	0	2	2,3	11	12,8	**69**	**80,2**
Being able to write	2	2,3	0	0	7	8,1	19	22,1	**54**	**62,8**
Perfect accent and pronunciation	2	2,3	1	1,2	4	4,7	33	38,4	**45**	**52,3**
Getting to know about different cultures	1	1,2		1,2	9	10,5	26	30,2	**49**	**57**

The students' answers about having a good command of English show that they totally agree with all of the above statements and the highest ranking ones are competence in the reading skill (82,6%), listening (80,2%), speaking (80,2%) and vocabulary (79,1%). Although about half of the students (57%) agree that knowledge about different cultures is a part of competence in a foreign language it is the lowest ranking statement.

Table 6. Language aspects that students think are important to be successful at the university entrance exam and to be enrolled in an ELT program.

	Not important		Of little importance		Somewhat important		important		Very important	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	2	2,3	2	2,3	0	0	19	22,1	**62**	**72,1**
Vocabulary	2	2,3	0	0	0	0	12	14	**72**	**83,7**
Translation	2	2,3	0	0	9	10,5	23	26,7	**51**	**59,3**
Reading Skill	2	2,3	1	1,2	6	7	19	22,1	**58**	**67,4**
Listening skill	4	4,7	3	3,5	16	18,6	25	29,1	**37**	**43**
Speaking skill	3	3,5	3	3,5	14	16,3	22	25,6	**42**	**48,8**
Writing skill	6	7	8	9,3	9	10,5	17	19,8	**43**	**50**
Pronunciation	7	8,1	6	7	10	11,6	21	24,4	**42**	**48,8**
Different cultures in English speaking countries	4	4,7	5	5,8	23	26,7	23	26,7	**31**	**36**

The analysis of answers to questions regarding success at university entrance exam to be able to enroll in the English language teaching program show that the students think all of the options are very important. The highest ranking answers are vocabulary (83,7%), grammar (72,1%), reading (67,4%) and translation (59,4%).

5.2.Findings based on Teachers' Questionnaire

Of the 30 English language teachers participating in the study, 73,3% (n:22) are females and 26,7% (n:8) are males. As to their experience in the profession, except from one teacher who has less than five years of experience, the majority of teachers are experienced language teachers (6-12 years 26,7%, 13-20 years 43,3% and 21 and more 23,3%). Most teachers work in Anatolian high schools (73,3%) and most of them (82,32%) state that they try to persuade their students to study English at university.

Table 7 *Teachers who persuade students to choose teaching as a career*

Values		*Statements*		
	a	**b**	**c**	**d**
N	24	19	15	1
%	40,6	32,2	25,4	1,6

Three mostly cited statements of teachers who persuade students to choose ELT as a career are: "I guide those students who have an ability for languages" (40,6%); "I guide

students who like English" (32,2%); and "I guide students who are suitable for teaching" (25,4%).

Table 8. *Teachers spending time for study with students in language groups*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	0	0	0	0	1	3,3	**9**	**30**	6	20
Vocabulary	0	0	0	0	2	6,7	**7**	**23,3**	7	**23,3**
Reading skill	0	0	1	3,3	1	3,3	12	40	2	6,7
Listening skill	2	6,7	2	6,7	6	20	5	16,7	1	3,3
Speaking skill	1	3,3	1	3,3	9	30	1	3,3	4	13,3
Writing skill	1	3,3	1	3,3	7	23,3	5	16,7	2	6,7
Pronunciation	0	0	3	10	4	13,3	5	16,7	4	13,3
Multiple choice tests	0	0	1	3,3	1	3,3	**5**	**16,7**	9	**53,3**

When asked how often they study aspects of language with students in language groups, the majority of the teachers state that they spend most of their time studying grammar, vocabulary and doing multiple choice tests. They spend little or no time in skills work.

Table 9. *Teachers' evaluation of their students' competency*

	Very poor		Poor		Moderate		Good		Excellent	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	0	0	1	3,3	5	16,7	**13**	**43,3**	3	10
Vocabulary	0	0	3	10	7	23,3	**12**	**40**	0	0
Reading skill	1	3,3	1	3,3	7	23,3	**11**	**36,7**	2	6,7
Listening Skill	1	3,3	3	10	12	40	5	16,7	1	3,3
Speaking skill	0	0	8	26,7	8	26,7	5	16,7	1	3,3
Writing skill	0	0	6	20	8	26,7	6	20	1	3,3
Pronunciation	0	0	3	10	11	36,7	6	20	1	3,3
Multiple choice tests	0	0	0	0	4	13,3	**9**	**30**	9	**30**

Most teachers believe that their students are good at grammar, vocabulary, reading skill and doing multiple choice tests.

Table 10. *Teachers' beliefs about having a good command of English.*

	Totally disagree		Disgree		Undecided		Agree		Totally agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Learning lost of grammar rules	2	6,7	5	16,7	1	3,3	12	40	7	23,3
Learning lots of vocabulary	0	0	2	6,7	1	3,3	12	40	13	43,3
Being able to translate	0	0	5	16,7	3	10	13	43,4	5	16,7
Being able to understand texts read	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	23,3	21	**70**
Being able to understand what is listened to	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	26,7	20	**66,7**
Being able to speak and conduct spoken interaction	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	20	22	**73,3**
Being able to write	0	0	0	0	1	3,3	13	43,3	13	43,3
Perfect accent and pronunciation	0	0	4	13,3	3	10	14	46,7	6	20
Getting to know different cultures	0	0	0	0	4	13,3	9	30	14	46,7

The teachers' answers about having a good command of English show that they totally agree with all of the above statements and the highest ranking ones are competence in the speaking (73,3%), reading (70%) and listening (66,7%) skills. The teachers' choice indicate that a perfect accent and pronunciation, grammar and being able to translate are the least favored indicators of a good command of English.

5.3. Findings based on Parents' Questionnaire

The demographic information of the 29 parents participating in the study show that nearly an even number of mothers and fathers have answered the questionnaire (15 females and 14

males). The age range is as follows: 35-40 year olds 20,7%, 41-50 year olds 69%, 51 or older ones 10,3%. As to their latest degree, 10,3% graduated from a lower secondary school, 41,4% from a high school, 6,9% from a two-year graduate program, 37,9% from a four-year graduate program and 3,4% from a post graduate program. When asked about foreign languages they can speak, half of the parents (55,2%) state that they can speak English at a beginner level and 27,6% at an intermediate level. Parents who can speak other foreign languages are a lot fewer and only with a low proficiency (German 2, French 2 and Arabic 1). None of the parents are proficient speakers of any languages. Other information about parents is as follows:

Of the parents, 58,6% (n:17) state that they have been effective in persuading their children to think English language teaching as a career and cited the following reasons as effective in their guidance:

Table 11. *Reasons for parents to persuade their children to choose teaching as a career*

Reasons	N	%
There is an English language teacher in the family.	2	2,7
He/she likes learning English.	15	20,8
He/she likes teaching as a profession.	9	12,5
He/ she takes his/her English teacher as a model.	7	9,7
I believe it is advantegous as a profession for my son/daughter (job security, salary etc.)	12	16,6
I would like my son/daughter to get to know the people speaking the language and their culture more.	7	9,7
His/ her teachers wants them to/ and guide them to choose teaching as a career.	3	4,1
I believe he/she can be successful in the field	16	22,2
Other	1	1,3

The mostly cited reasons for parents encouraging their children to choose English language teaching as a career are the belief that they can be successful (22,2%), the child's pleasure in learning English (20,8%), and considering it as an advantageous job for them (16,6%).

6.Discussion and Conclusion

The teacher is a component of utmost importance in the educational system and it is self-evident that we need to attract and retain highly capable students to teaching as a career to achieve educational excellence. Quality teachers are central to the training and education of citizens who have the necessary knowledge, understanding, skills and values for the competitive and global world. The present study seeks to add to the literature on motives for choosing teaching as a career. Given the wide diversity in backgrounds of practicing teachers,

the study specifically aims to explore the motives of students in high schools who wish to major in English language programs at university; namely language teaching departments, language and literature departments, linguistic departments or translation departments.

The motives, knowledge and skills of those people who may choose teaching as a career provide valuable background information for policy-makers, recruitment bodies and teacher educators. The findings of this study will be of particular use to these groups. Current and recent research has tended to focus on teacher candidates at faculties of education. Given the large number of career switchers, this study provides an expanded focus which includes individuals who may end up teaching or consider teaching as an alternative. Results from our study indicate that high school students are attracted to teaching as a career mainly because of their liking and interest in the language, its culture and people. Considering teaching as an advantageous profession is another reason. The potential teachers also believe they could be successful in the profession. Persuasion from the family or others appears to be another factor.

As to teachers, they persuade their students to choose teaching if they are good at languages and like English and if they are suitable for a teaching job. More than half of the parents of potential teachers state that they have been effective in persuading their children to choose teaching as a career. Two of the reasons are the same as the teachers': namely pleasure in learning English and perceived success in the job. The parents also consider teaching as an advantageous job. This finding is different from that of Richardson and Watt (2006). Although teaching is considered to be a job that is highly demanding but low in return, parents think it to be an advantageous profession, probably due to often cited advantages such as flexible working hours and job security.

A closer look at what the students study and what aspects of language they feel competent at shows that they spend much of the classroom time doing multiple choice tests and studying grammar. They spend much less time in language skills. As a result of the allocated time, they feel comparatively more competent about grammar, reading and doing multiple choice tests. The potential teachers appear to be spending much more time studying for the university entrance exam; that is, for the language aspects that are assessed in the exam. Skill development and studying the language as a whole seems to be neglected. The students answers about having a good command of English show that they believe skills, such as listening and being able to engage in spoken interaction, are much more important. However, when asked what would bring them success at the university entrance exam, grammar, vocabulary, reading and translation are the highest ranking answers.

The teachers' answers share the same conflict. They believe a good English proficiency is primarily being able to understand what is listened to and communicate orally and secondarily knowledge about vocabulary, culture, writing and translation. Yet, they spend most of their time studying grammar, vocabulary and doing multiple choice tests and very little time in other areas and skills work. As a result, they believe their students are good at grammar, vocabulary, reading and multiple choice tests. High stake public examinations might often lead to top-down educational reforms (Noble & Smith, 1994). As the present study shows, what participating students and their teachers think about being competent in English and what they do to study for the university entrance exam are totally different. The effects of the exam on teacher training and student learning are of vital importance and to bring about a positive washback effect on classroom teaching and learning, the university entrance exam in its present form should be changed.

Mitchell and Barth (1999) point that the most harm will be done to the students by teachers who are poorly trained and tested. Therefore, it is essential to identify multiple

factors that influence individuals from different backgrounds who become English language teachers during decision making and policy designing. Further and longitudinal studies are needed to uncover more nuanced understandings of the motivations to enter teaching.

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