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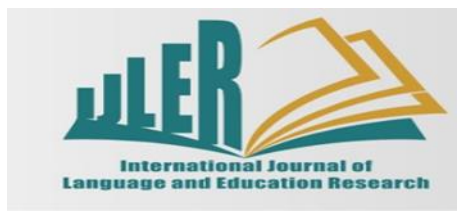
Dear IJLER Readers,

In this issue of our journal, there are 6 articles from different fields. Research area concerning language has become richer thanks to the studies regarding traditional philology, linguistics and research studies on teaching languages in 21th century and it has becoming even richer through the latest theoretical and applied studies. As International Journal of Language Academy, we presented subject areas in language in this broad perspective in the 5th issue.

I would like to thank my colleagues who have contributed to the journal with their articles.

Prof. Dr. Ali YAKICI
Editor

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CONTENTS

INVESTIGATION OF EFL TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES OF COMMUNICATIVE TASKS IN TEACHING ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS: ASSOSA UNIVERSITY IN FOCUS

Melkamu Gari[1]

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate EFL instructors' knowledge and pedagogical practices of communicative tasks in teaching English speaking skills Assosa University in Focus. The study employed the explanatory sequential method. The data for this study were collected through questionnaires, interviews and observations from a total of 180 students and 26 instructors. Then, the data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings of the study showed the instructors had favorable knowledge about the contribution of communicative tasks to the development of students' speaking ability, but they lacked confidence to implement task-based speaking because of their students' poor speaking. As a result, the instructors preferred to use instructor-fronted approaches in the classroom. Such an approach denied the students opportunities of self directed

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practice during the speaking lessons. Students' lack of awareness about task-based learning led them not to tell about the meaning of task-based speaking. The conclusion made from the study is that there is a mismatch between the instructors' knowledge and practices of the speaking-tasks. This seems to have resulted in the students' inadequate speaking skills development. This study implies that instructors should develop confidence in implementing task based speaking. Moreover, they should support and encourage their students to take part in the speaking classes where they learn better and practice speaking effectively.

Keywords: EFL teachers' knowledge, practices, communicative tasks, and speaking skills.

INTRODUCTION

Communicative language teaching emphasizes the active involvement of learners in classroom language practices by interacting among themselves in a meaningful way instead of passively responding to language models initiated by the teacher. In harmony with this point, Hyland (1991:28) asserted: "At the heart of communicative language teaching, there is the need to provide learners with experiences that promote student interaction"; and she goes on to say, "learners are no longer expected to simply absorb and repeat language models provided by their teacher." Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (2000:126) writes that communicative language teaching places emphasis on "communicative interaction" that offers learners ample opportunities to operate the target language for negotiation of meaning rather than on getting learners to carry out structural drills aimed at "just the mastery of language forms." In short, the approach advocates the need to create communicative situations that engage learners in realistic language use while doing classroom tasks.

Therefore, in communicative language teaching approach, tasks are the tools to promote interaction and real language use. Tasks are considered to be the core of language learning. For this reason, the task promotes interactive and authentic language use rather than to serve as a framework for practice on particular language forms or functions. It promotes the function of communication in negotiating meaning and collaborative problem solving (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Thus, many researchers and EFL practitioners disclosed their interest in this approach, which is believed by many to have introduced major shifts of paradigms in EFL pedagogy, (Legutke and Thomas, 1996 and Cookes, 2003, cited in Mekasha 2005).

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

3

This approach, which characteristically aims at teaching language, unlike the structural school of teaching, as a means of communicating, interacting and negotiating ideas (Little-Woods, 1987 Nunan 1987) come up with the new concepts of tasks which are particularly known as communicative tasks (Nunan, 1989). Other researchers such as Prabhu (1987), Skehan (1997), Willis, (2001), Breen (1987), Nunan (1999), Crookes (1986) and Candlin (1987) are called this new concept task-based approach of language teaching.

The research conducted by different scholars such as Wills (1996) show that task-based approach is focused on efficient and effective way of language teaching. The research of American Government Language Institution reported that task- based approach (TBA) made learners 'show far more quick advancement and to operate their foreign language in real world circumstances with a reasonable level of proficiency often in quite short courses (Lever and Kaplon, 2004). Other researches done in different countries such as Brazil and Asia reveal task-based approach helped students to have "extra ordinary success" in their foreign language learning lapes (2004), Nunan (2006), Oxford (2006). As indicated by scholars like Nunan (1989), Willis (1996) and Bygate (2003) the aim of communicative task language teaching is to improve student's language proficiency based on purposeful communication which cannot be separated from social context. Social interaction as the process of communicative task has some features that can stimulate the teaching/learning of speaking. For the reason that Robinson (2003b) compelled communicative task pedagogy facilitate the cognitive processes involved in second language production (performance) and acquisition (development), and their relationship. Prabhu (1987) one of the great supporters of TBLT, accepts that "a task is an activity which require students to arrive at an outcome from the given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process."

However, even if task-based instruction is essential for the language class, it will never be a sufficient condition in itself to foster language learning. For this reason, the way tasks are known and used in a particular context in relation to other pedagogical considerations will always be significant. Therefore, knowledge of instructors and how they practice communicative tasks is very important to know their feelings on the different approaches

in the teaching of English speaking. In addition, effective teaching is not only about knowledge of certain teaching method but it is also about understanding and implementing principles of teaching-learning in that method i.e. principles of task-based approach.

Thus, different researches were conducted by Horwitz (1987); Kern (1995); Oxford (1990); Wenden (1987), Mekasha (2005) and Meseret (2012) on teachers' perceptions about their students' roles in language learning and the roles of task-based pedagogy in enchaining language learning. The review of literature about task based teaching shows that research done focused on how task based language teaching is used in language teaching in general. To the researcher's knowledge, there are no studies which have been devoted to study EFL instructors' knowledge and pedagogical practices of communicative tasks in teaching English speaking.

Basic Research Questions

- To what extent do EFL instructors know Communicative task instructions in teaching English speaking skills?

- How do EFL instructors practices communicative tasks (communicatively or traditionally do they implement) in the teaching English speaking skills?

- To what extent do the EFL instructors knowledge of communicative tasks match with their practices when teaching English speaking skills?

The Research Design

The research was employed explanatory sequential mixed method design. Explanatory sequential mixed method is one in which the researcher first conduct quantitative research, analyze the result and then build on the result to explain them in more detail with qualitative research. It is considered sequential because the initial quantitative phase is followed by the qualitative phase Creswell (2014). Besides, explanatory sequential mixed design is also deployed for causal studies where pattern-matching can be used to investigate certain phenomena in very complex and multivariate cases. Yin and Moore (1987) note that these complex and multivariate cases can be explained by three rival theories: a knowledge-driven theory, a problem-solving theory and a social-interaction theory.

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

5

Thus, this study focused on examining knowledge of the instructors and how they practice communicative tasks in teaching English speaking skills, in which multivariate cases were investigated, i.e. knowledge, pedagogical practices, communicative tasks and speaking skills. Therefore, the researcher used explanatory sequential mixed method for this study.

Participants Selection Techniques

The study was conducted at Assosa University. English language instructors and first year students of the year 2021/22 were the focuses of the investigation. The research site was chosen for the following essential reasons. First, it could be conspicuous to gather data using classroom observation and interview in a research site where you know participants of the study and have worked with them for some years of adequate acquaintance (Creswell, 2009). Second, getting access to the research site and the participants of the study would be easy. Besides, I have focused on first year students of the University for Two Basic Reasons. First, since they offered Communicative English skills- I before, it could not be difficult to get relevant data about the research topic when communicative English skill-II is offered for them. It is believed that they could give rich and correct information to the study. Second, since there are various observation sessions held in the university regularly, my research observation sessions could not be unobtrusive so that artificial class hours could be avoided. During the study, there were one thousand eight hundred (1800) first year students in the university which one thousand two hundred were (1200) natural science and six hundred students were (600) social science (information gained from the university registrar and freshman students coordinators). From these categories, the researcher selected social science students by simple random sampling lottery method.

As it is mentioned above, there are six hundred students in Social Science College. From these populations, 180 students were decided to participate in the study by convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling is non-probability sampling method by which the researcher selected the proper sample size of participants from the whole population. This method is used in order to get reliable & accessible data to ensure the completeness of the research and the rationality of consistent data. Moreover,

convenience sampling is the most useful sampling method because it is the easiest and cheapest method to conduct a research (Cooper, 2000).

These total populations were assigned into fifteen (15) sections by the ratio of forty (40) students in one class. Therefore, from sections 1- 15, 180 students were selected to include in the study. Hence, since it is difficult to gather data from all populations. To get these sample size, the researcher used stratified sampling technique depending on the section of first year social science students of Assosa University were divided in number of strata. The number that was taken from each stratum was determined to ensure proportionality. Once the number is determined stratified sampling was employed to select the specific sample students in each class.   This number was thus determined through the formula (the proportional number = n/N* x) where 'n' is determined sample size, 'N' is the total number of the students and 'x' is number of students in one class. So that 180/600x40=12. For this reason, twelve students were selected in each section by using simple random sampling technique to participate in the study.   Thus, 12*15=180 students were participated in the research.

In addition to students, instructors were also the main source of data for this study. There were twenty-six instructors of which one male and one female were B.ED holders, thirteen males and two females were MA holders, three males were PhD holders and five males were assistance professor. The researcher selected all the twenty-six (26) EFL instructors by using available sampling technique.

Instruments of Data Collection

Questionnaire

This study used questionnaire for collecting data. It allowed the study to gather data from relatively larger number of research participants. Even, constructing a questionnaire and analyzing data collected through it is relatively easy and more manageable (Dornyei, 2007). Therefore, in order to address relatively larger number of instructors to manage the collected data easily, this study used a questionnaire for data collection.

 In developing questionnaire, some parts of them were designed based on TBLT literature, partly adapted and modified from Nunan's (2004) checklist

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

7

for communicative tasks and some of the questionnaire items were adapted from the lists of Common Misconceptions about Task-Based Instruction by Ellis (2003). The questionnaires were designed to identify instructors' knowledge and pedagogical practices of the communicative tasks in teaching English speaking skills.

Interview

In order to conduct an in-depth investigation of the teachers' knowledge of communicative tasks this study employed interviews. These interviews also helped the study to crosscheck the survey results collected through the questionnaire. Patton (2002) argues for interview as an effective method of data collection in qualitative research. The fact is that we cannot observe everything. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, intentions, beliefs and knowledge…. We have to ask people questions about those things. In theorizing teachers' cognitions, Borg (2006) argues that teachers' cognitions are often inferred from teachers' verbal comments. Interview is most relevant to this methodological demand.

In order to understand teachers' knowledge through what they say, the current study was employed semi-structured interview strategy. One advantage of the semi-structured interview is their flexibility which allows the interviewer to elaborate on what the interviewee says, while maintaining the focus of the interview (Borg 2006). Questions in semi-structured interview are often open-ended, so the interviewees can speak as much as they like. As such, open-ended questions are used to foster the respondents' freedom and confidence as long as seeking their views and awareness about reasonably complex issues (Ary et al. 1990). The interviewer will listen carefully and comment thoughtfully on what the respondent says (Borg 2006). Because of these dominant features, semi-structured interview has a well-established tradition in investigating teachers' knowledge (Borg 2012).

After having access to the English teachers in the way described above, the researcher consulted four interested teachers for interview sessions at their working place during their working time. With the permission of each interviewee and the researcher's oral commitment of confidentiality, each session of interview was audio recorded by a mobile phone (Techno Camon 12). The interview lasted for around fifteen to twenty minutes with each

individual teacher. In addition to audio recording, the interviewer was taking quick notes while conducting the interview. Immediately after each of the interview session, the researcher organized and made transcriptions (with the help of recorded information and notes during interview).

Observation

Classroom observation was conducted to investigate teachers' knowledge and pedagogical practices in teaching speaking skills; and how these instructions were implemented in the actual English lessons. Patton (2002) has noted that observations enable the researcher to see things that may not be evident in interviews or documentation. Moreover, observations provide more direct information than other self-reported protocols (Dornyei 2007). In the literature reporting research on teachers' cognitions, observations are often utilized to capture teachers' classroom practices (Borg 2012). Furthermore, observations provide a rich account of teachers' teaching in their -actual classrooms (Cohen, Manion& Morrison 2011). Borg (2006) has argued that observation clearly has a central role to play in the study of language teacher cognition by providing a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think and believe. In short, observation allows the researcher to capture what the teachers actually do in the classroom.

During observation sessions, the researcher prepared and used checklist. Classroom observations checklist was divided into four sections namely: observing to what extent teachers implement pedagogical practices during English speaking instruction, observing to what extent the instructors were given different activities during the lesson, observing what strategies and techniques the instructors use and observing the role of instructors during English classes. Having this check list and video records, twelve classes, four sections three times each was observed randomly by the researcher. The researcher selected these classes through simple random sampling technique since it gives equal chance for selection.

Methods of Data Analysis

The data analysis process consisted of both qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative data were analyzed using Likert–type item analysis. In the Likert scale, numerical values to responses and the

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

9

numerical representation (the coding) of the items were coded as the following: 'Strongly Agree'(SA) =5; 'Agree' (A)= 4; 'Undecided'(U) =3; ' Disagree' (D) =2 and 'Strongly Disagree' (SD)=1. Similarly, the items of the questionnaire for 'classroom practice' were coded as:- 'Always'(A) =5; 'Often'(O) =4; 'Sometimes'(ST) =3; 'Rarely'(R)=2 and 'Never'(N) =1 respectively.

The data gathered using questionnaires were tallied, tabulated, and analyzed using statistical techniques. Descriptive statistics such as mean, percentage, variance, standard deviation and coefficient of correlation were used for expounding the different features of instructors' knowledge and practices of the communicative tasks in teaching English speaking skills. Tabular descriptions of items or variables in the study were made. These helped the researcher to classify the questionnaire items, into their respective categories.

After classifying the categories, the number of times (frequency) the respondents answered for an item in each category were recorded in a table. Correlation between the mean rating of instructors' and students' knowledge and practices of the speaking tasks were calculated using the Spearman Correlation Coefficient. To show the relationships between the variables, particularly of psychological traits like knowledge, the factor analysis procedures was implemented. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to analyze the data.

The qualitative data gathering instruments were prepared to obtain information on how and why instructors' knowledge of the communicative tasks affects their classroom practices. Thus, it is helpful to see if what they tell and do match together. After the data were collected, then the data obtained from classroom observation were first categorized and interpreted. The information obtained from interview was coded, transcribed, analyzed and interpreted.

RESULTS

Presentation and Interpretation of Instructors Questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was mainly to obtain information about instructors' knowledge and pedagogical practices of communicative tasks in teaching English speaking skills. The questionnaire, which has 34 items,

was further categorized into four sub-categories. Analysis and discussions of the questionnaire results were made based on the categories as follows.

Category 1. Instructors' knowledge of the Effects of Communicative Tasks on improving the Teaching of English-Speaking skills

An attempt was made to get data on instructors' knowledge about the effects of communicative tasks on the teaching of English-speaking skills. The purpose of the questionnaire items in this category is to elicit data on what the instructors know about the effect of the communicative tasks in improving the teaching of English speaking.

Table 1

Knowledge concerning the Effects of Communicative Tasks on improving the Teaching of English Speaking

No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
1	The communicative tasks in the course material are communicative goal directed; thus they enhance students communicative language learning	F	6	12	8	-	-	3.83
		%	23.076	46.15	30.77			
2	The communicative tasks in the course material engage students to put a primary focus on meaning.	F	6	10	6	4	-	3.50
		%	23.076	38.5	23.076	15.38		
3	Students are expected to come up with clearly defined outcomes at the end of their speaking	F	7	12	7	-	-	3.58
		%	26.92	46.15	26.92			
4	The communicative tasks promote learners' ability in an academic speaking (advanced speech)	F	5	14	4	3	-	3.66
		%	19.23	53.85	15.38	11.53		
5	The communicative tasks help students to develop skills far beyond knowledge of linguistic structures.	F	9	11	6	-	-	4.00
		%	34.61	42.31	23.076			
6	Tasks in the course material are beyond the students' ability.	F	8	10	-	4	4	3.00
		%	30.77	42.31		15.38	15.38	
7	It is really difficult to assess the outcome of a communicative tasks	F	13	11	-	2	-	4.16
		%	50	42.31		7.7		
8	The communicative tasks promote the development of integrated skills in the classroom.	F	-	6	8	8	4	2.50
		%		23.076	30.77	30.77	15.38	
9	Pattern practices of communicative tasks are more appropriate to	F	-	9	9	-	8	3.33
		%		34.61	34.61		30.77	

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

11

	provide students meaningful context to use the target language for speaking.							
10	The end result of the communicative tasks has to be assessed by what the students have done rather than how they have done it.	F	-	9	9	4	4	3.16
		%		34.61	34.61	15.38	15.38	
11	The outcomes of communicative tasks are to be measured by how the students have done the tasks than what they have done.	F	-	9	9	-	8	3.3
		%		34.61	34.61		30.77	

As shown in table 1 above, item 4 was designed to explain to what extent communicative tasks have effects on improving students' speaking ability. In response, more than half of the instructors (73%) agreed that the communicative tasks in the course material promote learners' speaking proficiency. Task-based language teaching bases its foundation principle on meaning, not on form. Similarly, more than half of the instructors (61.5%) agreed that the primary focus of the communicative tasks in the course material is meaning (item-2). Willis (1996) states that task based teaching consider language just as a tool for communication. Similarly, instructors' responses show that in task-based language teaching is primarily a means of making meaning.

Instructors' expectations of the final product of speaking are likely to affect their students' focus on the speaking activity. With regarded to the outcomes of the speaking tasks, most of the instructors (73.07%) agreed that there is a clearly defined outcome for tasks (item 3). It is useful to distinguish between the 'outcome' and the 'aim' of a task. 'Outcome' refers to what the learners arrive at when they have completed the task. 'Aim' refers to the pedagogic purpose of the task, which is to elicit meaning focused language. Indeed, it has been argued that it is not task features themselves but rather learner interpretation of task features which determine interactional outcomes (Breen 1987). However, a few instructors (34.61%) agreed to the statement which says 'the outcomes of a task are to be measured by the number of correct answers students produce (item 10). It is true that students can involve in the task process and interpret a task in different ways. As Hosenfeld (1976) pointed out, learners are adroit at redefining activities to suit their own purposes.

Though the majority of the instructors seem to have understanding about theory of task based language teaching in general and the communicative tasks in particular, (34.61%) of the instructors agreed that pattern practice provides a meaningful context to use the target language for speaking. In addition, (34.61%) of the instructors believed that an accomplishment of a task has to be evaluated more by the process in which the students did the task than the end result of the task (item 11). However, it should be noted that in the teaching learning process, what the students do in the task is as important as how they do the task. A task seeks to engage students in using language pragmatically rather than displaying language. As Kumaravadivelu (1991: 99) puts it, tasks 'indicate' the content but 'the actual language to be negotiated in the classroom is left to the teacher and the learner.' In general, the responses obtained from the instructors' questionnaire show instructors' knowledge of the theoretical principles of task-based language teaching.

Category- 2: Knowledge of the Relevance of the Communicative Tasks

The second category focuses on instructors' knowledge about the importance of the communicative tasks in improving students' speaking ability.

Table 2

Knowledge of the Relevance of the Communicative Tasks

No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
12	The communicative tasks assist the students to use the target language outside the classroom.	F		9	6	9	2	2.66
		%		34.61	23.076	34.61	7.7	
13	The communicative tasks in the course material are appropriate for the students to develop their speaking skills.	F		6	8	6	6	2.33
		%		23.076	30.77	23.07	23.07	
14	The communicative tasks encourage students to plan their speaking, since speaking tasks are implemented in phases	F	6	10	6	-	4	3.50
		%	23.07	42.31	23.07		15.38	
15	The communicative tasks improve learners' interaction skills	F		15	5	6	-	2.83
		%		57.69	19.23	23.07		
16		F		9	7	10	-	2.83

	The communicative tasks help students to focus on real world activities	%		34.61	26.92	42.31		
17	It is essential to use task based teaching in the speaking classes.	F	6	9	-	5	6	2.83
		%	23.07	34.61		19.23	23.07	
18	It is difficult to use the communicative tasks in the classroom	F	4	5	6	7	4	3.16
		%	15.38	19.23	23.07	26.92	15.38	
19	It is more important for students to learn rules of the language than its use in the speaking classes	F	-	6	6	7	7	3.66
		%		23.07	23.07	26.92	26.92	
20	It is very important for students to finish the communicative tasks which they are assigned in the classroom.	F		6	4	8	8	3.83
		%		23.07	15.38	30.77	30.77	

As can be seen in table 2 above, (57.68%) of the instructors indicated that it is essential to use tasks in their speaking classes (item 17) because tasks help the students to use the target language outside the classroom (item 12). On the other hand, 33.3% agreed that it is difficult to use tasks in the class. Willis (1996) indicates that task based teaching as a method is challenging when the teacher and/or the students do not have orientations about the method; as a result, students' and /or teachers' participations will be limited. Similarly, about (38.45%) of the instructors agreed that it is very important for students to finish the communicative tasks which they are assigned in the classroom (item 20). 53.83% of the instructors disagreed to the statement "It is more important for students to learn rules of the language than its use in the speaking classes" (item 19). Ellis (2003) and Long (1991) state that, in task based language teaching, there is naturally less concern for use of grammatical accuracy. That is to say, working more on grammatical accuracy inhibits students learning. As the philosophies of task based language teaching is enhancing students' interaction, many instructors 57.69% agreed that the communicative tasks in the course material improve students' pair or group interaction skills (item 15). Interaction is a pivotal element of the task-based teaching which is student-centered.

Category- 3: Knowledge concerning Students' and Instructors' Roles in the Communicative Tasks

The results of the questionnaire in this category deals with indicating the instructors' knowledge of the roles that students and instructors play during the speaking activity.

Table 3

Knowledge concerning Students' and Instructors' Roles in the Communicative Tasks

No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
21	The communicative tasks are based on the student-centered instructional approach.	F %	-	8 30.77	8 30.77	6 23.07	4 15.38	2.83
22	Success in teaching speaking depends more on what the instructor teaches	F %	7 26.92	-	11 42.31	8 30.77	-	3.00
23	The communicative tasks put much burden on instructor	F %	8 30.77	6 23.07	6 23.07	3 11.53	3 15.53	2.63;2
24	The communicative tasks are appropriate to increase students' participation.	F %	-	8 30.77	6 23.07	8 30.77	4 15.38	2.66
25	Most students do not have interest to participate in the speaking activity	F %	7 26.92	8 30.77	-	7 26.92	4 15.38	3.00
26	If instructors do not explain an activity thoroughly first, the students will waste their time	F %	8 30.77	8 30.77	6 23.07	-	4 15.38	2.33
27	Keeping the students focused on their speaking depends more on the material than on the instructor.	F %	6 23.07	6 23.07	4 15.38	8 30.77	2 7.7	3.16
28	Students as negotiator between the self, the learning process and the object of learning can learn independently.	F %	-	7 26.92	5 19.23	8 30.77	6 23.07	2.41

As shown in table 3 above, a few instructors (26.9%) indicated that success in students learning does not depend only on what the instructors teach (item 22). Contrary to their response to item (22), many (61.5%) of the instructors agreed that it is appropriate for the instructors to explain an activity thoroughly first, so that the students can effectively use their time (item 26). The paradox is if the instructors use much of the time for explanation, students are left with little time to use in the classroom.

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

15

One of the central focuses in communicative tasks is students' participations and contributions in the speaking classes. However, 57.69% of the instructors indicated that most students do not participate in the speaking activity (item 25). In principle, effective learning is a result of greater self direction rather than dependence up on the instructor. But about 57.69% of the instructors agreed that the communicative tasks put much burden on them (item 23). Task-based instruction should not be teacher-centered; therefore, it requires commitment on the part of the instructors to help students to participate in the class discussions. If students are notably lacking in these qualities of taking part in the discussions, task-based instruction may indeed be difficult to implement (Krahne 1987). In general, most of the instructors favored more the role of the instructors in teaching than students' role in learning.

Category- 4: Knowledge concerning the Effects of the Communicative Tasks on Confidence

The questionnaire items in this category revealed instructors' knowledge of the effects of the communicative tasks on students' confidences in practicing the speaking.

Table 4

Knowledge concerning the Effects of the Communicative Tasks on Confidence

No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
29	The communicative tasks help students to develop self confidence in speaking	F %	-	9 34.61	6 23.07	11 42.31	-	2.83
30	The communicative tasks foster a relaxed atmosphere to facilitate the target language use.	F %	9 34.61	-	9 34.61	8 30.77	-	3.33
31	Students are not expected to come up with the same answer for communicative tasks, but some students are uncertain about this.	F %	11 42.31	9 34.61	-	6 23.07	-	4.16
32	Students have experiences on how to deal with task based speaking which actually helped them develop confidences in their speaking.	F %	-	7 26.92	13 50	-	6 23.07	2.50

33	Students are confident to work with task-based speaking activities.	F	-	8	4	8	6	2.66
		%		30.77	15.38	30.77	23.07	
34	Teaching students to develop confidences and take responsibility for their own learning is futile since learners are not used to task-based learning approach.	F	-	-	8	9	9	4.16
		%			30.77	34.61	34.61	

In working with communicative task-based speaking activities effectively, experiences of task based teaching/learning are important. With regard to this, the results in table 4 above show that 30.77% of the instructors indicated those students do not have experiences on how to work with task-based speaking (item 32). And many (53.8%) instructors agreed that students do not have confidence to work with task based learning (item 33). But still 50% of the instructors are not sure whether the communicative tasks help students to develop confidences in their speaking ability or not (item 22).

Contrary to what is discussed above, a few instructors (30.77%) agreed that students are confident to work with task-based speaking activities (item 33). However, some (53.77%) of the instructors disagreed that the students are confident to work with task-based speaking activities (item 33). About 69.2% of the instructors agreed that if students are learned on how to work with task-based speaking, they can develop confidence and take responsibility for their own learning (item 34). This shows that the instructors lacked confidence in their students' ability to handle the speaking tasks.

Questionnaire for Students

During this study, there were one hundred and eighty (180) students participated in the research. The students were those assigned and learned in Assosa University for 2021/22. The purpose of the questionnaire was to reveal the instructors' knowledge about communicative task-based in teaching English speaking. The analysis and the results of the students' responses are made as follows.

Category-1: Knowledge concerning Communicative Tasks effects on improving the Teaching of Speaking

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

17

Category one of the students' questionnaires focused on revealing instructors' knowledge of the communicative tasks in helping students to improve their speaking abilities. Accordingly, the results obtained from students are presented in the following table.

Table 5

Knowledge concerning Communicative Tasks effect on improving the teaching of Speaking

Item No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
1	I believe the communicative tasks in the course material enhance my speaking skills	F	16	19	83	35	27	2.83
		%	8.8	10.43	46.1	19.44	15	
2	In working with the communicative tasks in the course material, my instructor is expected to focus on meaning than form of the language.	F	20	23	59	42	36	3.33
		%	10.99	12.63	32.77	23.07	19.79	
3	The communicative tasks in the course material are appropriate to develop knowledge and skill of the language.	F	30	21	57	40	32	4.16
		%	16.5	11.54	31.66	22	15.6	
4	The communicative tasks in the course material are beyond me/student level; therefore, the instructor should provide me other opportunities to improve my speaking.	F	25	25	46	46	38	2.50
		%	13.74	13.74	25.55	25.3	20.87	
5	Success in doing a communicative tasks measured by both how it has been done and what has been done	F	34	22	63	30	30	2.66
		%	18.7	12.64	35	16.5	16.5	
6	Success in learning speaking depends on tasks that instructors can do in the classroom	F	35	38	91	10	6	4.16
		%	17.23	21.1	50	5.5	3.5	
7	Success in learning speaking depends on tasks that my classmates and I do in the classroom	F	20	20	16	60	64	2.83
		%	10.99	10.99	8.88	32.96	35.16	
8	A task in the course material can have different solutions; this helps me to see the task in different perspectives.	F	25	20	26	62	47	3.33
		%	13.73	10.99	14.44	34.44	25.82	

The responses in table 5 above show that a few (23.62%) of the respondents agreed that in working with the communicative tasks they are expected

from their instructor to focus more on meaning than form of the language (item 2). According to Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001), a task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning. On the other hand, 31.34% of the students agreed that success in doing a speaking task is measured by both how kit has been done and what has been done (item 5). However, the majority of the students (60.26%) disagreed that the communicative tasks in the course material can have different answers (item 8). But Richards and Rodgers (2001: 228) suggest that 'tasks are believed to foster processes of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation in second language learning.' Accordingly, the opportunity to modify the solution(s) to a task is the way in which interaction contributes to language learning. Regarding the role of task in facilitating learning, about 40% of the students did not decide whether or not tasks help them to improve their speaking (item 1). This shows that the students are not sure whether or not the communicative tasks help them improve their speaking ability.

Category- 2: Knowledge of the Relevance of the Communicative Tasks

In category two, the questionnaire items were designed to investigate instructors' knowledge the relevance of the communicative tasks in improving their students speaking ability. The results are shown in the following table.

Table 6

Knowledge of the Relevance of the Communicative Tasks

Item No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
9	I think my instructor needs to know well about the language rules before he/she deals with the communicative tasks in the course material.	F	27	60	45	28	20	2.83
		%	14.83	33.33	25	15.38	10.99	
10	The communicative tasks in the course material help me/student think more about my speaking because they are related to real world situation.	F	31	20	57	36	36	2.87
		%	17.03	10.99	31.66	15.38	10.99	
11	The communicative tasks in the course material are appropriate	F	40	39	43	30	28	2.96
		%	21.98	21.43	23.88	16.48	15.4	

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

19

	to develop students' speaking skills							
12	When instructor works to solve difficult tasks in pairs, it helps me think more about my speaking.	F	30	32	20	48	52	2.62
		%	16.48	17.58	10	26.4	28.6	
13	Having time to think about a task helps me think more about my speaking.	F	22	24	37	50	47	2.35
		%	12.08	13.19	20.55	27.47	25.47	
14	My instructor does not know most of the tasks in the course material thus he/she doesn't think he/she can add something new to my earlier knowledge of speaking.	F	40	35	28	40	38	2.81
		%	21.98	19.23	15.55	21.98	20.87	
15	Most of the communicative tasks in the course material are familiar to me; therefore, I am focused on my speaking.	F	22	25	58	37	38	2.79
		%	12.08	13.74	32.2	20.33	20.87	
16	I enjoy doing meaning focused task based speaking better than form focused speaking	F	30	30	50	30	40	2.87
		%	16.48	16.48	27.47	16.48	21.98	
17	Knowledge of the rules of a language does not guarantee the ability to speak in that language.	F	15	20	46	47	52	2.29
			8.24	10.99	25.55	25.82	28.57	

As shown in table 7 above, 48.16% of the students agreed that their instructors need to know well about the rules of the language before they deal with the communicative tasks (item 9). This indicates that the instructors know the language forms should be taught before they engage in the actual speaking activity. In connection with the relevance of the communicative tasks, 31.88 % of the students disagreed that the communicative tasks in the course material are appropriate to develop their speaking (item 11). Moreover, many (52.94%) of the students disagreed that having time to think about a task helps them think more about their speaking (item 13).As it is explained above, the communicative English course material gives opportunity to students to work most of the activities by themselves. If students do not have experience of autonomous learning and are not ready to take responsibility for their own learning, they tend to depend more on their instructor.

Regarding the applicability of the tasks in solving a real world problem, about 28% of the students agreed that the communicative tasks in the course material do not focus on the real world problems (item 10). The students

seem to limit the contributions of the communicative task to the classroom consumption purpose. On the other hand, about 38.46% of the students disagreed that they enjoy learning in task-based speaking (item 16).

Category 3: Knowledge concerning Students' and Instructors' Roles in the Communicative Tasks

In category three, the questionnaire items focus on investigating instructors' and students' roles in using the communicative tasks during English speaking classroom. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 7

Knowledge concerning Students' and Instructors' Roles in the Speaking

Item No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
18	The communicative tasks in the course material give more information for students to practice speaking than instructor's discussion.	F	24	21	38	55	42	2.51
		%	13.19	11.54	21.11	30.22	23.07	
19	The task based speaking encourage instructor-centered discussions	F	59	57	20	26	18	2.51
		%	32.42	31.32	11.1	14.3	9.9	
20	Task oriented speaking enhances students' interaction in the speaking classes.	F	30	42	38	32	38	2.79
		%	16.48	23.08	21.11	17.58	20.88	
21	Success in teaching speaking depends on what the instructor does in the classroom.	F	50	40	28	32	28	2.81
		%	27.77	21.98	15.55	17.58	15.55	
22	I think the tasks in the course material promote independent learning.	F	25	27	45	40	43	2.74
		%	13.74	14.84	25	21.98	23.62	
23	The communicative tasks in the course material are appropriate to work with other students in the classroom.	F	41	43	26	40	30	2.92
		%	22.53	23.63	14.44	21.98	16.97	
24	I do best when my instructor is taught as a whole class.	F	32	36	36	36	40	2.98
		%	17.58	19.79	19.79	19.79	21.98	

Students can contribute a lot to their learning if they are familiar with the method of learning. In table 7 above, the students responses in connection with task familiarity show, many (53.29%) of the students agreed that they do not know how to work with the communicative tasks in the course

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

21

material (item 18). And about 49.75 % of the respondents agreed that success in learning to speak depends on what the instructor does in the classroom (item 21). But some scholars state that learning is not so much a matter of taking in and possessing of knowledge but rather of the taking part in activities (Ellis, 2003, p. 176).

About 24.2% of the students disagreed that much time is given to the instructors than the students (item 19). Unquestionably, instructor's involvement in the teaching process, unless it distracts students learning, is essential for initiating learning activities, setting standards, assessing performances, and providing some forms of feedback. Stevick (1996) writes "the more the teacher talks and explains the less internal work the learner is likely to do." Contrary to the principles of task based learning, about 45.6% of the students do not agree that the communicative tasks promote independent learning (item 22).

Category 4: Knowledge concerning the Effects of the Communicative Tasks on Confidence

The questionnaire items in category four were prepared to explore instructors' knowledge of the effects of the communicative tasks on their confidence of speaking ability. The results of the responses are discussed as follows.

Table 8
Knowledge concerning the Effects of the Communicative Tasks on Confidence

Item No	Statement		SA (5)	A (4)	U (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Mean
25	The communicative tasks help me to plan for my speaking.	F	19	27	-	60	74	2.46
		%	10.44	14.83		32.97	41.1	
26	Having freedom to explore topics in class helps me think more about the speaking task	F	20	39	35	45	41	2.94
		%	10.99	21.43	19.44	24.72	22.53	
27	The speaking tasks in the course material provide me room to decide on how to arrive at the outcomes of the task	F	30	30	33	43	44	3.01
		%	16.48	16.48	18.33	23.63	24.17	
28	I gained confidence in my ability to speak because of the tasks in the course material.	F	22	28	58	34	38	2.92
		%	12.08	15.4	32.2	18.68	20.88	

| 29 | My earlier experiences about tasks helped me to speak better. | F | 18 9.9 | 19 10.44 | 13 7.2 | 74 40.66 | 56 30.77 | 2.42 |
| 30 | I am confused about what and how to do the tasks in the course material. | F % | 49 26.92 | 56 30.77 | 23 12.77 | 28 15.4 | 24 13.19 | 2.85 |

Students' contribution to their own speaking starts from participating in the pre-speaking (planning) stage. In relation to this, the results of students' response in table 8 above show that a few (35.27%) of the students agreed that the communicative tasks helped them to plan for their speaking (item 25). And 47.25% of the students disagreed that having freedom to explore topics in class helped them think more about the communicative task (item 26). But the literature about task based-teaching shows that communicative task-based speaking promotes students' ability to frame and modify topics for the speaking tasks.

Concerning the effects of the communicative tasks on developing the students' confidence in their speaking abilities, 39.56% of the students disagreed and 32.97% of the respondents did not decide that they gained confidence in their ability to speak (item 28). Moreover, many (57.69%) of the students agree that they have problems in deciding what and how to do the speaking tasks in the course material (item 30) because they do not have experience of task-based learning.

Analysis of Instructors' and Students' Responses to Communicative Tasks Practice in Classroom

The purpose of the questionnaire was mainly to examine and obtain information on what the instructors are to say about their classroom practices of communicative tasks.

Table 9

Frequency, Percentage and Mean of Responses for Classroom Practice

No	Statement	F	A 5	O 4	ST 3	R 2	N 1	Mean
1	Introduce the new language item in context and demonstrate the use and meaning of the new language	F %	9 34.61	9 34.61	8 30.77	-	-	4.00
2	Involve students in planning the task they are going to do.	F %	-	5 19.23	7 26.93	10 38.46	4 15.38	2.50

No.	Statement							Mean
3	Before engaging students in doing the speaking exercises, Explaining new grammatical terminologies or forms and patterns (rules).	F	9	12	5	-	-	1.91
		%	34.61	46.16	19.23			
4	Letting students do the speaking exercises in the course material after new words and phrases are discussed.	F	8	10	5	3	-	2.16
		%	30.77	38.46	19.23	11.54		
5	Use instructor- led classroom discussion.	F	9	11	2	4	-	2.25
		%	34.61	42.30	7.7	15.38		
6	Impart (demonstrate) knowledge through activities such as explanation, speaking and giving examples.	F	3	4	8	8	6	2.83
		%	11.54	15.38	30.77	30.77	23.07	
7	Encourage and involve students to find the contextual meaning of the new language items.	F	2	4	-	12	7	1.83
		%	7.7	15.38		46.16	26.92	
8	Involve students in pair and group works.	F	3	3	9	8	3	2.91
		%	11.54	11.54	34.61	30.77	11.54	
9	Help students to correct their error in pair and group discussion.	F	5	4	8	6	3	2.91
		%	19.23	15.38	30.77	23.08	11.54	
10	Correct students' error in controlled practice activities like question and answer.	F	6	8	9	3	-	2.41
		%	23.08	30.77	34.61	11.54		
11	Evaluate students in paper and pencil test (in terms or semesters).		7	8	6	5	-	2.16
			26.92	30.77	23.08	19.23		
12	Evaluate students' progress on the basis of their day to day communicative performance	F	2	3	9	7	5	2.83
		%	7.7	11.54	34.61	26.92	19.23	

As can be seen from the above table, 34.61% and 46.16 % of the respondents indicated that they practiced "explanation of new grammatical terms, forms and rules" ' always' and 'often' respectively (Item 3). And also, the response for item 4 shows that 30.77 % 'always', and 38.46% 'often" practice explanation of new words or phrases. This means, about 69.2 % of the respondents knew that they use 'explanation of new words or phrases' 'always' and 'often'. Similarly, 34.61% and 42.30% of the respondents indicated that they practiced 'always' and 'often' respectively use instructor- led classroom discussion (item 5.) Contrary to the principles of communicative task, 7.7% and 15.38% of the instructors agreed that they practice 'always' and 'often' encourage and involve students in finding the contextual meaning of the new language items (item 7). This implies that the majority of the class discussions were done through information transmission/ instructors-centered approach to teaching.

The responses to items 10 and 11 about error correction and mode of assessment are stated as follows. 23.08% and 30.77% of the instructors indicated that they correct students' error in controlled practice activities (item 10) 'nearly always' and 'often' respectively. And, 26.92% and 30.77% of the respondents indicated that they evaluate students' language performance using paper and pencil tests- on semesters or terms 'always' and 'often' respectively (item 11). But, 7.7% and 11.54% of the instructors affirmed that they evaluate students' progress on the basis of their day to day communicative performance (item 12) 'always' and 'often' respectively. This implies that most of the instructors did not practice continues assessment. Generally, the data obtained from the instructors in connection with their classroom practice shows that contrary to their knowledge of communicative task-based language teaching, most instructors tend to favor using instructors fronted or the traditional ways of EFL teaching.

Table 10

Frequency, Percentage and Mean of Students' Responses for Classroom Practice

Item No.	Statement	A 5	O 4	ST 3	R 2	N 1	Mean
1	My instructor is involved in telling the meanings of the new language items in context to demonstrate the use of 'the new language	30 16.66	28 15.55	37 20.55	42 23.33	43 23.88	2.33
2	He/she plans for the task I am going to do	25 13.74	28 15.55	33 18.13	44 24.18	50 27.47	2.48
3	He/she gives much time for grammatical and patterns (rules) discussions.	60 32.98	42 23.076	18 9.9	30 16.66	30 16.66	2.96
2.4	He/she searches for the meanings of the new words in dictionary to do the exercises in the course material.	38 20.88	38 20.88	43 23.88	30 16.66	31 17.03	2.85
5	He/she focuses more on accuracy during the communicative tasks	36 20	36 20	46 25.55	32 17.77	30 16.66	2.75
6	He/she teaches more through self-engaged learning than he/she teaches through instructor explanations and discussions	37 20.55	35 19.4	26 14.4	37 20.55	45 25	3.83

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

25

							Mean
7	He/she tries out the contextual meaning of the new language items.	25 13.88	25 13.88	35 19.4	49 27.2	46 25.55	2.37
8	He/she participates in pair and group works.	36 20	38 21.1	40 22.2	40 22.2	26 14.4	3.11
9	He/she corrects errors in pair and group discussion.	15 8.3	20 11.1	40 22.2	51 28.3	54 30	2.00
10	He/she focuses on correcting errors in controlled practice activities.	54 30	50 27.77	35 19.4	20 11.1	21 11.66	2.46
11	He/she disregards his classmates' comments during feedback session.	62 34.4	60 33.3	30 16.66	13 7.22	15 8.3	2.09
12	He/she judges his progress on the basis of his day to day performance	20 11.1	20 11.1	30 16.6	60 33.3	50 27.77	2.22

As shown in the above table, 20.55%, 23.33% and 23.88% of the students respondents indicated that their instructors involve them in finding contextual meaning of the language item they are using in their speaking (items 1) ' some times', rarely' and 'never' respectively. Similarly, about 18.13%, 24.18% and 27.47% of the students agreed that they plan for the tasks they are to do (item 2) 'some times', rarely' and 'never' respectively. The results of items 1 and 2 indicate that most of the students depend on their instructors in finding the meanings of new words in the speaking exercises, thus much of the class discussions are dominated by the instructors.

Regarding their speaking, 20%, 20% and 25.55% of the students indicated that they focus more on accuracy than fluency (item 5), 'always', 'often' and 'some times' respectively. Similarly, 30%, 27.77% and 19.4% of the students focus on correcting errors in controlled practice activities (Items 10) 'always', 'often' and 'some times' respectively. This shows that most of the students give much of their time to learn about the forms of the language. In response to questions asked to access their efforts for cooperative learning, 20%, 21.1% and 23.3% of the students indicated that they participate in pair and group works 'always', 'often' and 'some times' respectively' (item 8). And 34.4%, 33.3% and 16.66% of the students agreed that they disregard their classmates' comments during the speaking classes (item 11) 'always', 'often' and 'some times' respectively. This shows that students lack confidences and are hesitant about their classmates' ability to contribute for learning.

Correlation

Correlation coefficient is usually used to find the relation between different variables. Either Pearson or Spearman rank order correlation can be applied depending on the type of data. In this study Spearman rank order correlation was preferred to Pearson correlation because the data is non-parametric. Moreover, the responses given to each questionnaire item was ranked among1 to 5 in accordance with the magnitude of the response. Then the average mean values, the standard deviations and variances of the variable under the study were analyzed and discussed. The results of both knowledge and practices, obtained from the instructions' questionnaire are correlated with the results of the students are discussed as follows.

Summary of Instructors' and Students' Knowledge of Communicative Tasks

The following tables show the summary results of instructors' and students' knowledge of communicative tasks in teaching English speaking. The discussions of the summaries are presented based on the classifications (categories) of knowledge made earlier. The summary of each category is presented as follows.

Table 11

Summary of knowledge concerning the effects of communicative task on improving the teaching-learning of speaking skills

Respondents	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	
Instructors	3.61	0.8215	0.058	Remarks
Students	2.84	0.5172	0.155	

Table 11 shows that the results and relationships between instructors' and students' questionnaire on knowledge of the effects of communicative tasks on improving students' speaking. As shown in the above table, the mean average knowledge rate for instructors is higher than the average mean scores of students. The variation between instructors and students shows a big difference in general. This could be because of the teacher awareness about communicative tasks principles. The instructors might use most of the time teacher-fronted method and change their knowledge about task-based speaking. In general, instructors have better understanding

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

27

about the contributions of the communicative tasks in improving students' speaking ability. However, students have no more understanding and awareness about communicative tasks.

Table 12

Knowledge of the relevance of the speaking tasks

Respondents	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Remarks
Instructors	3.07	0.5432	0.136	
Students	2.73	0.5117	0.255	

Table 12 compares instructors' and students' knowledge of the relevance of the speaking tasks. As shown in the table, the mean average of the knowledge of the instructors and the students is different. This implies that unlike the students, the instructors have favorable knowledge about the importance of the communicative tasks in helping students to improve their speaking. However, they did not apply what they know in English speaking classroom

Table 13

Summary of knowledge concerning students' and instructors' roles in the communicative tasks

Respondents	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance
Instructors	2.90	0.5313	0.261
Students	2.75	0.5122	0.254

Table 13 shows the average means for instructors and students are different. The variation from the mean is the different for instructors and students. This shows that both groups have different knowledge of students' and instructors' roles in the speaking classes. The results indicate that the instructors' and students' knowledge of their roles in the speaking classes diverge. Therefore, the results above reveal that the students need awareness which bring changes in their knowledge about their roles in communicative tasks.

Table 14

Summary of knowledge concerning the effects of the communicative tasks on confidence

Respondents	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance
Instructors	3.27	0.6123	0.111
Students	2.70	0.5020	0.234

In table 14, the results of the average means for instructors' and students' knowledge concerning the effect of the communicative tasks on confidence show differences among the respondents. The difference is relatively big between instructors and the students. This indicates that the students' and instructors' knowledge about the effect of the communicative tasks on confidence mismatches. The likely effect of this mismatch in knowledge can reflect on the classroom practice.

Correlation of instructors' and students' classroom practice

Table 15

Summary of classroom practice

Respondents	Mean	Standard deviation	Variance	Remark
Instructors	2.56	0.5004	0.242	
Students	2.68	0.5013	0.251	

Table 15 shows the average mean value of the students is higher than the mean values of instructors. This indicates that the students' improved knowledge contributed to their relatively better classroom practices.

Table 16

Summary of Coefficient of correlation between instructors' knowledge and practice

Variables	N	Mean	STD.D	R	r2	P
Knowledge of the communicative tasks	15	3.17	0.6117			
Practices of the communicative tasks	15	2.56	0.5004	0.414	0.17	0.181

Table 16 shows that r = 0.41, P-value is 0.18. The result indicates that the relationship between instructors' knowledge and practices is positive and

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

29

weak. There is no significant relationship between instructors' knowledge and practice since the p value is greater than 0.05. Therefore, instructors' knowledge and practices of the communicative tasks mismatch.

Table 17

Summary of' Coefficient of correlation between knowledge and practices students

Variables	N	Mean	STD.D	R	r2	P
Knowledge of the communicative tasks	50	2.80	0.5107	0.91	0.82	0.03
Practices of the communicative tasks	50	2.68	0.5013			

Table 17 shows that r = 0.91 and P-value is 0.03. This means that the relationship is strong and statistically significant ((p<0.05). It shows that there is little difference between what they think and do about the communicative tasks. Therefore, there is significant relationship between the students' knowledge and practices.

So far the results of the questionnaire about instructors' and students' knowledge and practices of the communicative tasks were discussed. The results show, the knowledge and practices of the students match, but the instructors' knowledge and practices mismatch.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion of the study focuses on answers to the questions raised under the statement of the problem and the summary of the research finding. Accordingly, each question is discussed as follows:

What is instructors' knowledge toward the communicative tasks instructions?

Ideally, almost all instructors agreed on the importance of communicative task instructions in improving the students' speaking abilities. Accordingly, the instructors indicated in their responses to the questionnaire that communicative task instructions were relevant to enhance students' speaking. Moreover, many of the instructors agreed that most of the tasks in the course material were appropriate to teach speaking. However, they tended to conclude that most students were unable to participate in the speaking task because of their inability to speak. In addition, the instructors

were complaining that students were not willing to take responsibility for their speaking. However, an interesting experience drawn from the instructors' knowledge is a context dilemma. Instructors should not consider students' speaking inability only as a constraint but also as opportunity. Accordingly, they should help students to cope up with the demands of task-based speaking.

It would be a mistake to assume that problems associated with task-based speaking cited by instructors and students as fundamental weaknesses of tasks. In fact the weakness lie on the instructors' approaches to implement task based teaching. In some cases instructors tried to make the students suitable to the method they are using rather than making the method suitable to the students. This means, the instructors focus on imposing their teaching philosophy on the students rather than focusing on how to help students improve their speaking. The literature about the history of language teaching shows that any language teaching method in use can be effective only if it is adapted to a given teaching/learning situation (context).

It's important to notice here that task as an instructional method is more than just giving activities to students and evaluating their performance. More importantly, the instructor, who wants to implement speaking tasks successfully, is required to have sufficient knowledge and commitment to practice the tasks.

What pedagogical orientation (communicative or traditional) do instructors use in the practice of communicative tasks?

Most of the instructors agreed that task-based language teaching enhances students' learning but they practiced instructor fronted teaching during the speaking classes. This conflicting knowledge and practice have adverse result on students' speaking ability. For example, one of the many weaknesses of instructor-fronted classroom discussions is that much of the class time is used by the instructor which actually is against the principle of task-based speaking. In other words, the students are given less time to practice speaking.

Unless students are given opportunities to speak by themselves and develop confidence in their speaking ability, they always think that they are unable to speak. This is reflected by the challenge posed from loss of

An Investigation of EFL Teachers' Knowledge and Pedagogical Practices of Communicative Tasks in Teaching English Speaking Skills: Assosa University in Focus

31

confidence in their speaking. Similarly, almost all the students lacked orientations about task-based learning. This lack of orientations limited them to appreciate instructor-centered discussions where they depend more on what their instructor does on the structure of the language. And one of the weaknesses of form focused learning is that it does not encourage holistic approach in the speaking process because students are mostly focused on the language items than the speaking context.

Do instructors' knowledge of communicative tasks match with their practice?

The result of this study shows that most of the instructors were ambivalent in using and practicing task-based speaking in the class. The paradoxical disparities that exist between what instructors know and profess and what they actually practice in the EFL classroom resulted in poor performance of task-based speaking. Many of the instructors were strongly inclined to change the task-based method and make it fit their own personal blend of methodological beliefs which actually is instructors-centered teaching.

The overall findings of this study reveal that despite an understanding of task based teaching concepts, many instructors developed fear of adopting tasks as an instructional method. One of the instructors' reasons to avoid implementing task based teaching was their students' inability. As stated above most instructors in the study believed that their students' low speaking ability was a barrier to the implementation of the task based speaking. Though the students' inability is a factor, there is a possibility to argue that such views may also be prompted by instructors' dilemma and misconceptions in making the students aware about task-based speaking concepts. And the mismatch between instructors' knowledge and practices of task-based speaking can partly be attributed to the need of instructors to continue with their own preferred teaching method.

The results about students' knowledge and practices show that they did not have experiences about task-based teaching principles. Thus, the instructors were in favor of instructor-fronted teaching. On the other hand, the students preferred deductive (top-down) approach to the learning of speaking where the grammatical rules for speaking are explained through instructor-directed discussions. This tendency of depending more on instructor did not help them much to improve their speaking and to

develop confidence in their speaking ability. However, the students had interest to develop their knowledge on task-based speaking. As a result, they have shown interests to take responsibility for their speaking and they gradually developed confidences in their speaking. This indicates that if students are given the necessary support in their speaking classes, they can bring changes in their speaking abilities. Therefore, though supporting students to develop favorable knowledge towards task-based speaking is a challenge, it is essential and attainable.

The researcher believes that it is dangerous to assume that task based teaching/ learning is a perfect one-size-fit all kinds of students and can just be applied to every corner of the world. Problems can stem from instructors' knowledge and practices of task based speaking. Therefore, we cannot ignore that problems can and do occur as we export methodologies across contexts. It is our responsibility, as instructors, to make our students aware of this. Students who do not have orientations about task-based learning avoid participating in task-based activities. This may result from their lack of confidence in performing tasks. That is why it is necessary for the instructors to help students build confidence by encouraging them to learn how to deal with tasks and use collaborative skills in task-based performance.

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Authors' Contributions:

Melkamu Gari: Collection of data, analyze and the interpretation of data and production of the manuscript was done by him.

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INSTRUCTORS' COMPETENCE IN ENGLISH PHONICS AND OUTCOME ON INSTRUCTION AND READING SKILLS OF PUPILS IN BUEA AND YAOUNDÉ, CAMEROON

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Abstract

This paper looks at lower primary instructor's competence in English phonics and outcome on phonics instruction and reading skills of pupils. The instrument used for data collection was a a pre- test before a pedagogic workshop on the teaching of phonics to lower primary school instructors in Buea and Yaounde to find out the teachers' level in phonics and establish whether the teachers had the need for the workshop. Through the use of a five item test, the instrument was administered and data elicited from some primary one and two teachers in said towns in Cameroon. A total number of 43 teachers took the test in Buea while 48 others sat for the test in Yaoundé making a total of 91 teachers. Findings showed some teachers lack of competence in key issues in phonics such as sound blending, sound segmentation and sound identification and counting which will obviously produces a negative learning outcome and impact reading skills of pupils they are teaching.

Keywords: Instructors, competence, phonics instruction, outcome, reading skills.

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INTRODUCTION

The problem most higher primary school pupils encounter (class 3 to 5) in Cameroon that contributes to their poor achievement in tests and examinations in all subjects is knowing how to read the notes given them in English by their teachers and understand them, read and understand the tests and exams questions. In the course of observing English language lessons in primary four and five in Buea and Yaounde, I discovered that most pupils are still struggling in reading; a skill which they were expected to have acquired in lower primary level of education. This observation served as a pushing factor for me to go further and see where the problem is coming from by investigating lower primary school teachers' competence in phonics which has a direct link with their teaching and learners mastery of reading.

Reading as a concept in modern education forms the base of all educational activities. Modern society deems the ability to read as one of the most requisite skills to succeed at school and in the workplace. Several researchers have attest to the importance of pupils acquiring phonics and reading skills early in life and the importance of reading in all academic attainments (Pretorius & Machet, 2004; Klapwijk, 2011; Thrupp, 2013). According to McDonough and Shaw (1994:101), "reading is the most important and fruitful foreign language skill to teach, particularly in the case where students have to read English material for their own specialist subjects but may never actually have to speak the language". Many researchers have emphasized the primodial link between reading skills and success in life (Cimmiyotti, 2013; Shoebottom, 2007; Al-Dress, 2008). The best way of introducing pupils to reading is through phonics instruction (explicit teaching about individual letter sound correspondences, their sequences including spelling patterns, and the pronunciation of corresponding sounds) which begins at the early primary level of education. No wonder why several researchers (Perfetti 1985; Stanovich 1980; Chall, 1967; Bond and Dykstra, 1967) assert that, the development of good reading comprehension depends on transmission of phonics skills to children and beginning learners.

However, the success of pupils in phonics and subsequent reading primordially depends on the classroom instruction through the teachers'

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

39

role in helping students to improve in reading, and ability to effectively pronounce, articulate and read.   A teacher's knowledge of phonics has a strong effect on his/her ability to teach phonics and reading and pupil's ability in reading (Carroll, 1990; Moats, 1995; Azikiwe, 2007; Rasinki, 2010) at the lower primary level. It enables the instructor to choose the best examples for instruction, to provide focused instruction, and to better understand students' reading errors in relation to developing language skills.

In line with the above, this study looks at the competence of lower primary school teachers in phonics and its impact on phonics instruction and reading skills of their target learners. The questions guiding this research are what are some of the difficulties lower primary school teachers may encounter in English phonics and what is the impact on phonics instruction and reading skills of primary school pupils in the target schools? This study is based on the premise that some lower primary school teachers show a poor mastery of some basic concepts in English phonics which constitute a challenge when teaching phonics in the primary school which hunts the students in reading.

A number of studies have been conducted around the world on challenges in handling phonics instruction at the lower primary grade and requires review to show their point of convergence and departure from this study thereby revealing the originality of the current study. Mubanga, (2010) carried out a study on the nature and prevalence of reading and writing difficulties in English language in grade two and findings revealed some difficulties in letter-identification from Mbala basic school among grade two learners. He further stated that learners had difficulties in differentiating letters such as 'b' and 'd', 'p' and 'q', 'e' and the digit '6'. In the same light, Swanepoel cited by Mubanga opines that when a phonological awareness deficiency is identified as a contributor to a pupil's reading and spelling difficulties, it is a relief because it is a trainable system that can be taught and practiced in the early stages of reading development that will undoubtedly improves reading and spelling systems. Mwambazi (2011) worked on the causes and the nature of the low reading achievement by grade two pupils in some basic schools in Zambia. The study confirmed that grade two pupils were not reading according to their grade level as very few learners were able to identify letters in terms of initial and ending

sounds. A study conducted by Mulenga, (2012) to assess grade three learners preparedness for the Read On Course (ROC) under the Primary Reading Programme (PRP) in reading/writing in Bemba (a local languages spoken in Zambia) as a first Language. The study showed that most learners faced a number of difficulties in reading/writing in Grade three when English and Bemba (a local language) are taught simultaneously. Findings depict that most learners in Grade three including some that had supposedly broken through by the end of Grade two were not able to read/write at the expected level. Mwanamukubi (2013) worked on the reading difficulties in grade six pupils and challenges encountered by teachers in teaching reading. Findings indicated that reading failure was mainly caused by failure to acquire phonological awareness and skills in alphabetic coding also confirmed by Mando (2008). This study push further by investigating if the failure in acquiring alphabetic coding skills may be due to the instructor's poor mastery of phonics.

Laohawiriyanon (2014) investigated the effects of systematic remedial phonics instruction on the improvement of pronunciation, spelling and reading comprehension skills. Results showed that systematic remedial phonics instruction could help improve the learners' pronunciation, spelling, and reading comprehension skills. However, remedial phonics instruction can only help when the instructor shows a complete mastery of phonics. That is where this current researcher departs from the earlier study. Kamalata (2016) and Nanchengwa (2016) revealed that phonics instructors need to have a lot of teaching/learning materials so that every learner can hold a book or be able to see from the chart what the teachers are talking about for reading phonics instructors to succeed. Tembo (2016) in the same light revealed the role of teaching materials in providing guidance to phonic instructors teaching initial reading skills and learning material on what to teach and consequently learners are able to grasp the concepts easily. The vitality of teaching aids cannot be underestimated in transmitting knowledge on phonics to lower primary pupils although this study does not focus on it. Mulenga et al (2020) investigated the challenges teachers encounter in teaching reading Phonic and Sight words with focus on fourth grade learners in some selected primary schools of Lusaka district in Zambia. Through a survey research design, both quantitative and

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

41

qualitative data were collected from teachers and fourth grade pupils. Findings revealed that the abscond of some pupils from phonics classes in the early days of their grade one where early reading was introduced, over enrolment, no attention given to learners with learning difficulties, and the shortage of appropriate quality teaching and learning materials for early grade reading were responsible for the challenges in teaching the target concepts.

The Levin Committee (2000) and the Shimron Committee (2002) investigated methods for fostering oral and written Language skills in preschool and Kindergarten age children and ways to reform reading instruction in the primary school grades respectively. Both committees hold that key components in literacy acquisition were phonetic awareness and alphabet recognition and recommended instruction in both concepts.

Thembi and Anne (2022) investigated the difficulties experienced by grade 3 teachers in full-service school encounter in supporting young pupils struggling with reading and identified problems such as unconditional promotion from grade 2 to grade 3 without any level in reading, overcrowded classes, lack of enough readers, poor reading attitude, lack of knowledge about diverse learning style and lack of parental support. Amani and Ligembe (2022) assessed the phonological awareness skills in reading English language among primary school pupils in Bunda, Tanzania. Guided by the interactive theory, findings showed that pupils in the public primary schools and some English medium schools express low phonological awareness skills at the level of pronouncing words with consonant clusters, decoding diagraphs, recognizing silent sounds and decoding words with irregular grapheme phoneme correspondences. The study proposes that pupils will excel more in learning phonological skills if teachers employ phonics strategies such as segmentation, blending, substitution, deletion, rhyming games and corporative teaching pairing teachers of two different schools. The above study assesses pupils' phonological awareness skills while this study moves a step behind in taking interest in teachers' phonological competence and how it impact learners reading skills.

This present study underscores its originality in assessing lower primary school teachers' competence in some phonics strategies listed above and

more as opposed to the previous studies which focuses on pupils. Furthermore, previous literature that had to do with teachers was limited to primary school teachers pedagogic skills in supporting pupils struggling in phonics while this study traces back the instructor's mastery of phonics which might play negatively on phonics instruction. Furthermore, findings from literature reviewed on challenges encountered by teachers in phonics instruction were based on experiences from different parts of the world and not in Cameroon. Therefore, it was relevant and imperative that a study was conducted in Cameroon to gather empirical evidence pertaining to the subject matter.

This paper opens with an introduction which covers the problem, objectives, research questions and hypothesis, literature review and structure of the study. It will be followed by the methodology, results and discussions and ends with a conclusion. The conclusion will cover recommendations and suggestions for further research.

METHODOLOGY

A survey research design was used. The population of this study were primary one and two teachers of Buea and Yaoundé. Through purposive and convenient sampling, a total number of 43 teachers took the test in Buea while 48 others sat for the test in Yaounde making a total of 91 teachers. The reason for choosing this level is because this is where the teaching of phonics is mostly done and if pupils are not appropriately taught, they will likely never master phonics and it will play negatively on their reading skills on the one hand and on the other hand on their entire academic performances. The table below gives a picture of the different primary schools in Buea and Yaounde where the teachers came from.

Table 1

Sample population for the study

Schools	Sampled number of teachers
Government Primary Schools Bonduma-Boboko, in Buea.	10
Government Primary Schools Bokama in Buea	13
Government Primary Schools Tiko in Buea	9
Government Primary Schools Buea Town	12

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

43

Government Primary School Bastos 1, Yaoundé.	12
Government Primary School Bastos 2, Yaoundé.	10
Government Bilingual Primary School Etougebe	11
Government Bilingual Primary School Biyemassi	14
Total	91
Percentage (%)	100

The instrument used for data collection was a test and precisely a pre- test before a pedagogic workshop on the teaching of phonics to find out the teachers' level in phonics and establish whether the teachers had the need for the workshop. The 2018 workshop was for primary school teachers of some selected primary schools of the above-mentioned localities to enhance their knowledge of phonics teaching in Cameroon. The test paper consisted of closed ended questions whereby teachers were only allowed to choose answers from the options provided concerning consonant blends, importance of word blending, importance of word segmentation and open-ended questions whereby they had to say the words and later count the sounds that those words contained.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section presents the results and generates discussions based on the four items test administered to the target teachers. It focuses on teachers' ability in identifying consonant blends, teachers' ability in knowing the importance of blending, teachers' ability in knowing the importance of sound segmentation and teachers' ability in identifying and counting sounds in words.

Teachers' identification of consonant blends

Teachers' competence in phonics and precisely consonant blends impacts effective teaching and reading outcomes. That is why during the test, teachers were tested on their skills in identifying consonant blends. This is the list of consonant blends that were to be selected among words and other sounds: cl, br, str. The table below gives us the performances of teachers in terms of consonant blends identification.

Table 2.

Statistical score on identification of consonant blends

Identification of consonant blends	Correct Answer		Wrong answer		Total	
	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde

Respondents	23	26	20	19	43	45
Percentage	53.49	60.42	46.51	39.58	100	100
Total percentage		56.95		43.05		100

Results above shows that in Buea, out of 43 teachers only, 23(53.49%) provided a complete correct answer to the question while 20(46.51%) teachers provided wrong answers and. In Yaounde, out of 48 teachers who responded to the question, 29 (60.42%) pass while 19 (39.58%) fail. Here, it is important to note that some of the teachers who fall under the category of wrong answers were able to identify a single answer out of a total of three answers and thus fall under the category of those who failed. Generally, it is important to note that the percentage of teachers who were not able to identify consonant blends in Yaounde and Buea stands at 39.58% and 46.51% respectively making a total of 43.04% giving us the possibility to assume that they will not be able to teach it appropriately to lower primary pupils and thus, it will impact their reading skills at the early secondary level. Further assumptions that can be made from the above results is that, the teachers who failed will impact the teaching and learning outcomes which can lead to mislearning.

Teachers' knowledge on the importance of blending to children

This section was a follow-up question from above with the aim of testing teachers' knowledge on the importance of blending to children. The teachers were given two options to choose the most appropriate which were; "enable children to read words" and "enable children to write words". The table below gives us teachers' performance in Buea and Yoaunde.

Table 3

Statistical score on knowledge of the importance of sound blending to children

Importance of sound blending to children	Correct Answer		Wrong answer		Total	
	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde
Respondents	36	41	7	7	43	48
Percentage	83.72	85.42	16.28	14.58	100	100
Total percentage		84.57		15.43		100

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

45

Statistics indicates that in Buea, out of 43 teachers who responded to the test question, 36 (83.72%) pass while 7 (16.28%) fail. In Yaounde, out of 48 teachers who sat for the test, it is clearly seen that 41 (84.42%) pass while 7 (14.58%) fail. Generally, the failure rate of the both locations stands at 15.43%. From the percentage gotten above, we can say that the teachers who were unable to identify the importance of word blending to children will likely not raise awareness of the reason for teaching pupils sound blending and thus find it difficult to set the right learning outcome of that lesson. Such a teacher might not be able to motivate pupils to acquire skills in blending since their teacher might find it difficult to raise awareness on the importance of this concept to learners thus an increase in the low standard of reading exercised by learners in these regions.

Teachers' knowledge on the importance of sound segmentation to children

This section dealt with teachers' knowledge on the importance of sound segmentation to children. This was the third question of the test administered to teachers. The question requested to know what segmenting or sounding would help the children to do and answers were proposed for teachers to choose the appropriate option. These options were; a) to read words, b) to write words and c) others. The statistics will be presented on the table below:

Table 4

Statistical score on knowledge of the importance of sound segmentation to children

Importance of sound blending to children	Correct Answer		Wrong answer		Total	
	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde	Buea	Yaounde
Respondents	43	48	0	0	43	48
Percentage	100	100	0	0	100	100
Total percentage	100		0		100	

Statistics shows that this question was a favourable one given that all the 43 and 48 teachers in Buea and Yaounde provided correct answers giving a total percentage pass of 100. So, if all the teachers were aware of the fact that segmenting or sounding enable the children to read, it means that they will likely raise awareness of the reason for teaching pupils' sound segmentation or sounding and set the right learning outcome when

teaching such a concept. Such teachers might be very motivated to teach sound segmentation since they know the importance thus an increase in the standard of reading of learners which will be manifested by their target young learners.

Teachers' ability in identifying and counting the number of sounds in words

Question four of the test was meant to test the ability of teachers in identifying and counting the number of sounds in words. This question carried seven words and numbered from A to G. The word A had 3 sounds, B had 4 sounds, C had 5 sounds, D had 3 sounds, E had 4 sounds, F had 2 sounds and G had 9 sounds. These words were; 'cat', 'sleep', 'sister', 'moon', 'clap', 'in' and 'helicopter'. The table below shows the number and percentage of teachers who responded correctly to this question.

Table 5

Statistical score on counting and identifying the number of sounds in words

Counting and identifying the number of sounds in words.	Respondents		Correct answer		Percentage		Wrong answer		Percentage	
	Buea	Y'de	Buea	Y'de	Buea	Y'de	Buea	Y'de	Buea	Y'de
A	43	48	32	34	74.42	70.83	11	14	25.58	29.17
B	43	48	15	14	34.89	29.17	28	34	65.11	70.83
C	43	48	28	05	65.12	10.42	15	43	34.88	89.58
D	43	48	34	34	79.07	70.83	9	14	20.93	29.17
E	43	48	16	09	37.21	18.75	27	39	62.79	81.25
F	43	48	36	38	83.72	79.17	7	10	16.28	20.83
G	43	48	11	08	25.58	16.67	32	40	74.42	83.33
TOTAL	43× 7 =301	48× 7 =336	172	142	57.14 %	42.26 %	129	194	42.86 %	57.74 %

It is important to note that Y'de on the table above stands for Yaounde. Results show that for question 4A in Buea, out of the 43 teachers who sat for the test, 32 opted for a correct answer giving a percentage of 21 (74.42%)

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

47

pass and 11 (25.58%) fail. Question 4B show that 15 (34.89%) teachers pass and 28 teachers (65.11%) fail. Question 4C presented 28 (65.12%) pass and 15 (34.88%) fail. For 4D, 34 (79.07%) pass and 09 (20.93%) fail. 4E shows that 16 (37.21%) teachers responded correctly and 27(62.79%) responded wrongly. Question 4F had a total number of 36(83.72%) teachers with correct answers and 07(16.28%) wrong answers. Lastly, for the 4G, only 11(25.58%) teachers could provide the correct answer and 32(74.42%) wrong answers.

In Yaounde, results show that for question 4A, out of the 48 teachers who sat for the test, 34(70.83%) opted for a correct answer and 14(29.17%) teachers proposed wrong answers. Question 4B shows that, 14 (29.17%) teachers passed while 34 teachers (70.83%) failed. Question 4C presented 5 (10.42%) correct answers while 43(89.58%) of them were wrong. The 4D portion of this question presents 34 (70.83%) correct answers and 14(29.17%) wrong answers. 4E shows that 9(18.75%) teachers responded correctly and 39(81.25%) responded wrongly. Question 4F had a total number of 38 (79.17%) teachers with correct answers and 10(20.83%) had wrong responses. Lastly, for the 4G, only 8(16.67%) teachers could provide the correct answer and 40(83.33%) wrong answers.

From the statistics gotten above, it is worth noting that the percentage of teachers in Buea and Yaounde who had challenges in counting the sounds of the target words came up to 50.3(42.86+57.74/2) respectively. According to each word, 27.37% (25.58 +29.17/2) could not count the sounds of the word "cat" and 67.97% (65.11+70.83/2) failed in the counting of sounds in the word "sleep", At this level, we come to realise that the notion of blending that they did not know equally important since some of the teachers identified 5 sounds though there was a vowel blend in the word which constituted a single vowel sound. With the word "moon" the percentage fail stood at 25 (20.93+29.17/2), as for the word "sister" 62.32% (34.88+89.58/2) failed. For the word "clap" 72.02% (62.79+81.25/2) failed, and for "in" 18.55% (16.28+20.83/2) failed. The percentage of teachers who failed in the counting of the word "helicopter" stood at 78.87 (74.42+83.33/2). The general failure rate of question four for Buea and Yaounde stood at 50.31% (42.89+57.31/2) above average. Their failure is of evidence that they will not be able to teach children to count words. All the above rates of failure shows that, such category of teachers will not be able

to appropriately teach children how to count and identify sounds in words and pupils taught by such category of teachers will suffer challenges in counting sounds due to mis-learning.

CONCLUSION

From the findings in chapter four, it is obvious and very clearly stated that some primary school teachers will have serious difficulties in the teaching of phonics because they cannot blend, segment and count words appropriately neither do they know the importance of sound blending and segmentation to children hence students' shortcomings in reading. This can be linked to the falling standard of language literacy and reading culture exercised by young learners in Cameron.

However, it is recommended for the Ministry of Basic Education in Cameroon to approve compulsory teacher training workshops on phonic teaching and especially Jolly Phonics which has proven to be very successful in other West African countries like Nigeria and Ghana in helping lower primary school children to learn how to read, blend, segment and write sounds. The pilot phase of this training started in Cameroon in 2018 where I served as the Lead Academia in the training and it was later suspended and lower primary school teachers were targeted in some schools in Yaounde, Douala, Bamenda, Buea and Ngaoundere respectively. Lower primary school teachers are equally expected to make conscious efforts and take serious measures in self-learning of phonics and phonics teaching methods to children so as to enhance their mastery of the concept and teaching strategies.

Further research on the teaching of the target issue is recommended with focus on a longitudinal study on the competence of teachers before and after a jolly phonic workshop. Further studies can be exploring better ways of teaching phonics through a pilot and a control group of learners and why not brainstorming ways of teaching from experienced teachers. Another study may focus on the challenges encountered by lower primary pupils in understanding phonics or identifying pupils struggling with phonic and give them special redo classes through differentiation strategies.

Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

49

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Instructors' Competence in English Phonics and Outcome on Instruction and Reading Skills of Pupils in Buea And Yaoundé, Cameroon

51

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CHALLENGES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SPEAKING SKILLS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TANZANIA

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills in English subject at secondary schools in Tanzania. The study employed qualitative research approach, a case study design with a total of 56 participants. Data were generated through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, classroom observation and documentary review. The study findings revealed that there were a number of challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills. These are linguistic difficulties, mother tongue use, inhibition, teachers' perceptions and tacit beliefs. Others are limited authentic materials, limited supportive environment, limited oral assessments and low students' self-motivation. The study concludes and recommends that the actual description of those challenges need to be recognised and understood, thus, they can be alleviated through giving this skill more emphasis and attention. Numerous concerns such as teachers, students, learning environment and assessment regulation should be taken into an account.

Keywords: Speaking skills, Speaking constraints, English language teaching in Tanzania,   EFL learners, secondary schools

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INTRODUCTION

Spoken language is a means through which learners interact with others to achieve particular goals of expressing their beliefs, opinions, feelings, intentions, attitudes and perspectives (Kiymaz & Doyumğaç, 2020). Nevertheless, problems in speaking can be setbacks towards effective teaching and learning. Undeniably, it is imperative to develop communication skills. English oral communication skills are part of this skill set, and thus, students should be supported to gain these skills (Al Hosni, 2014). Developing students' speaking ability is of significance importance in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as Second Language (ESL) teaching as Burkart and Sheppard (2004) and Nunan (1999) argue that success in learning a language is measured in terms of the ability to engage in a conversation in the target language.

The teaching and learning of speaking in English in secondary schools provide students with more exposure and giving them a platform to use English in academic setting. This is brought by the functions of speaking that cut across various aspects of human interaction such as communicating ideas and opinions, conveying a wish or a desire to do something, negotiating, solving a particular problem, creating and building social relationships, maintaining business or other professional reasons (Richard, 2008).

Worldwide expansion of English language has increased the demand to acquire good communication skills in English language (Richards, 2006). Adding to this, during this era of globalisation, intense competitiveness in the job market and high unemployment rates, learners from variety of sectors have to exhibit a certain mastery of communication skills in different fields, thus, learners with good spoken English are more likely to win this competition than their counterparts (Malone, 2007; Simpson, 2006; Bailey, 1999).

As a result of this necessity for improving speaking ability among learners, a number of countries including Tanzania have put much efforts and emphasis on the teaching of English as a foreign language rather than their native languages to its citizens (Hossain, 2015; Tork, 2006). The role of English is of significant important in promoting economic growth and

developing skilled man powers, who are globally compatible hence, improvement in English language teaching and learning has become the prior concern (Hamid, 2010).

According to the Ministry of Education, vocational training (MoEVT) in Tanzania, objective of teaching English is to enable a student to be able to communicate orally and confidently in different life situations (TIE, 2009.p.vi). As a strategy to improve the English language proficiency of students in Tanzania, the government reviewed English subject syllabus for secondary education in which the 2009 communicative competence-based English subject syllabus was issued to replace the 1997 old structure-based English subject syllabus which emphasized more on language descriptions. It was previously noted that students could make language descriptions however they could not use English language to communicate orally (TIE, 2009). Thus, the 2009 reviewed English subject syllabus embodies the content of speaking skills so as to enable students develop an ability to communicate orally using English language.

Despite a number of measures that have been taken in years to improve English language teaching (ELT) in Tanzania, the outcomes are still unsatisfactory since language proficiency level among students is depressing. Several studies show that the majority of students in secondary schools yet have poor English language proficiency, hence they fail to communicate using English language in different life situation (Bikongoro, 2014; Sane & Sebonde, 2014; Makewa, Role & Tuguta, 2013; Komba, 2012; Qorro, 2012; Rubagumya, 2010; Vuzo, 2010; Swilla, 2009). English is occasionally used outside the classroom settings, students in government schools do not usually use English language rather they use Kiswahili language when engaging fully in the social, political and economic life of Tanzania, thus they normally do not have platforms to speak English outside the classroom settings (Mtallo, 2015; Sane & Sebonde, 2014; Qorro, 2013). This raises a question as to why students in secondary schools find it difficult to speak in English language. It is against this background, the current study intended to explore challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills in English subject at secondary schools in Tanzania.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed a qualitative research approach. The approach enabled the researcher to explore challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills in secondary schools in Tanzania since qualitative method helps researchers to study things in natural setting in an attempt to make sense of it in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In addition, a case study design was used because it helped the researcher to develop a deeper insight and better exploration on challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills. As Ary et.al., (2010) contend that the case study design enables the researcher to arrive at a detailed description and understanding of a phenomenon. Yin (2009) holds the view that case study design provides opportunities for gathering evidence of information from diverse sources and thus promotes triangulation of findings on the basis of research objectives.

The study was conducted in three government advanced-level secondary schools offering English subject combinations such as History, Geography and English language (HGL), History, Kiswahili and English language (HKL) and Kiswahili, English language and French (KLF) in Ilala Municipality. The area was purposefully selected since the municipality has a large number of schools in which it has three government advanced-level secondary schools offering more than one English subject combination such as HGL, HKL and KLF as compared to other districts in Tanzania.

A total of 56 informants comprising eight English subject teachers and 48 English subject students from form six were involved in a study. Specifically, the researcher used criterion purposive sampling to select all English subject teachers teaching in Form Five and Form six in each school to participate in the study. In addition, criterion purposive sampling was used to obtain Form Six students from English subject classes who were involved in the FGD. Form Six students were involved because they have been learning speaking skills since they were in form five. So they have potential information with regard to the teaching and learning of speaking. In reducing bias for students' participation, random purposive sampling was used to obtain eight students as potential purposive sample to participate in discussion as per FGD standards.

In qualitative research studies, the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Punch, 2006). In regard to this study, data gathering methods included observation, interviews, documentary review and focus group discussion. These methods enabled the researcher to gather multiple sources of information for exploring challenges of teaching and learning of speaking skills in English subject in secondary schools in Tanzania. The benefit of these methods includes richness of data and deeper insight into the phenomenon under study (Hancock, 2002).

The data were analysed thematically. The study used Braun and Clarke model for thematic analysis which includes six steps such as moving back and forth through the entire collected data in order to be familiar with the data, coding the data through searching for interesting patterns and features, searching for the theme through arranging codes into potential themes through gathering all data relevant to each potential theme, reviewing themes, defining and naming the themes and lastly, writing a report for the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Linguistic Difficulties

Findings revealed that linguistic difficulty hindered the teaching and learning of speaking skills in secondary schools. It was reported that students had difficulties in finding appropriate vocabulary items to express themselves in English language when carrying out conversations. During interview with teachers, students were reported to encounter difficulties in constructing sentences when trying to express themselves in English. For example, teacher (T7) from school C said that:

> Students do not know how to express themselves appropriately using English language. You may find them speaking one or two English sentences and then code switch to Kiswahili since they lack much of English vocabularies thus they cannot speak English fluently (Interview, T7 at school C).

Similarly, During FGDs it was reported that students encounter difficulties when speaking English language. For example one of students from school B said "*We always want to speak a lot of English but we fail to do so since we don't*

know much of English words". In addition, another student from school A reported that:

> Speaking English is hard since is not our language we are
> not good at it. Even if we are trying to speak some sentences
> but we do struggle a lot when we are told to make a speech
> in English (FGD, a student from school A).

In addition, Data collected through observation revealed that students encounter difficulties when trying to carry out a conversation in English language. Many of their sentences were full of errors and mistakes and hence ungrammatical. Also inappropriate use of vocabularies and mispronunciation of English words were also noted.

The findings suggest that students had difficulties in speaking English language when trying to carry out a conversation. Insufficient vocabulary repertoire, not knowing grammar and pronunciation of English language lead to the linguistic difficulties thus students struggle in their speaking. As Rababa'h (2005) found out that linguistic difficulties hinder teaching and learning of speaking as many learners do not have sufficient amount of vocabularies to get their meaning across, and consequently, they fail to make the conversation going on.

Mother Tongue Use

Findings revealed that mother tongue use hampers teaching and learning of speaking skills. It was reported that mostly students used their mother tongue when engaging in classroom activities. Students felt comfortable using Kiswahili language when discussing different given tasks. This is attributed to the difficulties in finding appropriate vocabulary items to express themselves in English language when carrying out conversations. During interview with teachers, students were reported to be using their mother tongue when communicating among themselves at school. For example, teacher (T1) from school A said that:

> Majority of students use Kiswahili when communicating one
> another when in classroom or outside classroom. Even in their
> classroom discussion they use sometimes Kiswahili to discuss

and then they write their answers in English (Interview, T1 at school A).

A similar view was provided by teacher (T3) from school B as was quoted saying that:

> English language is another issue to students…. It becomes difficulty for many students to speak the language hence they tend to use Kiswahili language in their discussion since they know much about Kiswahili than English. So you may find they discuss in Swahili and present their answers in English (Interview, T3 at school B).

In addition, findings from FGDs showed that students tend to speak in Kiswahili when performing classroom tasks especially pair works and group works. This is due to the reasons that Kiswahili is well known by the majority of students who felt comfortable discussing using their mother tongue rather than using English. For example, one student in a FGD had the following to say;

> We do not know much of English thus why we discuss in Kiswahili because Kiswahili is known by every student so it becomes easy for us to speak and share our ideas and views regarding the topic of discussion. And then we write our views and answers in English (FGD, a student from school A).

In similar vein, findings from observation carried out in all the sampled schools revealed that students used code-mixing and code-switching between English and Kiswahili languages and they eventually used Kiswahili language when they were discussing in groups.

The findings suggest that students do not know how to speak in English language when discussing matters in a group discussion, so they shifted to Kiswahili language. The reasons for using the mother tongue may be attributed to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skills. This may not render students opportunities to use English language in communicating among themselves and hence limits students to get exposed to actual use of English language due to code-mixing, code-switching and use of Kiswahili medium during learning process. Ur (1996) contends that learners who share the same mother tongue tend to use it

because it is easier and because learners feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue. In addition, Littlewood (1981) argues that some teachers and students use a mother tongue in class. Nevertheless, this can be another factor that contributes to the problem of speaking difficulties. This is because using the first language/native language or mother tongue means sacrificing valuable opportunities for well-motivated foreign use.

Inhibition

Findings revealed that inhibition is one of the constraints on improving teaching and learning of speaking skills. It was reported that students were not speaking English due to fear of making mistakes and being laughed by their fellow students thus they felt shy to speak in front of their classmates. During interview with teachers, students were reported to be haunted with fear when they were required to speak English language. For example, teacher (T2) from school A said that:

> Students do not speak English much because they feel shy and fear of making mistakes in which they will be laughed at by their fellow students.. you know these student tend to laugh at their fellow when making mistakes and thus you find students become reluctant to speak (Interview, T2 at school A).

In a similar vein, teacher (T4) from school B had the following to say:

> Our students feel shy to speak in front of the class. So when you choose a student to speak English language you may find that student becomes nervous and uncomfortable. So he may end up making errors and mistakes if you insist him to speak (Interview, T4 at school B).

Findings from FGDs revealed that students do not speak English language due to fear of committing errors and mistakes from which they will be laughed at by their fellow students. Also shyness hinders them to speak English in front of the class. One student from school C in a FGD said "Students tend to laugh at their fellow students if make mistakes. So most

of us do not speak much because we are afraid of being embarrassed and laughed at by our fellow students".

Similarly, another student had this to say:

> Some of us in our class, we sometimes feel shy to speak in front of the class and hence we tend to remain quite when the teacher asks questions. And sometimes, when you make mistakes other students may laugh at you (A student, FGD school A).

In addition, one student from school B during a FGD said the followings:

> You know us students do not speak English much because of feeling shy to speak in front of many people…. We sometimes get anxiety when are told to speak may be at the assembly during debates, morning speeches….. Being laughed at by our fellow students it is really an embarrassment (A student, FGD school B).

The findings suggest that students do not speak English language as a result of feeling shy and fear of making mistakes and being laughed at by their fellow students which in turn is an embarrassment to them. Therefore this may lead to learners' engagement in a lesson becomes very low thus may result to ineffective learning and hence students will not be able to develop an ability to speak English language. These findings align with Nakhalah (2016) who pinpointed that there are some difficulties in the speaking of the students due to some reasons such as fear of mistake, shyness, anxiety and lack of confidence. In a similar vein, Abdalla and Mustafa (2015) found that students' psychological factors such as fear, shyness and inhibitions are among the constraints towards teaching and learning of speaking skills. In addition, Dil (2009) highlighted that anxiety and unwillingness during the English speaking process are the major obstacles for EFL learners. Anxiety and unwillingness are a result of the fear of being negatively evaluated when committing errors and mistakes, especially in front of their fellow learners. Similarly, Ur (1996) argued that students do not speak since they are afraid about making mistakes, fearful of criticism, or simply shy.

Teachers' Perceptions and Tacit Beliefs about Teaching of Speaking

Findings revealed that teachers perceived the teaching of speaking skills as the most difficult component in language teaching. Teachers believed that teaching learners to communicate using English language both inside and outside classroom setting is a tedious task. Teaching of speaking skills requires supportive environment which allows speaking of English and also teachers are supposed to be competent in pronunciation, intonation and stress as used in English language. For example, teacher (T1) from school A said that:

> To be honest, I find teaching speaking tedious and difficult because of its complexity and it involves a lot of things such as pronunciation, intonation and stress. As the matter of fact, we are not native speakers of this language so we cannot teach it appropriately (Interview, T1 from school A).

In addition, teacher (T5) from school B had a similar view with regard to the teaching of speaking skills. She said that:

> Teaching of speaking skills is a very difficult task because the environment surrounding our students is not friendly. And also some components of speaking itself such as pronunciations, intonations and stress are complex thus make students not to understand them (Interview, T5 from school B).

The findings suggest that teachers perceived the teaching of speaking skills to be difficult unlike the teaching of other language skills such as listening, writing and reading. This is attributed to the nature of learners, complexity of speaking and inadequate knowledge on English speaking skills among teachers. Teachers' perception seems to undermine students' ability to learn speaking skills and it may affect the way they teach speaking skills. In similar vein, Michel (2017) found that teachers perceived the teaching of speaking skills as a difficult task but they believed that students are the ones who need to make efforts to speak in English. In addition, Ahmed (2017) found that teachers perceived that teaching of speaking is the most difficult of the four language skills that is why teaching of speaking is relatively

neglected hence most of the teachers focused on teaching grammar and reading.

Limited Authentic Teaching and Learning Materials

The findings from teachers' interviews revealed that schools do not have authentic materials for teaching speaking skills. Thus, teachers relied much on the use of text books and reference books. For example, teacher (T1) from school A explained that:

> There are a number of challenges, but the big issue here is lack of real materials. I can say, for example, you are teaching pronunciation and you want to show your students the way native speakers pronounce the words. You need to have a recorded video tape of native speakers' conversation voices and the devices such as television so that your students can hear and watch how native speakers pronounce English words (Interview, T1 at school A).

Teacher (T3) from school B had a similar view with regard to the teaching and learning materials of speaking skills. She said that:

> For sure, teaching and learning materials for speaking skills are not available. Sometimes we rely on our textbooks to teach speaking because the real materials are not available. For example, I am teaching job interview, so I am supposed to have real recorded videos of job interview sessions from a real environment; unfortunately, I don't have them since here at school we don't have the required materials. So I only use my textbook with a written sample of a job interview (Interview, T3 from school B).

In addition, FGDs were conducted with students. The findings revealed that there was lack of authentic materials for teaching of speaking skills in schools. For example, a student from school B was quoted as saying that "Normally our teacher comes with different textbooks only in class. So she teaches using those textbooks. In the library, you only find normal written materials especially textbooks which also are few in number".

Similarly, findings from observations revealed that teachers relied on the use of textbooks to teach speaking skills in their classes. For example, the

researcher observed a teacher at school A teaching a sub-topic on "job interview" using a textbook with a sample of written text on job interview. The teacher did not have any other teaching material apart from English subject textbook where he provided examples, elaborations and explanations from the textbook. In addition, the researcher visited a library and found only printed materials for teaching and learning of English subject. Moreover, the same was observed at school B and C in which teachers relied much on the textbook when teaching speaking and also the libraries found in the respective schools had only printed materials for teaching English subject.

These findings suggest that schools do not have authentic materials such as audio-visual on speeches and conversations of how native speakers pronounce English words which reflect real world English language use for teaching and learning of speaking. Thus, teachers relied much on the use of textbooks. This implies that students are likely not to be exposed to English language inputs as used in real life situations. This, in turn, hindered students to develop and improve their speaking ability in communicating orally in English language. These findings support findings by Rababah (2005) who found that authentic materials are not used by the majority of teachers since they are hardly available in schools. In addition, Abdalla and Mustafa (2015) pin pointed that inappropriate teaching materials are among the constraints towards teaching and learning of speaking skills. Nevertheless, Michel (2017) found that inadequate resources for teaching of speaking skills hinder teaching and learning of speaking. As Azri and Al Rashid (2014) contended that using inappropriate teaching materials makes learners face difficulties in learning a foreign language since learners ought to be motivated to succeed in learning any language. Therefore, teaching materials are important in motivating and raising learners' interest.

Limited Supportive Environment towards Speaking of English Language

Findings from teachers' interviews revealed that the surrounding environment at schools do not support speaking of English language due to the sense that English language is only heard and spoken during English subject lessons. For example, teacher (T2) from school A explained that:

> The issue here is lack of supporting environment that encourages the use of English language everywhere, inside and outside the classroom. So students speak little English during English lessons only and none after classes when they go outside classroom. They speak Kiswahili language, and even teachers themselves speak Kiswahili language around the school (Interview, T2 at school A).

Teacher (T3) from school B had similar views with regard to environment that supports the use of English. She said that:

> For sure, environment is challenging since Kiswahili language has dominated communication everywhere at school. So students lack English language exposure due to limited use of the English language. Interestingly, other teachers are using code-mixing and Kiswahili language when teaching other subjects (Interview, T3 from school B).

In addition, findings from students' FGDs confirmed teachers' interviews. It was established that there is limited supportive environment for students to practice speaking of English language. For example, one of students from school B said that:

> I have never seen speaking English being emphasized though there is a slogan, "NO ENGLISH NO SERVICE" but you may find teachers themselves speaking Kiswahili everywhere. So why bother speaking English while our role models (teachers) are speaking Kiswahili (FGD, a student from school B).

Similarly, findings from observations conducted in all sampled schools revealed that there is limited supportive environment for speaking of English language. For example, it was observed at school B that a teacher and students at some point used code-mixing and code-switching when teaching and learning. The teacher was observed explaining some concepts in Kiswahili and students were observed discussing in their groups in Kiswahili. In addition, teachers and students outside classroom setting were observed communicating using Kiswahili language throughout around the school compounds. This was also observed at school A and C where teachers and students used Kiswahili medium to communicate outside classroom setting. Very interesting, teachers in their offices where

the doors labeled with posters "NO ENGLISH NO SERVICE" communicated among themselves using Kiswahili language and even they addressed their students using Kiswahili medium.

The findings suggest that students did not have an opportunity to practice speaking of English language outside classroom context since English language is not emphasised and spoken around the school compound apart from classroom English lessons. The use of Kiswahili language and code-mixing dominated communications across schools' settings, teachers among themselves communicated using Kiswahili and sometimes they used Kiswahili in explaining ideas and concepts when teaching. Moreover, teachers addressed their students in Kiswahili language although they insisted their students to speak English. This may be attributed to lack of language competence among both teachers and their students and poor implementation of language in education policy which advocates for the use of English language as a medium of communication at secondary education level.

Similarly, Ahmed (2017) found that students' inability to speak is due to lack of opportunity to practice speaking since English is very rarely spoken outside the classroom. In the same vein, Abdalla and Mustafa (2015) found that lack of target language environment hinders the teaching of spoken language in secondary schools because there is little opportunity to learn English in a natural environment. Also Kabir (2014) reported that the major challenge that the learners faced in English speaking is lack of supportive environment in which they have very limited opportunity to practice speaking English outside classroom context.

In addition, Mtallo (2015), Sane & Sebonde (2014) and Qorro (2013) contend that English is occasionally used outside the classroom settings, students in government schools do not usually use English language rather they use Kiswahili language when engaging fully in the social, political and economic life of Tanzania, thus they normally do not have platforms to speak English outside the classroom settings. Similarly, Rababa'h (2005) found that lack of a target language environment can be regarded as another factor contributing to speaking problem since this may result to a lack of involvement in real-life situations.

Limited Oral Assessments

Findings from interviews with English subject teachers revealed that students were not orally assessed in speaking. Teachers relied on the national examination setting format to assess their students. For example, T6 from school B said that:

> Normally we assess our students through written exams. To be honest, I have never conducted oral exams to my students. Even national examinations do not assess students' oral communication, speaking is assessed in a written form (Interview, T6 from school B).

In addition, teacher (T8) from school C extended by saying that:

> Time for completing the syllabus is not enough because we have many classes to teach. So we normally use traditional paper and pencil assessment to assess speaking. I think oral assessment is time consuming and it needs a well competent teacher. So normally, I give students some English words to transcribe phonetically so as to assess pronunciation and stress (Interview, T8 from school C).

The verbatim narrations above suggest that teachers do not administer oral assessment because this assessment is time consuming. They use traditional paper and pencil assessment which seems to be less time consuming so as to be able to cover the syllabus on time. In additional, teachers seemed not to have language competence in administering oral assessment which requires teachers to have English language competence.

Moreover, teacher (T1) from school A commented by saying that:

> I normally assess my students by giving them normal written tests with varied questions on speaking topic so as to know their progress on what they have learned. This has been a practice; even national exams do assess students through normal written exams (Interview, T1 from school A).

Findings from FGDs supported teachers' views that students were not orally assessed their speaking ability. For example, one of the students from school A reported that "here at school, we are given written exams with questions on the topic of speaking. For example, a question can be like that

….. explain briefly things to consider when initiating conversations". Similarly, a student from school C adds that "our teacher gives us tests and examinations with questions on the topic of speaking. For example, we are asked to describe English words phonetically"

Similarly, Findings from documentary review on English subject school based examinations showed that students were given written assessment on speaking skills. Students are normally assessed basing on a traditional paper and pencil assessment where students are asked to describe the language rather than performing oral communication in the real life situations. For example, in the following figure, most of the questions aim at assessing how much a student knows about language rather that how well a student is able to use the language in communication.
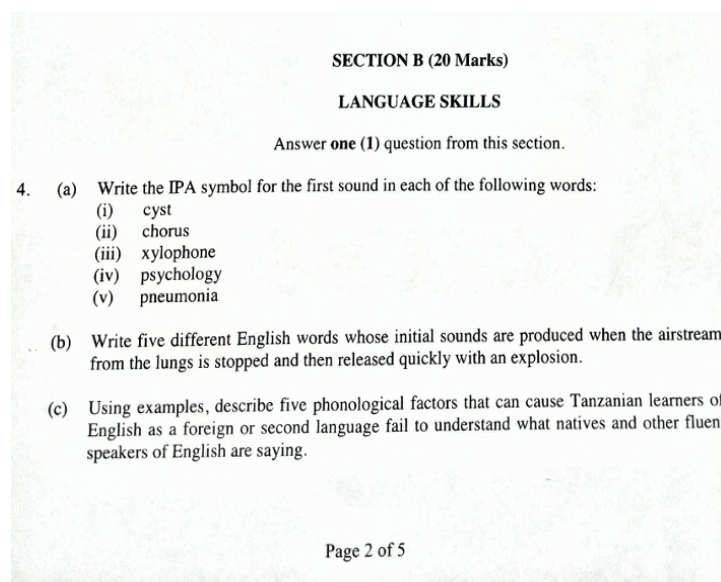

SECTION B (20 Marks)

LANGUAGE SKILLS

Answer **one** (**1**) question from this section.

4. (a) Write the IPA symbol for the first sound in each of the following words:
    (i) cyst
    (ii) chorus
    (iii) xylophone
    (iv) psychology
    (v) pneumonia

    (b) Write five different English words whose initial sounds are produced when the airstream from the lungs is stopped and then released quickly with an explosion.

    (c) Using examples, describe five phonological factors that can cause Tanzanian learners of English as a foreign or second language fail to understand what natives and other fluent speakers of English are saying.

Page 2 of 5

Figure: An extract of school-based examination questions assessing language skills

Source: Field data

Figure above shows kind of questions that were asked in English subject in school based examinations aiming at assessing students' speaking ability. In particular, questions (4) (a) and (b) intend to assess students' ability to describe English language sounds in written form rather than assessing

students' ability to pronounce in the real life situation. English words as they communicate.

The above findings suggest that students are assessed on the basis of written form tests and examinations with questions that assess students' speaking ability. The setting of the examinations and tests are influenced by the national examination setting format which assesses speaking skills by using the traditional paper and pencil. This implies that students are more likely to be able to make language descriptions rather than being able to communicate using English language in real life situations. The findings are contrary to the English subject syllabus stipulations; according to TIE (2009) continuous assessment of speaking skill consists of oral test in which students are required to be assessed when engaging in interaction. In order to fulfill these assessment requirements, sufficient time in the lessons should be allocated for speaking.

However, the findings concur with those by Maryslessor, Barasa and Omulando (2014) who found that among the challenges teachers faced in the use of the CLT approach in teaching listening and speaking lessons in secondary schools in Kenya is the pressure for grammar based examination. Teachers concentrated on teaching and drilling students on how to pass examinations at the expense of developing communicative competence. Thus, teachers choose to teach the students how to pass examinations and not how to use English in different situations.

In addition, Mwamba (2005) contends that the reasons for poor speaking skills could emanate from lack of emphasis on speaking skills in the curriculum since it is not examined in national examinations. Similarly, Ambu and Saidi (1997) and Al-Lawati (2002) reported that both teachers and students pay little attention to speaking tasks in the course books because speaking is completely not assessed in exams.

Low Students' Self-Motivation and Commitment towards Speaking English Language

Findings from interviews with English subject teachers revealed that many students are less motivated to speak English language. They said that the existence of little students' self-motivation hindered speaking English in secondary schools. For example, Teacher (T7) from school C said that:

> Many students here are not self-motivated to speak English language on their own since they normally speak little English only when we force them to speak. So I can say that they are lacking self-motivation towards speaking the language. (Interview, T7 from school C).

In addition, teacher (T1) from school A reported that:

> Many students lack self-motivation and commitment towards speaking English language. They are not using extra time to practice speaking it outside the classroom context. They rarely speak little English during lessons in classroom then after the lesson they don't bother to practice communicating by using English language among themselves (Interview, T1 at school A).

The above findings suggest that students do not put much effort to practice speaking of English language on their own since they lacked self-motivation and commitment towards speaking it. In addition, teachers seemed not know how to motivate their learners to practice oral communication in English language.

In addition, findings from students' FGDs revealed that students' own desire towards speaking English language was low. For example, a student from school A said that:

> We are not given more opportunity to speak English language because most of the time, during English lessons we use much time in copying notes provided and listening to the teacher. So this reduces our motivation to speak English (FGD, student from school A).

The quote above suggests that teachers provide their students with few opportunities to speak English language because most of the time students copy notes from the teacher. This reduces students to have more opportunities to practice speaking English language.

Another student from school B blamed students for poor language mastering. He said that:

> We as students are not committed our self towards speaking English. You may find a student does not bother to try practicing communicating in English language waiting for a teacher to force him/her to speak (FGD, student from school B).

Similar view was given by a student from school C who said the following:

> We students do not have a habit of practicing things on our own. We just wait for the teacher to tell us what to do. Honestly, we are not self- motivated to learn own our own. This is a problem when it comes to speaking English language (FGD, student from school C).

The above findings suggest that students had little self-motivation towards speaking English language and they put little effort in learning speaking skills. They devoted less time for learning and practicing oral communication among themselves outside classroom setting. In addition, it seems that English subject teachers do not create the learning environment by providing a diversity of learning activities for practicing oral communication in English language. It is expected that provision of such activities would promote students' speaking ability. Similarly Abdalla and Mustafa (2015) revealed that lack of self-motivation among students hinders the teaching of spoken language in secondary schools in Sudan. In addition, similar findings were reported by Maryslessor, Barasa and Omulando (2014) who found that among the challenges teachers faced in the use of the CLT approach in teaching listening and speaking lessons in secondary schools in Kenya was lack of self-motivation for developing communicative competence among students in which many students were not motivated to engage themselves in speaking activities inside and outside classroom context. Furthermore, Al-Hosni (2014) observed that some learners lacked motivation to speak English language because they did not see the need to learn or speak English.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study concludes that teaching of speaking skills to students in secondary schools is ineffective due to speaking problems that these students encounter hence the intended objective of enabling students to develop an ability to orally communicate in real life situations will not be

realised. The prevailence of these speaking difficulties deprives students with an opportunity to practice speaking English language for communication purpose hence their ability to engage themselves in English communication becomes limited.

Therefore, in order to flourish the knowledge to counteract speaking difficulties in an EFL setting, the actual description of those challenges and the contexts in which they are created need to be recognized and understood, thus, they can be alleviated through giving this skill more emphasis and attention. Numerous concerns such as teachers, students, learning environment and assessment regulation should be regarded. Thus it is recommended that teachers need to be trained on how to integrate speaking to other skills and how to teach it communicatively. Their awareness of how language is acquired and learned should be raised.

Nevertheless, teachers should ensure that the English language is used throughout students' discussions so as to provide them with a platform to practice speaking English language in its actual use and hence this will improve their speaking ability in communicating using English language. In addition, it is necessary for teachers to get into the habit of addressing their students in English language wherever possible even when they meet outside the classroom hence, students should be exposed to the use of English language both inside and outside classroom settings in which they will have an opportunity to practice speaking English language in the real environment.

Lastly, oral assessment should be used thus, students be assessed basing on actual use of English language in real life situations since this will give them an opportunity to practice the use of English language in communication rather than assessing how much students know about the language through traditional paper and pencil assessment.

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EXAMINING A REVERSED CROSS-LANGUAGE TRANSFER OF CORE METALINGUISTIC AWARENESS SKILLS AMONG MOROCCAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS WITH READING DIFFICULTIES: A LONGITUDINAL QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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Abstract

The current exploration examined the occurrence of a reversed transfer of core metalinguistic skills, namely phonological awareness, morphological awareness, orthographic knowledge and reading comprehension from English (L2) to Arabic (L1) among thirty university students with reading difficulties. The experiment consisted of a battery of English and Arabic reading tests administered over two-phases: pre- and post-intervention. All participants were placed in two major groups: experimental and control groups. The experimental group exclusively received a reading intervention in English, targeting the main weaknesses demonstrated by the participants during the pre-test stage. At the end of the reading program, all participants sat for the same reading tests. While the control group's results remained stagnant in both languages, the treatment group's results revealed a positive improvement in all English skills after the intervention (with

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Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

79

strong correlations between phonological awareness and reading comprehension: r =.65*p <,00). As to the Arabic tests' scores, the results showed a significant development of similar Arabic reading abilities including orthographic knowledge. The findings lend support to the Cognitive Retroactive Hypothesis (Abu Rabia and Shakour, 2014) and challenge the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis which preconditions transfer across typologically different languages.

Keywords: Phonological Awareness, Morphological Awareness, Orthographic Knowledge, Reading Program, Reading Comprehension.

INTRODUCTION

Metalinguistic awareness refers to the ability of consciously thinking about, manipulating, and reflecting upon the prominent linguistic units featuring written and spoken language (Nagy, 2007). Similarly, Nagy & Anderson (1999) define metalinguistic awareness as the ability to "reflect on and manipulate the structural features of languages (Nagy & Anderson, 1998, p. 155). Consequently, attention is directed to language itself rather than the varied functions embodied by language. Bialystok (2001) describes metalinguistic knowledge as the ability to explicitly instantiate mental representations of language properties during language acquisition. A child, with a high level of metalinguistic awareness, may perform well on a phonemic awareness task without necessarily knowing what the word "phoneme" means. Therefore, the explicit nature of metacognitive knowledge does not suggest that readers are apt to verbalize language properties. Since learning to read requires a linkage between spoken language elements and graphic symbols, the import of metalinguistic awareness lies in its capacity to guide the process of the way phonological and morphological information are graphically portrayed. It enables readers to analyze words in terms of their phonological and morphological constituents (Koda, 2009).

Literature Review

Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness is the ability to "explicitly" represent and control phonological units in one's own language, relating sounds accordingly with their matching orthographic symbols (Koda, 2009). In crude terms, phonological awareness is a skill entailing an adept manipulation of speech segments such as syllables and phonemes. A child with a heightened

phonological awareness recognizes the difference between "cat" and "bat" (explicit knowledge) and can make the distinction between the initial sounds /k/ and /b/ that form the onset of the monosyllabic words given. Equally, the child can delete the first sounds and utter the remaining new word without having difficulty (/_at/). Research on phonological awareness has been confined to findings revealed from children literature with a limited body of studies investigating this skill among adult populations (Bialystok et al., 2003; Tighe, 2019; Tighe & Schatschneider 2016b; Geva, 2014; Grabe, 2009; Koda & Zehler, 2008; Zhang, 2016). This line of research has focused on the advantages bilingual infant readers have over their monolingual peers. Along the same lines, bilingual children who demonstrate high levels of phonological awareness perform well on L2 reading tasks as opposed to monolingual readers (Bialystok et al, 2003; Chen et al., 2004).

Unveiled findings from research on child second language reading cannot be directly extrapolated to adult learners, especially insights of the contributions of phonological awareness to reading in conjunction with its overall constructs including comprehension (Tighe et al., 2019). Extremely scarce body of academic work has measured the level of phonological abilities among adult populations, except advanced-age readers enrolled in Adult Basic Education (ABE) programs (for a full review see Tighe & Schatschneider, 2016b). At the university level, there have been very few reports on students with a record of reading difficulties which persist over time (Parrila & Georgiou, 2007; Burt & Hefernan, 2012). These studies examined the notable aspects of metalinguistic awareness viz. phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographic knowledge. Parrila & Georgiou (2007) measure spelling and phonological processing skills among university students who report a history of reading acquisition problems currently not compensated (Parrila & Georgiou, 2007). The study's results indicate that almost all the participants show problems in word reading, decoding and phonological processing tasks.

Morphological Awareness

Morphological awareness is referred to as the ability to identify word formation processes, including derivation and inflection (Zhang, 2016; Koda, 2008; Kuo & Anderson, 2006; Dong et al., 2019). It is commonly

Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

81

agreed that morphological awareness is crucial to first and second language reading (Ku & Anderson, 2003; Carlisle, 2003; Koda & Zehler, 2008; Deacon, 2012). Empirical correlational research on reading development and morphological awareness suggests that the organization of our mental lexicon, i.e., the way vocabulary is stored, is morphologically based. Thus, readers with limited vocabulary knowledge face huge problems while reading a passage-level text. The general argument in the chronicle of reading research is that significantly falling behind understanding the meaning of new or even structurally complex words is due to inadequate morphological awareness skills (Droop & Verhoeven, 2003; Garcia, 2000; Verhoeven, 2000). The association of vocabulary knowledge with morphological awareness is ingrained in the way our lexicon is laid out. Laconically speaking, our mental lexicon is morpheme-based and, hence, processing the morphemic constituents of words while reading expedites retrieval of lexical meanings (Koda & Zehler, 2008; Tighe & Binder, 2012; Zhang, 2016). Studies on adults and children's word reading skills, as a case in point, show that morphological awareness unclogs the processing of morphologically complex words (Harley, 2001).

Particularly, the burgeoning of new research on the relationship between morphological awareness and reading among adult skills readers stems from the idea that word representation is a key precursor of comprehension (Perfetti & Hart, 2002; Guo et al., 2011). The Lexical-Quality Hypothesis states that individual's knowledge of words such as morphosyntactic and semantic skills determines the range of reading comprehension (Perfetti & Hart, 2002). Empirical research on the role of linguistic skills in reading reports significantly strong variance between morphological awareness and reading achievement across a wide range of grade levels running the gamut from early school years to high school and eventually college (Landi, 2009; Mahony, Singson, & Mann, 2000). However, and in contrast to children, morphological awareness becomes increasingly critical for text-reading ability in adults, which is predicted by vocabulary knowledge (Johnston, Barnes, & Desrochers, 2008; Guo, Roehrig, & Mason, 2011). The reason why morphological awareness develops over time and hitherto forms the backbone of reading is because decoding skills dwindle away to a minor factor at a certain age.

Orthographic Knowledge

The third metalinguistic skill, discussed in the context of the ongoing research paper, is orthographic knowledge. Tighe (2015) defines orthographic knowledge as "an individual's sensitivity to conventional spelling patterns and rules and individual's knowledge of mental representations of specific written word or word parts stored in memory" (Tighe, 2015; P.5). Zaric and colleagues (2020), also more notably Deacon (2012), view orthographic knowledge as the ability to think about and manipulate "orthotactics"- the allowed letter combinations (Zaric et al., 2020; Deacon, 2012). Like the sub-lexical route, orthographic knowledge entails the permissible graphemic sequences depicting written words. This orthographic storage feature has been termed in the literature as "Mental Graphemic Representation" (Tighe, 2015; Apel, 2011, Zaric et al., 2020; Grainger & Ziegler, 2011). Consistent with research on the prominent role of phonological awareness and morphological processing in reading, studies on the significance of orthographic knowledge report that understanding the mechanisms by which words are graphically represented, namely spelling conventions, uniquely contribute to word reading development (Tighe & Binder, 2012; Zaric et al., 2020; Apel et al., 2012; Conrad et al., 2013; Deacon, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Nagy et al., 2003; Roman et al., 2009).

Orthographic knowledge is two-fold, encompassing both the knowledge of letter-clusters (word-specific knowledge) and general spelling conventions of the writing system (general knowledge) (Zaric, Nagler & Hasselhorn, 2020; Conrad et al. 2013; Rothe et al. 2015). On the one hand, word-specific knowledge entails an understanding of spelling rules of specific words. Adequate lexical graphic representation is conducive to skilled spelling and reading fluency (Ehri, 2014). The contribution of word-specific knowledge to word spelling and reading is attested across various linguistic backgrounds and among different language groups (Greek: Georgiou et al. 2008; Persian: Nassaji, 2014; Arabic- Fender, 2003, 2008; Dutch: Bekebrede et al. 2009; English: Conrad et al. 2013; Deacon et al., 2012). On the other hand, general orthographic knowledge is the overall manipulation of legal letter patterns represented in the writing system. It includes which letter cluster is frequently or rarely possible in different positions, i.e., word-

Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

83

initial, middle, or word-final (Zaric et al., 2020). As to the effect of general orthographic awareness on reading as well as spelling, several studies report positive statistical correlations. Conrad et al (2013) identify a significant variance reinforced by general orthographic knowledge in reading (9%) and spelling proficiency (7%). Other research studies link general orthographic knowledge to spelling rather than reading skills (e.g., Ise et al., 2012).

Reading Comprehension

The higher goal of learning to read is comprehension, which is so complex that it does not evolve in a vacuum. Reading comprehension reflects readers' understanding of vocabulary and grammar (syntactic awareness) to generate text meanings. It also involves relating external knowledge (background knowledge) with extracted input information to construct new meanings. In this vein, reading comprehension, in monolingual and equally bilingual contexts, occurs as a result of the combination of lower-level skills, such as word recognition, and higher-order thinking skills like activating prior knowledge and inferencing. For instance, findings from adult reading research correlates adequate word-level text processes, such as grapho-phonic processes, with reading comprehension especially among university student with persistent record of reading difficulties (Stanovich, 2000; Parrila & Georgiou, 2007; Nassaji, 2014). As to children word reading research, findings indicate that reading comprehension among school-aged children hinges upon fluent and efficient word recognition skills (Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2003; Cain & Oakhill, 2006; Verhoeven & Van Leeuwe, 2009).

Comprehension is also triggered by the contribution of linguistic components, namely phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographic processing skills. Tighe et al (2019) examine the unique and shared relatedness of phonological awareness to reading comprehension skills of struggling adult readers. The methodology consists of a battery of administered assessment materials germane to decoding and phonological awareness. Tighe and colleagues' findings (2019) culminate in pinpointing a strong correlation between phonological awareness, decoding and oral vocabulary knowledge one the one hand and reading comprehension on the other hand (Tighe et al., 2019). Abu Rabia and

Shakour's study on the transfer of reading skills (2014) purports that general orthographic knowledge contributes to reading comprehension. He further suggests that orthographic knowledge is transferred across languages regardless of the orthographic type (Abu Rabia & Shakour 2014). Moreover, a significant body of research relates orthographic processing to reading comprehension (Apel et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Nagy et al., 2003 Conrad et al., 2013).

Theories of Transfer and the Current Study

In this quasi-experimental study project, we aim to investigate the occurrence of a reversed transfer of major linguistic skills involved in reading among learners with reading difficulties. The transfer process is described in terms of the effect an intervention program exerts on metalinguistic awareness abilities. The objective is to check whether developing English (L2) literacy skills through extensive print practice and exposure yields a similar improvement in Arabic (L1) reading abilities suggesting a retroactive transfer of reading skills (Abu Rabia & Wattad, 2022; Feder & Abu Rabia, 2022; Abu Rabia et al., 2013). The ongoing study develops Abu Rabia and colleagues's hypothesis on "Cognitive Retroactive Transfer" (CRT) which postulates that transfer of skills can take a unidirectional mode: from the target language (L2 or L3) to the mother language (L1) (Abu Rabia, 2012; Abu Rabia & Shakour, 2014). The CRT, a recent hypothesis introduced in the field, extends Cummin's Linguistic Interdependence Theory (Cummin's, 2000). The latter looks at fully-fledged L1 skills as a model facilitating the learning of other languages. Under the compass of the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis, it is contended that once learners attain proficiency in their first language, learning a second language becomes relatively easier. Furthermore, we aim to question the Orthographic-Depth Hypothesis which undermines the transferability aspect of linguistic skills across typologically distinct languages. In this longitudinal study, we target a different school-age group, peculiarly adult readers at the university level. We beg to address the following research questions and related hypotheses:

Question 1. Would major metalinguistic awareness skills in English be developed through extensive print experience?

H¹. There would be a positive effect of the reading intervention program on English linguistic skills, more particularly phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and reading comprehension in the experimental group performance.

Question 2. Would learning spelling conventions and allowed letter patterns have an impact on orthographic knowledge in English?

H². Remedial lessons on spelling system are expected to boost the participants' specific and general orthographic knowledge in English.

Question 3. Which reading skills correlate more with reading comprehension in both English and Arabic?

H³. We expect that phonological awareness and morphological knowledge would correlate positively with reading comprehension more than orthographic knowledge.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants were university students from the School of Arts and Humanities (FLSH Ben M'sik) at Hassan II University of Casablanca. All students were enrolled as freshmen at the English department. At first, seventy students took a battery of reading tests in both English and Arabic. Only thirty students, who were selected as our final sample, demonstrated weaknesses in the targeted reading skills. A background questionnaire was subsequently administered to investigate students' literacy practices both at school and home. The participants were, then, divided into two main groups: experimental and control groups of which female participants formed 46%.

Tools

To scrutinize the effects of the intervention program on reading skills both in English and Arabic, a battery of tests was administered to the participants. Students take a total of 16 tests in English and Arabic- 8 in each language – before and after the intervention. The tests measure common reading skills such as Phonological Awareness, Orthographic Knowledge, Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension. The English tests were adapted from the *York Adult Assessment Battery-Revised (YAA-R) , A*

Curriculum Guide for Reading Mentors, *Advance English Vocabulary in* Use, Teaching English Spelling: A Practical Guide and *Inspire a Life of Reading*. The Arabic Tests were adapted from *Qiyyas Al-Arabiya: A Standard Proficiency Test of Arabic Native Speakers*.

Procedure

All the participants took a series of reading tests in a quiet room at the English Department in the School of Arts and Human Sciences Ben M'sik. The experimenters administered the first linguistic tests over a period of two weeks. The participants were tested in small groups and in successive manner to lessen anxiety and feelings of boredom. The groups commenced with the three tests, namely phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographic knowledge which all demanded little time given the number of tasks assigned (approximately 45 minutes were allotted to all tests in each language except reading comprehension).

Afterwards, the participants completed the reading comprehension task. Once the first testing stage in English ended, another session with students was held to administer the same tests in Arabic. This phase was called the pre-intervention phase in which the cohorts were split into two major groups: experimental and control. Upon completing the pre-test phase, the authors designated reading intervention lessons based on the participants' scores. The intervention program was primarily a compilation of reading remedial lessons. As to the time framework, the intervention program was a longitudinal study that spread over a whole semester with classes of 90 minutes taking place twice a week. The intervention comprises these major elements: decoding (phonics), vocabulary (affixes, syllables, word building) and comprehension strategies (inferencing, skimming, summarizing, etc.).

Results

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the effect of the reading intervention program on the experimental group's performance. The results demonstrated a positive improvement in the performance of the participants after the end of the experiment in both English and Arabic. The t-test analysis displayed in Table 1 (English tests' scores) revealed a statistically significant increase in the scores of the participants in phonological awareness before (M= 0,39; SD= 0,08) to After (M= 0,57; SD=

Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

87

0,12), t= 4,846, p<.001. As to orthographic knowledge, there was a conspicuous improvement after receiving training on English spelling and orthographic conventions (Before M= 0,48; SD=.120 to After M=0,68; SD=.124, P<.001). The same development was attested at the levels of, morphology and reading comprehension. A similar development in major reading skills in Arabic occurred. A comparison of the measured variables before and after the intervention phase clearly yielded statistical significance. Phonological awareness means scores as demonstrated in the t-test analysis (Table 2) increased (Before M= 0,5; SD= .16 to After M=0,74; SD=.22, p<.001). Interestingly, the treatment group performed well on the Arabic orthographic knowledge test at the post-intervention phase (Before M=0,38; SD=.10 to After M=0,61; SD=.13, p<.001). However, the English tests' scores were significantly higher than the ones obtained from the Arabic tests.

Table 1

Means, Standard deviations and Paired Differences in the Experimental Group's English Scores Obtained before and after the Reading Intervention, with a P Value <.001.

Skill	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Phonological Awareness	0,3917 (0,08669)	0,5750 (0,12320)	-0,18333	0,1465	0,03783	-0,26447	-0,1022	-4,846	14	0.000
Orthographic Knowledge	0,480 (0,1207)	0,687 (0,1246)	-0,2067	0,171	0,0441	-0,3014	-0,112	-4,681	14	0.000
Morphological Awareness -	0,500 (0,1309)	0,687 (0,1246)	-0,1867	0,1125	0,0291	-0,249	-0,1243	-6,424	14	0.000
Reading Comprehension	0,37733 (0,13345)	0,6467 (0,15523)	-0,27333	0,1791	0,04626	-0,37254	-0,17412	-5,909	14	0.000

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations and Paired Differences in the Experimental Group's Arabic Scores Obtained before and after the Reading Intervention, with a P Value <.001.

Skill	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
						Lower	Upper				
Phonological Awareness	0,5000 (0,16060	0,7444 (0,22153	-0,24444	0,20036	0,05173	-0,3554	-0,13349	-4,725	14	0.000
Orthographic Knowledge	0,380 (0,1082)	0,613 (0,1302)	-0,2333	0,1234	0,0319	-0,3017	-0,165	-7,321	14	0.000
Morphological Awareness -	0,407 (0,1280)	0,613 (0,1302)	-0,2067	0,1387	0,0358	-0,2835	-0,1299	-5,771	14	0.000
Reading Comprehension	0,3867 (0,11255)	0,8762 (0,15144)	-0,48952	0,1028	0,02654	-0,54645	-0,4326	-18,443	14	0.000

Compared to the treatment group, the control group's performance over the English and Arabic test battery leveled off over the two phases of the intervention. Table 3 showed no statistical significance in the control group's tests scores:

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations and Paired Differences in the Control Group's English Scores Obtained before and after the Reading Intervention, with a P Value <.001.

Skill	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Mean	SD	Std.Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
						Lower	Upper				
Phonological Awareness	0,2958 (0,11685)	0,2833 (0,11046)	0,0125		0,0253	-0,04175	0,06675	0,494	14	0,629
Orthographic Knowledge	0,473 (0,1580)	0,427 (0,1438)	0,0467	0,2532	0,0654	-0,0935	0,1869	0,714	14	0,487
Morphological Awareness -	0,393 (0,1486)	0,427 (0,1438)	-0,0333		0,0398	-0,1188	0,0521	-0,837	14	0,417
Reading Comprehension	0,4133 (0,14573)	0,4267 (0,12228)	-0,0133	0,15055	0,03887	-0,09671	0,07004	-0,343	14	0,737

Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

89

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations and Paired Differences in the Control Group's Arabic Scores Obtained before and after the Reading Intervention, with a P Value <.001.

| Skill | Before Mean (SD) | After Mean (SD) | Paired Differences | | | | | | | | |
| | | | Mean | SD | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
						Lower	Upper			
Phonological Awareness	0,3333 (-0,09449)	0,3444 (0,09379)	-0,0111	0,11729	0,03028	-0,07606	0,05384	-0,36	14	0,719
Orthographic Knowledge	0,353 (-0,1598)	0,367 (0,1291)	-0,0133	0,2066	0,0533	-0,1277	0,1011	-0,25	14	0,806
Morphological Awareness	0,327 (-0,1387)	0,367 (0,1291)	-0,04	0,2131	0,055	-0,158	0,078	-0,7	14	0,479
Reading Comprehension	0,581 (-0,21235)	0,4 (0,1069)	0,18095	0,16096	0,04156	0,09181	0,27009	4,35	14	0,001

We analyzed the relationship between comprehension and the other variables (namely phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and orthographic knowledge) to check if they have unique or shared contribution to reading comprehension. To verify the strength and direction of linear relationship between reading comprehension and one of the three variables mentioned, we conducted the Pearson's (r) correlation test. Table 5 below describes the bonding of the variables to each other with reading comprehension. The Pearson's correlation of morphological and phonological awareness skills and reading comprehension was found to be moderately positive and statistically significant (morphological awareness r=.44, p<.001; phonological awareness r=.65, p<.001). These correlational results are in line with the results reported from Tighe et al (2019):

Table 5

Correlational Analysis

		Post_ Phonological Awareness	Post_ Orthographic Knowledge	Post_ Morphological Awareness	Post_ Reading Comprehension
Post_ Phonological Awareness		_			
Post_ Orthographic Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	0,122			
	P value	0,355	_		
Post_ Morphological Awareness	Pearson Correlation	,542**	,328*	_	
	P value	0	0,011		_
Post_ Reading Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	,657**	0,093	,442**	
	P value	0	0,478	0	

Correlation is significant at **P < 0.01.

* P< 0.05.

Findings

Our findings add up to the general precepts underpinned by the Cognitive Retroactive Transfer (Abu Rabia & Wattad, 2022; Abu Rabia & Shakour, 2014). The CRT hypothesis was fully confirmed among adult university readers. The findings are further in accordance with the results reported from Abu Rabia and Shakour's study on the effect of implementing a reading program on the gestation of basic metalinguistic skills across distinct orthographies (Abu Rabia & Shakour, 2014). There was a positive transfer of major metalinguistic and reading skills from English (L2) to Arabic (L1). First, as far as the treatment group's post-tests are concerned, phonological awareness skills in English improved after receiving supplementary lessons on phonics. This development was clearly reflected in Arabic as well without receiving any formal instruction of Arabic sound system. However, the control group's test results tailed off suggesting, thus, no adequate improvement over the two phases. This reversed transfer was extended to morphology in which the treatment group's posttest results were higher than the ones obtained at the pre-intervention phase. Morphological awareness, in the context of the ongoing research paper, is subject to transfer irrespective of the straightforward unidirectional mode,

Examining a Reversed Cross-language Transfer of Core Metalinguistic Awareness Skills among Moroccan University Students with Reading Difficulties: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Study

91

i.e., from L1 to L2 and not vice versa, which is advocated by a great deal of research body in the literature (Wang et al., 2009; Saigh-Haddad & Geva, 2008). Additionally, enhancing students' spelling skills and conventional letter patterns throughout the experiment had significant impact on English orthographic knowledge and later Arabic despite the differences in terms of letter-to-sound correspondences featuring the two languages. The transfer of orthographic skills from English, which is relatively less-transparent, to Arabic, a transparent language, does not only lend support to the Cognitive Retroactive Transfer Hypothesis but also challenges the Orthographic-Depth Hypothesis that accentuates the role of extensive print exposure while learning two typologically distinct orthographies. Finally, transfer also occurs at the level of reading comprehension as shown by the treatment group's tests results.

Implications

The current study has the following pedagogical implications. The pretest' results suggest that reading difficulties, if not addressed earlier in childhood, may be persistent over time and that academic success is ascribed to literacy achievements at the university level. Also, the study proved that specialized interventions at the university level can be effective tools to cope with reading disabilities among students with a history of literacy issues. To better implement university intervention courses of this type, language teachers, especially Reading Comprehension instructors, are called to measure both lower- and higher-level reading competencies using standardized tests. Finally, foreign language teachers can collaborate to devise unified testing and instructional reading materials since struggling readers may very well face difficulties while reading in unrelated orthographies.

CONCLUSION

In this research paper, we checked whether improving metalinguistic skills related to reading would be transferrable across two typologically languages, namely English and Arabic. More particularly, we examined the occurrence of a reversed transfer from English to Arabic would take place following extensive print exposure and practice. We further extrapolated the principles of the Cognitive Retroactive Transfer Hypothesis over

different population, adult university readers, which formed the innovation of the present study.

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93

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95

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STUDY OF DEVELOPMENT EFFECTIVE SPEECH RUBRİC

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Abstract

Developing speaking skills is one of the most basic aims of mother tongue teaching. One of the important stages in the development of speaking skill is evaluation. When the limited number of measurement tools related to the measurement of speaking skill in the literature are scanned, it is seen that have weaknesses from different aspects and criticisms draw to attention. Uncertainties or deficiencies regarding what the measured feature is or level score represents what draws attention in existing measurement tools. The aim of this study is to develop an effective speaking rubric that can be used in all types of speech, which deals with the features that should be found in the nature of an effective speech separately, gives clear feedback to the students about their performance, and provides a more objective measurement by defining each sub-skill level separately. This study is a survey-designed research aiming to develop an effective speaking rubric with high validity and reliability. The study group of the research consists of a total of 66 Fine Arts Education students studying at a state university in the spring semester of the

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2017-2018 academic year and taking Oral Expression course. In the development of an effective speaking rubric, a literature review was conducted, and accordingly, an item pool was created, the opinions of experts in the field were consulted, and pre-test studies were carried out. Consisting of 21 items, the scale was developed as a triple rubric. The items used in the scale describe three different performance levels of the target behavior. In the application, the participants spoke in front of the audience, and the scoring was done by two different Turkish teachers. During the application, the participants spoke in front of the audience, and the scoring was done by two different Turkish teachers. Kappa Fit Analysis and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation test were used in the analysis of the data. As a result of the research, it was seen that the change in the item scores of the participants from both raters was similar, there was a high level of positive correlation between the total scores, and it was concluded that the developed rubric was a valid and reliable measurement tool. The developed scale can also be used in other studies that require the measurement of speaking skills. In addition, it is recommended to use the scale for teachers and academicians in the assessment and evaluation phase of oral lecture courses.

Keywords: Rubric, speaking skills, assessment and evaluation, oral expression

Etkili Konuşma Rubriği Gelişti̇rme Çalişmasi

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Özet

Konuşma becerisini geliştirmek, anadili öğretiminin en temel amaçlarından biridir. Konuşma becerisinin geliştirilmesinde önemli aşamalardan biri de değerlendirmedir. Alanyazındaki konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesine ilişkin sınırlı sayıdaki ölçme araçları tarandığında değişik yönlerden zayıflıkların ortaya çıktığı, eleştirilerin gündeme geldiği görülmektedir. Mevcut ölçme araçlarında ölçülen özelliğin ne olduğu ya da hangi düzey puanın neyi ifade ettiğine ilişkin belirsizlikler ya da eksiklikler dikkati çekmektedir. Dereceli puanlama anahtarıyla (rubrik) yapılacak ölçmenin bu belirsizliğin ortadan kaldırılmasına ya da en alt düzeylere çekilmesine katkı sağlayacağı

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düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı; tüm konuşma türlerinde kullanılabilecek, etkili bir konuşmanın doğasında bulunması gereken özellikleri ayrı ayrı ele alan, öğrencilere performansları hakkında açık bir şekilde dönüt veren ve her alt beceri düzeyini ayrı ayrı tanımlayarak daha nesnel bir ölçme sağlayan bir etkili konuşma rubriği geliştirmektir. Bu çalışma, geçerliği ve güvenirliği yüksek bir etkili konuşma rubriği geliştirmeyi amaçlayan tarama desenli bir araştırmadır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılının bahar yarıyılında bir devlet üniversitesinde eğitim gören ve Sözlü Anlatım dersi almakta olan toplam 66 Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi bölümü öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Etkili konuşma rubriğinin geliştirilmesinde sırasıyla alanyazın taraması yapılmış ve buna bağlı olarak madde havuzu oluşturulmuş, alanında uzman kişilerin görüşüne başvurulmuş, ön deneme çalışmaları yapılmıştır. 21 maddelik ölçek üçlü rubrik tipinde geliştirilmiştir. Ölçekte kullanılan maddeler hedef davranışın üç farklı performans düzeyini tanımlar niteliktedir. Uygulamada katılımcılar dinleyiciler karşısında konuşmuş, puanlama iki farklı Türkçe öğretmeni tarafından yapılmıştır. Verilerin analizinde Kappa Uyum Analizi ve Pearson Product-Moment Korelasyon testi kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda, katılımcıların her iki puanlayıcıdan aldıkları madde puanları değişiminin benzer olduğu, toplam puanlar arasında da yüksek düzeyde pozitif bir korelasyon olduğu görülmüş ve geliştirilen rubriğin geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Geliştirilen ölçek, konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesini gerektiren başka çalışmalarda da kullanılabilir. Aynı zamanda ölçeğin öğretmen ve akademisyenler için sözlü anlatıma yönelik derslerin ölçme ve değerlendirme aşamasında kullanılması önerilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dereceli puanlama anahtarı, konuşma becerisi, ölçme ve değerlendirme, sözlü anlatım

GİRİŞ

İnsan toplumsal bir varlıktır, bunun bir gereği olarak çevresindeki insanlarla iletişim kurma gereksinimi duyar. Türkçe Sözlük'te iletişim; duygu, düşünce, hayal veya bilgilerin akla gelebilecek her türlü yolla başkalarına aktarılabilmesi, bildirişim, haberleşme, telekomünikasyon şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (TDK, 1996: 1069). İletişimin en önemli ögesi olan dili anlama ve anlatma becerileriyle ilişkilendirdiğimizde çok geniş bir çerçevede ele almış oluruz. Bu çalışmada dil kavramı, anlatma becerilerinden biri olan ve Türkçe öğretim programında da yerini bulan konuşma becerisi ile olan ilişkisi açısından ele alınmıştır.

İnsanın sosyalleşmesinde önemli bir beceri olan konuşma, hayatın birçok alanını etkileyen ve yönlendiren bir özelliğe sahiptir. Konuşma, düşünce

dünyamızı dışarıya aktarmamızın birincil yoludur (Kıymaz & Doyumğaç, 2020; Koç, Kıymaz & Doyumğaç, 2020). Bu denli önemli bir beceri olan konuşmanın etkili şekilde yapılması kuşkusuz insan yaşamında birçok bakımdan yarar sağlamaktadır

Etkili bir konuşma; konuşmanın zihinsel ve fiziksel ögelerinin uyum içinde olmasıyla gerçekleşebilir. Bu bakımdan; dilbilgisi kuralları, dilin toplumsal yapısı ve söylem yetkinliğinin bir arada olması etkili konuşmanın ön koşullarıdır (Canale & Swain 1980). Bunun için konuşmada bilgilerin doğru aktarılması ve toplumsal iletişimin doğru biçimde sağlanması gerekmektedir (Brown & Yule, 1983). Yalçın (2002), etkili konuşmayı bir kimsenin başkaları karşısında, önceden plânlanmamış olsa bile duygu, dilek ve düşüncelerini etkili bir biçimde anlatma becerisi olarak tanımlamıştır. Temizyürek vd. (2011) ise etkili konuşmanın, konuşmacı tarafından kodlanan her türlü mesajın konuşma ilkelerine uygun olarak ve dinleyicinin en üst düzeyde etkilenmesini sağlayacak biçimde karşı tarafa iletilmesiyle meydana geldiğini belirtmiştir. Etkili konuşma farklı biçimlerde tanımlansa da alanyazında önemle vurgulanan bir kavram olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Konuşma becerisinin değerlendirilebilmesi için bir konuşmanın hangi boyutlardan ya da bileşenlerden oluştuğu ve iyi bir konuşmada bu boyut ve bileşenlerin taşıması gereken özelliklerin ne olduğunun saptanması gerekir. Türkçe anadili konuşucularının konuşma becerilerini değerlendirmede kullanılacak bir konuşma becerisi yeterlik çerçevesi bulunmadığını ifade eden Bozkurt'a göre (2017) konuşma becerisi değerlendirme çerçevesi içerik, söyleyiş, akıcılık, etkileşim ve dil yetkinliği boyutlarından oluşmalıdır.

Alanyazın tarandığında iyi bir konuşmanın taşıması gereken belli başlı nitelikler olduğu belirtilmektedir. Öncelikle konuşmanın bir amacının olması yanında içeriğinin inandırıcılığı ve güvenilirliği önemli hususlardır. Ayrıca konuşmanın hedef kitleye uygunluğu ve konuşmacının sesini ve beden dilini doğru ve etkili kullanabilmesi iyi bir konuşmanın önemli nitelikleri arasında yer almaktadır. Bu noktada konuşma becerisinin değerlendirilmesi de bu ölçütler doğrultusunda şekillenecektir.

1.Konuşmanın Amacı: Konuşma becerisinin doğru değerlendirilebilmesinin ilk koşulu konuşmanın belli bir amacının olup olmadığının saptanmasıdır. Her konuşma belli bir amaca yönelik olmalıdır. Bu doğrultuda diğer ögeler de bu amaca yönelik olmalı, konuşmayı bütünlemelidir.

2. Konuşmanın Güvenilirliği: İyi bir konuşmada içerik güvenilir bilgilere dayanmalıdır. Bu, etkili bir konuşmada içeriğin ön koşuludur. Dayanakları güvenilir olmayan bir konuşma etkili olamaz.

3. Konuşmanın İnandırıcılığı: Konuşmada inandırıcılık güvenilirlikle doğrudan ilişkili olmakla birlikte konuşmacının genel ve mantıksal düzenini de zorunlu kılar. Güvenilir bir içeriğe sahip bir konuşma, belli bir düzen akışında doğrudan konuşmanın inandırıcılığına katkı sağlar. Belli başlı ana ve yardımcı düşünceler sunularak açıklamalarla ve görsellerle desteklenir.

4. Konuşmanın Hedef Kitleye Uygunluğu: Konuşmacı, konuşmanın amacına ulaşması için dinleyici kitlenin niteliğini dikkate almak durumundadır. Dinleyici kitlenin yaşı, dil düzeyi, ilgi alanı, eğilimleri, zihinsel düzeyi konuşmanın yapılandırılmasında göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Bu temel nitelikleri göz önünde bulundurmayan bir konuşmanın etkili olması olanaksızdır.

5. Konuşmacının Sesini ve Beden Dilini Doğru ve Etkili Kullanabilmesi: Sesini ayarlama, işitilebilir sesle konuşma, doğru sesletim yapma, gereksiz seslerden kaçınma, doğru vurgu-tonlama- duraklama yapma, jest ve mimiklerin anlamla uyumu, sesin doğallığı 2006 Türkçe Öğretim Programında (MEB,2006) sesini ve beden dilini etkili kullanmayla ilgili olarak karşımıza çıkan unsurlardır. Ses ve beden diliyle ilgili bu ögelerin hem etkili bir konuşmada hem de konuşmanın değerlendirilmesinde mutlaka göz önünde bulundurulması gerekir. Bütün bu ses ve beden diliyle ilgili ögelerin varlığı, konuşmanın ikna ediciliğine katkı sunarak etkisini güçlendirir. Ayrıca dinleyici kitlesinin konuşmayı sıkılmadan dinlemesini sağlar.

Konuşma becerisi ile ilgili bir performansın değerlendirilmesi, bu becerinin tüm alt boyutlarının ayrı ayrı gözden geçirilmesini ve farklı performans düzeylerine karşılık gelen bir derecelendirme yapılmasını gerektirir.

Geçerliği yüksek bir ölçüm için performansa dayalı değerlendirme daha uygun olacaktır. Bileşenleri ve ölçütleri belirlenen iyi ve etkili bir konuşmanın ölçülmesi de önem taşıyan bir konudur.

Performans düzeylerini en iyi saptamanın yolu dereceli puanlama anahtarı (rubrik) kullanmaktır. Sezer'e göre (2005) öğretmenlerin rubrik kullanması onlara daha tutarlı ve nesnel bir puanlama yaptığını hissettirir. Konuşma becerisi gibi çok boyutlu yapıdaki performanslar değerlendirilirken nesnelliği yüzde yüz sağlayan bir araç olmasa da rubrik kullanarak ölçmede güvenirliği sağlamak ve değerlendirmede kullanılan ölçütleri öğrencilere aktarmak, aynı zamanda kendi performansları hakkında onlara dönüt vermek daha kolay ve uygulanabilir olur. Bu nedenle etkili konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesinde de farklı ölçme araçlarıyla ya da somut ölçütlere dayanmadan yapılan ölçme yerine rubrik kullanmak daha anlamlı ve sağlıklı olacaktır. Konuşma becerisi gibi performansa dayalı süreçlerin rubrik ile ölçülmesi hem nesnellik hem de açık şekilde dönüt imkânı sunması bakımından oldukça faydalıdır ancak konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesinde zaten kısıtlı olan ölçme araçları tarandığında rubrik türünde geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması yapılmış bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır.

Bozkurt ve Akkök (2019)'e göre Türkçe konuşma becerisinin değerlendirilmesiyle ilgili geliştirilen ölçek sayısı, bir elin parmaklarını geçmemektedir. Bu çalışmalar içinde ölçek geliştirme çalışmalarının sayısı daha azdır (Çintaş-Yıldız ve Yavuz, 2012; Kuzu ve Suna, 2012). Diğer çalışmalar ise ölçek geliştirme amaçlı yapılmamış olup, herhangi bir değişkenin konuşma becerisine etkisini ölçmek ya da konuşma becerisine ilişkin durum saptamak için veri toplama aracı olarak geliştirilen gözlem ve değerlendirme formlarıdır (Aykaç, 2011; Bulut, 2015; Erdem, 2012; Gürhan, 2013; Kartallıoğlu, 2015; Sallabaş, 2011; Temizkan ve Atasoy, 2015; Yüceer, 2014).

Etkili konuşma rubriğinin geliştirilmesinde önce alanyazın taraması yapılmış, Türkçe dersi öğretim programlarında yer alan kazanımlar incelenmiş ve ardından madde havuzu oluşturularak, taslak bir rubrik geliştirilmiştir. Taslak ölçekle ilgili Türkçe ve Türk Dili Edebiyatı öğretmenleri ile Türkçe Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında görev yapan öğretim elemanlarından görüş alınmıştır. Uzman görüşüne başvurma ölçeğin kapsam geçerliğini test etmek için başvurulan mantıksal yollardan biridir.

Uzmandan beklenen taslak ölçekte yer alan maddeleri kapsam geçerliği bakımından değerlendirmesidir (Büyüköztürk, 2014: 180). Elde edilen bilgilerden yola çıkarak madde havuzu oluşturulmuştur. Maddeler oluşturulurken maddelerin yalın ve anlaşılır bir dilde olmasına, olumlu ve olumsuz ifadelerin olmasına, olgusal ifadelerin olmamasına ve bir maddenin birden fazla yargı barındırmamasına dikkat edilmiştir. Son hâlinde 21 madde bulunan ölçek üçlü rubrik tipinde geliştirilmiştir. Ölçekte kullanılan maddeler hedef davranışın üç farklı performans düzeyini karşılar niteliktedir. Deneme uygulaması yapılıp, ölçeğe son şekli verildikten sonra uygulama aşamasına geçilmiştir.

YÖNTEM

Araştırma Deseni

Bu çalışma, geçerliği ve güvenirliği yüksek, etkili konuşma becerisine yönelik bir rubrik geliştirmeyi hedefleyen tarama desenli bir araştırmadır. Çalışmanın genel amacına bağlı olarak araştırma soruları şu şekildedir:

1) Farklı puanlayıcılar tarafından Etkili Konuşma Rubriği ile yapılan puanlamada konuşmacıların aynı maddeden aldıkları puanlar arasındaki uyum hangi düzeydedir?

2) Farklı puanlayıcılar tarafından Etkili Konuşma Rubriği ile yapılan puanlamada konuşmacıların aldıkları toplam puanlar arasındaki uyum hangi düzeydedir?

Bu uyum düzeyleri, geliştirilen Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin geçerlik ve güvenirliği ile kullanılabilir bir ölçme aracı olup olmadığı konusunda kanıt oluşturacaktır.

Araştırma-Çalışma Grubu

 Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılının bahar yarıyılında bir devlet üniversitesinde öğrenim gören ve "Sözlü Anlatım" dersini almakta olan toplam 57 Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi bölümü öğrencisi oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma grubu amaçlı örneklem yöntemine bağlı kolay ulaşılabilir durum örneklemesi yöntemine göre seçilmiştir.

Verilerin Toplanması

Uygulamada katılımcılar dinleyiciler karşısında en az 5 dakika süreyle konuşmuş, puanlama iki farklı Türkçe öğretmeni tarafından yapılmıştır.

Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik

Bu puanlama neticesinde elde edilen veriler uygun kodlamalar yapıldıktan sonra SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences versiyon 24.0.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, ABD) programına aktarılmıştır. İstatistiksel anlamlılık $p < 0,05$ düzeyinde değerlendirilmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi

Verilerin analizinde puanlayıcılar arasında her katılımcının madde puanları arasındaki değişimin ne kadar uyumlu olduğunu belirlemek amacıyla Kappa Uyum Analizi ve puanlayıcılar arasındaki toplam puanların korelasyonunu belirlemek amacıyla Pearson Product-Moment Korelasyon testi kullanılmıştır. Puanlayıcılar arası güvenirlik belirlemede sıklıkla kullanılan Kappa istatistiği veya Kappa Uyum Ölçümü (Kappa Measure of Agreement), Cohen (1960) tarafından önerilmiş olup sınıflama düzeyinde puanlama yapan iki puanlayıcı arasındaki uyumun derecesini belirlemek için geliştirilmiştir (Cohen, 1960). Kappa istatistik değeri **(κ)** -1 ile +1 arasında değer alabilir ve κ=+1 ise iki puanlayıcının sonuçları tümüyle birbiri ile uyumludur şeklinde, κ=0 ise iki puanlayıcının arasındaki uyum sadece şansa bağlıdır şeklinde ve κ=-1 ise iki puanlayıcının tümüyle birbirinin tersini değerlendirmektedir şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Ayrıca κ istatistik değerlerinin pozitif olması, puanlayıcılar arasında tesadüfen çıkabilecek olası uyumdan daha yüksek düzeyde uyum olduğuna işaret etmektedir (Landis ve Koch, 1977).

BULGULAR

21 maddelik Etkili Konuşma Rubriği, Sözlü Anlatım dersini almakta olan Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi bölümü öğrencilerinin etkili konuşma becerilerinin değerlendirilmesinde kullanılmış olup alanında uzman iki farklı Türkçe öğretmeni tarafından yapılan puanlamanın analizi sonucunda Tablo 1'de yer alan bilgilere ulaşılmıştır:

Tablo 1

Etkili Konuşma Rubriği ile Yapılan Puanlamaların Kappa İstatistiğiyle Hesaplanan Güvenirlik Değerleri (N=57)

Puanlama Yapan Puanlayıcı Sayısı	Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Kategorileri	Kappa İstatistiği Değeri (κ)	p	Madde Uyum Sayısı /57
	Mantıksal Bütünlük	1,000	0.000	57
	Düşünceyi Geliştirme Yolları	0,674	0.000	53
	Strateji Gereklerine Uyum	0,424	0.001	49
	Beden Dili	0,468	0.000	39
	Kelime Anlamı	1,00	0.000	57
	Göz Teması	0,258	0.030	37
	İşitilebilirlik	0,643	0.000	46
	Telaffuz	0,531	0.000	49
	Akıcılık	0,418	0.000	38
	Tonlama	0,274	0.037	45
2	Standart Türkçe	0,661	0.000	56
	Vurgulama	0,233	0.025	32
	Gereksiz Hareketler	0,244	0.025	41
	Tekrara Düşme	0,659	0.000	50
	Yapmacıklık, Taklit, Özenti	0,490	0.000	48
	Jest-Mimik Uyumu	0,473	0.000	43
	Türkçe Kuralları	0,450	0.000	51
	Yabancı Sözcük Kullanımı	0,367	0.001	48
	Atasözü, Deyim, Söz Sanatları	0,230	0.005	29
	Süre Kullanımı	0,372	0.002	40
	Nefes	0,409	0.000	43

Elde edilen kappa katsayısı (κ) değerlerini yorumlamak için Landis ve Koch, aşağıdaki sınıflandırmayı geliştirmiş olup κ değeri;

< 0 ise şansa bağlı olabilecek uyumdan daha kötü uyum olması,

0.01 — 0.20 arasında ise önemsiz düzeyde uyum olması,

0.21 — 0.40 arasında ise zayıf düzeyde uyum olması,

0.41 — 0.60 arasında ise orta düzeyde uyum olması,

0.61 — 0.80 arasında ise iyi düzeyde uyum olması,

0.81 — 1.00 arasında ise çok iyi düzeyde uyum olması anlamına gelmektedir.

Verilen bu sınıflandırma kapsamında Tablo 1'de verilen Kappa uyum analizi sonuçları değerlendirildiğinde;

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Mantıksal Bütünlük kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında çok iyi düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=1,00; $p<0.001$; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 57/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Düşünceyi Geliştirme Yolları kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında iyi düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,67; $p<0.001$; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 53/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Strateji Gereklerine Uyum kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında orta düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,42; $p=0.001$; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 49/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Beden Dili kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında orta düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,47; $p<0.001$; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 39/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Kelime Anlamı kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında çok iyi düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 1,00; $p<0.001$; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 57/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin Göz Teması kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında zayıf düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,26; p=0.030; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 37/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **İşitilebilirlik** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **iyi** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,64; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 46/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Telaffuz** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,53; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 49/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Akıcılık** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,42; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 38/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Tonlama** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,27; **p=0.037**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 45/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Standart Türkçe** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **iyi** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,66; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 56/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Vurgulama** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu

ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,23; **p=0.025**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 32/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Gereksiz Hareketler** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,24; **p=0.025**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 41/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Tekrara Düşme** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **iyi** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,66; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 50/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Yapmacıklık, Taklit, Özenti** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,49; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 48/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Jest-Mimik Uyumu** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,47; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 43/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Türkçe Kuralları** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,45; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 51/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Yabancı Sözcük Kullanımı** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı

bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ = 0,37; **p=0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 48/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Atasözü, Deyim, Söz Sanatları** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,23; **p=0.005**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 29/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Süre Kullanımı** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **zayıf** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,37; **p=0.002**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 40/57).

İki puanlayıcının verdikleri puanlar arasındaki uyumu elde etmek amacıyla Etkili Konuşma Rubriğinin **Nefes** kategorisi için hesaplanan Kappa değeri; iki puanlayıcı arasında **orta** düzeyde bir uyumun olduğunu ve bu uyumun da istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bulunduğunu göstermektedir (κ=0,41; **p<0.001**; katılımcı uyum sayısı: 43/57).

Her iki puanlayıcının Güzel Sanatlar Eğitimi bölümü öğrencilerinin performansları hakkında işaretledikleri madde düzeylerine göre düşükten yükseğe 1-2-3 ile çarpılarak katılımcıların toplam puanları elde edilmiştir. Elde edilen bu toplam puanlar arasındaki ilişki Pearson Product-Moment Korelasyon testi ile incelenmiştir. Korelasyon katsayısı r<0.2 ise çok zayıf ilişki ya da korelasyon yok 0.2-0.4 arasında ise zayıf korelasyon 0.4-0.6 arasında ise orta şiddette korelasyon 0.6-0.8 arasında ise yüksek korelasyon 0.8> ise çok yüksek korelasyon olduğu yorumu yapılır. İstatistiksel anlamlılık p<0,05 düzeyinde değerlendirilmiştir. Yapılan korelasyon analizi sonucunda; birinci puanlayıcının öğrencilere verdiği toplam puanlar ile ikinci puanlayıcının öğrencilere verdiği toplam puanlar arasında yüksek düzeyde ve pozitif yönlü bir korelasyonun olduğu, birinci puanlayıcının öğrencilere verdiği toplam puanlarlar arttıkça ikinci puanlayıcının öğrencilere verdiği toplam puanların da arttığı ve bu doğrusal ilişkinin de istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğu saptanmıştır (r_s = 0.733, p < 0.001).

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Tartışma

Yapılan alanyazın taramasında konuşma becerisini ölçen farklı ölçme araçlarına rastlanmıştır, bu çalışma kapsamında geliştirilen *Etkili Konuşma Rubriği* sözü edilecek olan ölçme araçlarından bazı yönlerden ayrılmaktadır.

Bozkurt'a göre (2017) Türkçe anadili konuşucuları için oluşturulan ya da uyarlanan 28 ölçeğin 19'u dereceli (likert), 5'i kontrol listesi ya da gözlem formu, 4'ü rubrik (dereceli puanlama anahtarı) şeklindedir. Rubrik şeklinde oluşturulan 4 ölçeğin hiçbirinde geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması yapılmazken, sadece ikisinde uzman görüşüne başvurulmuştur.

Bozkurt ve Akkök (2019), tarafından geliştirilen Konuşma Becerisi Derecelendirme Ölçeği çalışmasında uzman görüşüne başvurulmuş ve uzmanların puanlamalarına göre Kapsam Geçerlik İndeksi (KGİ) hesaplanmıştır. Çalışmada kapsam geçerliği haricinde diğer geçerlik ve güvenirlik hesaplamalarıyla ilgili veriler yer almamaktadır. Yazarların da belirttiği gibi çalışma uygulama verisi içermeme yönünden kısıtlıdır. Geliştirilen 27 maddelik ölçek ise bütünüyle rubrik olmaması, Etkileşim-Sunum bölümündeki son 13 maddesinin 4'lü likert tipi olması nedeniyle rubriğin amacına hizmet etmemesi bakımından eleştirilebilir. Likert tipindeki maddeler performans düzeylerini açıkça belirtmediğinden rubriğin geliştirilme amacıyla örtüşmemektedir; çünkü rubrik türündeki ölçme araçlarının geliştirilmesindeki en önemli amaçlardan biri, performans düzeylerinin açıkça tanımlanmasıdır. Ölçeğin kapsam geçerliğinin sağlanması, konuşma becerisinin değerlendirilmesine yönelik geliştirilecek diğer ölçekler için "başvuru çerçevesi" özelliği taşıması olumlu olarak değerlendirilebilir.

Yüceer ve Doğan (2021), tarafından Türkçe öğretmenliği birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin hazırlıksız konuşma becerilerini değerlendirmek üzere yapılan çalışma kapsamında araştırmacılar tarafından hazırlıksız konuşmaya yönelik analitik rubrik geliştirilmiştir. Geliştirilen rubriğin geçerliği için uzman görüşü alınmış, güvenirliği ise puanlayıcılar arasındaki toplam puanların uyumunu belirleyen Kendall W testi ile saptanmıştır. Burada maddelerin güvenirlik hesaplamasının yapılmaması,

yalnızca toplam puanların uyumunun güvenirlik kanıtı olarak kullanılması eleştirilebilir. Aynı zamanda ölçek ses, beden dili ve konuşma düzeni ana başlıklarında yer alan toplam 11 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Tekrara düşmeme, gereksiz hareketlerden kaçınma, vurgulama, ölçünlü dil kullanımı, kelimeleri anlamına uygun kullanma gibi etkili bir konuşmanın temel bileşenleri bu ölçeğin maddelerinde yer almamaktadır. Bu da ölçülmek istenen özelliğin eksik ölçülmesine, kapsam geçerliğinin düşmesine neden olmaktadır. Ölçeğin yalnızca hazırlıksız konuşmalar için geliştirilmiş olması ise kullanışlılık bakımından bir kısıtlama getirmektedir.

Yaşar (2017), kavram karikatürlerinin ilkokul 3. Sınıf öğrencilerinin konuşma becerileri üzerindeki etkisini araştırdığı çalışmada araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiş 28 maddelik *Konuşma Becerisi Değerlendirme Rubriği* isimli ölçme aracını kullanmıştır. Ancak ölçeğin puanlamasında "Hiç Gözlenmedi (1), Gözlenmedi (2), Kısmen Gözlendi (3), Gözlendi (4), Tamamen Gözlendi (5)" şeklinde gözlem formu özelliği taşıyan puanlama sistemi kullanılmıştır. Bu da rubriğin performans düzeyini açıkça tanımlaması özelliğine uygun değildir.

Bu çalışmada geliştirilen ölçek ise geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışmalarının yapılması ve tüm konuşmalar için genel bir ölçme aracı olması yönleriyle diğer çalışmalardan ayrılmaktadır.

Konuşma becerisine yönelik geliştirilen ölçeklerin kimileri de yeterli kapsam geçerliğine sahip değildir. Konuşma becerisinin tüm bileşenleri ölçekte yer almamaktadır. Konuşma Becerisi için Dereceli Puanlama Anahtarı (MEB, 2007) 3'lü rubrik şeklinde geliştirilmiş 7 maddeden oluşan bir ölçektir. Konuşmada akıcılık, konuşmaya başlama, konuşmayı bitirme, kitleye uygunluk, mekân seçimi, beden dilini kullanma, hitabeyi destekleme şeklinde maddelerden oluşan ölçeğin kapsam geçerliği; konuşma becerisinin diğer bileşenleri düşünüldüğünde yetersiz olarak değerlendirilebilir.

Dil becerilerinin ölçülmesi karmaşık süreçler olduğu için rubrik kullanımı son derece önemlidir. Yabancı dil eğitiminde de konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesinde rubrik ve süreç değerlendirmesine olanak veren diğer ölçme araçlarının kullanılması yarar sağlayacaktır. Avrupa Ortak Başvuru Metni (OBM) ve uygulaması niteliğindeki Avrupa Dil Gelişim Dosyasının,

öğrencilerin konuşma becerisi üzerindeki etkililiğinin araştırıldığı çalışmada OBM'ye göre hazırlanan konuşma becerisi dersi programının geleneksel yönteme göre daha başarılı olduğu saptanmıştır (İşisağ ve Demirel, 2010). OBM'nin yabancı dil öğretimine kazandırdığı en önemli kavramlardan biri kendini değerlendirmedir.

Sonuç

Etkili Konuşma Rubriği adıyla geliştirilen ölçek alanda gereksinim duyulan, konuşma becerisinin ölçülmesinde kullanılabilecek geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracıdır. Rubrik şeklinde geliştirilmiş olması, geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışmalarının yapılmış olması, tüm konuşma türlerinde kullanılabilir olması ve kapsam geçerliğinin özenli olması bu çalışmayı diğer çalışmalardan ayırmaktadır.

Öneriler

Öğretmenlerin dereceli puanlama anahtarı (rubrik) kullanması daha nesnel bir ölçme ve değerlendirmeye olanak tanımaktadır. Özellikle dil becerileri gibi çok yönlü bileşenlerden oluşan becerilerin ölçülmesinde, her bileşen için ayrı ayrı karar verebilmek adına rubrik kullanımı son derece önemlidir. Etkili konuşma rubriği kapsam geçerliği, güvenirliği yüksek bir ölçme aracı olarak öğretmenler ve araştırmacılar tarafından kullanılabilir.

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OPINIONS OF TURKISH LEARNERS AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE ABOUT LEARNING TURKISH WITH DIGITAL MATERIALS[1]

Gülden FENERCİ[2]

Fatih KANA [3]

Abstract

The aim of the study is to examine the opinions of Turkish as a foreign language learners towards learning Turkish with digital materials. For this purpose, case study design was used from qualitative research designs in the study. Data were provided from a study group of 20 people who learned Turkish as a foreign language from different institutions and organizations. The data obtained in the study were analyzed qualitatively and the findings were determined according to the codes obtained. As a result of the research, it was determined that Turkish as a foreign language learners went through different education systems and had different infrastructures. In addition, it was determined that there were positive opinions about the use of information communication systems, digital materials in teaching, media literacy and the use of technology, but no common views were formed.

Keywords: Information and Communication Technologies, Digital Material, 21. Century Skills, Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language.

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YABANCI DİL OLARAK TÜRKÇE ÖĞRENENLERİN DİJİTAL MATERYALLERLE TÜRKÇE ÖĞRENMEYE YÖNELİK GÖRÜŞLERİ[4]

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin dijital materyallerle Türkçe öğrenmeye yönelik görüşlerinin incelenmesidir. Araştırmada nitel araştırma desenlerinden durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırmaya farklı kurum ve kuruluşlardan yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen 20 kişilik çalışma grubundan veri sağlanmıştır. Araştırmada elde edilen veriler nitel olarak analiz edilmiş ve elde edilen kodlara göre bulgular tespit edilmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenicilerinin farklı eğitim sistemlerinden geçtiği, farklı alt yapılara sahip olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca bilgi iletişim sistemlerinin, dijital materyallerin öğretimde kullanılmasını ve medya okur yazarlığı, teknoloji kullanımı konusunda olumlu görüşlerinin olduğu bununla birlikte ortak görüşlerin oluşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bilgi İletişim Teknolojileri, Dijital Materyal, 21. Yüzyıl Becerileri, Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe Öğretimi.

GİRİŞ

Teknoloji, insan ihtiyaçlarının çabuk ve kolay karşılanması için geliştirilen ürünler ve uygulamalardır. Bu ürünler ve uygulamaların ortaya çıkabilmesi insanlığın çabasıyla olmuştur. Yani insanlığın ihtiyaç giderme çabası ve yaşamı kolaylaştırma gayreti teknolojiyi doğurmuştur (İşman, 2014). İçinde yaşanılan dünyada teknolojinin olmadığı bir ortam düşünmek nerdeyse imkansızlaşmıştır. Tüm yaşam teknolojinin sağladığı kolaylıklarla ilerlemektedir. İnsanoğlu kendi eliyle kurduğu sanal alemde

genel ihtiyaçlarının yanında kolaylıkla iletişim kurma ve bilgiye ulaşma imkânı bulmaktadır (Başak ve Ayvacı, 2017).

Bu yüzyılda bilginin kolay ve çabuk elde edilmesi kadar bilginin diğer alanlarda da işlevsel olması beklenir. Farklı disiplinlerin bir araya gelerek yeni bilgiyi ortaya çıkarma çalışmalarına disiplinler arası iş birliği denmektedir ve her geçen gün bu yaklaşımın önemi artmaktadır (Aktan, 2007). Bu yüzyılda hızla ve yoğun bir şekilde yaşanan eğitimin teknolojikleşmesi ve değişen ihtiyaçlar neticesinde bu profile uygun öğretmen ve öğrencinin de ortaya çıkmasını sağlamıştır (Aydın ve Tunagür, 2021). Lemke (2003)'nin ifade ettiği haliyle teknolojinin günümüz halini alması bu çağın bireylerini de çağa uymaya ve becerilerinin çağa uydurmaya zorlamıştır. Bu zorunluluk 21. yüzyıl becerileri olarak bireylerin karşısına çıkmaktadır. Disiplinler arası çalışmalarda teknoloji kullanımı önemli bir ihtiyacıdır. Özellikle sosyal bilimler içinde dil öğrenimi için teknoloji kullanımı ve bilimsel yenilikler oldukça kıymetli desteklerdir.

Dil öğretimi için ses üretimi, görsel ürünler dersin en önemli materyalleridir. Tüm bunlar için dil laboratuvarlarında teknolojiyle buluşmak gerekir (Kartal, 2005). Dil öğreniminin geçmişinde en teknolojik yapı dil laboratuvarlarıyken günümüzde çoklu öğretim ortamlarında dil öğretimi yapılmaktadır (Büyükaslan, 2007). Jane Hart, son 16 yıldır yaptığı anket çalışmaları sonucunda eğitimde en çok kullanılan araçları sıralamaktadır (https://toptools4learning.com/wp-content/uploads/2022/08/TT4L2022.pdf).
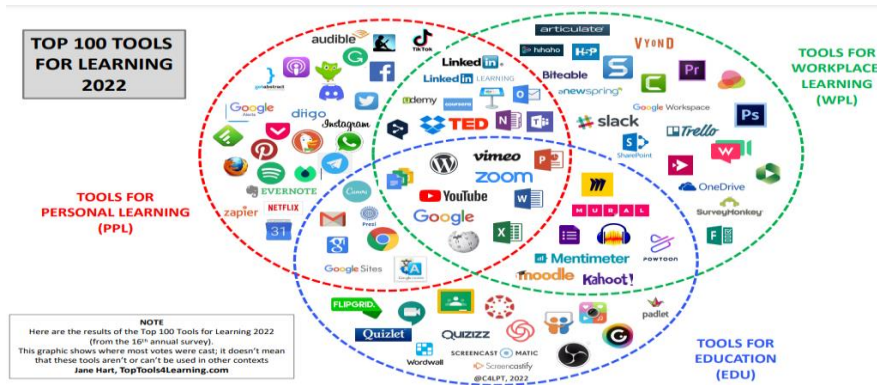
Şekil 1. 2022 yılının eğitimde en çok kullanılan araçları

Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB) Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü (YEĞİTEK) tarafından 2017 yılında Türkiye eğitim ve öğretimini devam ettiren Suriyeli çocukların Türkçe öğrenmelerini ve Türk kültürüne, toplumuna uyumlarını kolaylaştırmak amacıyla "Bil Bakalım" adlı mobil uygulama oyunu hazırlandı. Bu uygulamayla 7-9 yaş arası çocuklara interaktif bir öğrenme ortamı sağlanmıştır (MEB, 2017).

Öğretim programında yer alan bu ifadeler dijital materyal kullanımı ve bu kullanımın nasıl olması gerektiği belirtilmiştir. MEB bünyesinde devam eden PİKTES Projesinin Hayat Boyu Türkçe kitabı, Salih hikâye seti, Yabancı Öğrenciler İçin Türkçe Hikâyeler, Yabancı Öğrenciler İçin Türkçe Çalışma Kitapları projenin resmi internet sitesinden dijital olarak ulaşılabilir şekilde hazırlanmıştır. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın EBA platformu bilişim ağının aktif kullanımını göstermektedir. Her sınıf düzeyi ve ders için çeşitli ders materyallerinin bulunduğu platformda yabancılar için Türkçeye de yer verilmiştir. https://turkce.eba.gov.tr/adresiyle EBA'nın yabancılara Türkçe öğretim materyallerine ulaşılabilir.

Türkiyedeki tüm üniversiteler TÖMER veya DİLMER gibi dil öğretim merkezleri aracılığılığyla yabancı uyruklu öğrencilere Türkçe öğretimi yapmaktadır. Üniversiterin yabancı uyruklu öğrencilerine Türkçe öğretim yapabilmek için oluşturdukları birimler hem yüz yüze hem de uzaktan eğitim programları yapmaktadır. Bununla birlikte üniversiteler hazırlıkladıkları yazılı ve dijital materyalleri de yabancılara Türkçe öğrenimine sunmaktadır. Günümüzde hazırlanan tüm yazılı materyallere karekodlar aracılığı ile dijital materyallerin de ayrıca eklendiği bilinmektedir. Hazırlanan çalışma kitaplarına dinleme parçaları dijital olarak entegre edilmektedir.

Alanyazın taraması yapıldığında Türkçe eğitimi alanında dijital materyallerle ve teknolojiyle ilgili birçok çalışmanın olduğu (Altunbay ve Bıçakçı, 2018; Avcı ve Coşkun, 2021; Avcı ve Okan, 2021; Ciğerci, 2016; Eroğlu, 2020; Elkıran ve Beler, 2021; Ertem, 2016; Eskimen ve Erdoğdu, 2021; Göçer ve Gürsoy, 2022; Karakuş ve Er, 2021; Fidan, Sarıaslan ve Yılmaz, 2022; Geçgel ve Erdemir, 2021; Geçgel ve Kana, 2020; Geçgel, Kana, Durak ve Meriç, 2020; Geçgel, Kana ve Eren, 2020; Geçgel ve Taşkın, 2021; Kana ve Kiler, 2021; Kana ve Mete, 2021; Kana ve Oskay, 2021; Kana ve Şenol, 2021; Kırcı, 2022; Kolcu ve Balcı, 2021; Kurudayıoğlu ve Bal, 2014;

Maden ve Önal, 2022; Örge Yaşar, 2017; Özbay ve Özdemir, 2014; Özdemir, 2017; Özdemir, 2021; Özerbaş ve Öztürk, 2017; Tiryaki ve Karakuş, 2019; Ustabulut, 2021; Ustabulut ve Kana, 2021; Yıldız, 2020; Yaman, Demirtaş ve Aydemir, 2013; Yılmaz, Üstündağ, Güneş ve Çalışkan, 2017); yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde dijitalle ilgili çalışmalar olmasına rağmen yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin dijital materyallerle ilgili görüşlerinin yer aldığı bir çalışmanın olmadığı görülmektedir (Aydın, 2019; Aytan ve Ayhan, 2018; Baş ve Yıldırım, 2018; Birinci, 2020; Büyükaslan, 2007; Eroğlu, 2022; Göker ve İnce, 2019; Karalök, 2020; Sözer, Özdamar, ve Pilanci, 2020; Tiryaki ve Zini, 2022; Türkben ve Alptekin, 2022; Yalçın, 2022; Yılmaz ve Babacan, 2015). Bu çalışmayla yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenicilerinin dijital materyaller yardımıyla Türkçe öğrenmeye yönelik görüşleri tespit edilebilecektir. Bu araştırmanın amacı Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen bireylerin Türkçe öğrenimlerinde kullandıkları dijital materyallere yönelik görüşlerini tespit etmektir. Araştırmada aşağıdaki alt problemlere ilişkin sorulara cevap aranmıştır:

- Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen bireylerin bilişim ve teknoloji kavramlarıyla ilgili görüşleri nelerdir?
- Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen bireyler Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticiyle ve Türkçe öğrenen diğer arkadaşlarıyla iletişim kurmak için hangi dijital materyalleri kullanmaktadırlar?
- Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen bireylerin Türkçe öğrenirken kullandıkları dijital materyaller başarılarını nasıl etkilemektedir?
- Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen bireylerin dijital materyal uygulamaları hakkındaki düşünceleri nelerdir?

YÖNTEM

Araştırmanın Deseni

Araştırmada yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin dijital materyallerle Türkçe öğrenmeye yönelik görüşlerinin incelenmesi amacıyla nitel araştırma desenlerinden durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. Durum deseni, araştırmacının belirli bir durumu (olayı, grup veya bireyi) derinlemesine ve kapsamlı bir şekilde incelemesini amaçlar. Bu yöntemde, araştırmacı, olayın iç yüzünü anlamak için kapsamlı veri toplama süreçleri kullanır ve genellikle birkaç veri kaynağını birleştirerek derinlemesine bir analiz yapar (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2021). Araştırmacılar, durum deseni

yöntemini kullanarak çeşitli sosyal, kültürel, eğitimsel ve organizasyonel sorunları ve durumları inceleyebilirler. Bu yöntem, özellikle insan davranışı, sosyal ilişkiler ve deneyimler hakkında daha derinlemesine bir anlayış elde etmek istendiğinde faydalı olabilir (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, Demirel, 2021).

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu ise Türkiye'de Millî Eğitim Bakanlığına (MEB) ya da Yüksek Öğretim Kuruluna (YÖK) bağlı okul ya da kurumlarda yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen 20 kişi oluşturmaktadır. Örneklemi oluşturan yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlere ait tanımlayıcı bilgiler şöyledir:

Tablo 1

Katılımcıların demografik özellikleri

Katılımcı	Cinsiyeti	Yaşı	Eğitim Durumu	Uyruğu	Türkiye'de Kaldığı Süre	Türkçe Kursuna Katılma
K 1	Kadın	21	Lisans 2. sınıf	Bosna Hersek	3 Yıl	Evet
K 2	Erkek	20	Lisans 2. sınıf	Moldova	2 Yıl 6 Ay	Evet
K 3	Erkek	21	Lisans 2. sınıf	Ürdün	2yıl	Evet
K 4	Erkek	23	Lisans 2. sınıf	Somali	2yıl	Evet
K 5	Erkek	21	Lisans 2. sınıf	Gürcistan	3 Yıl 3 Ay	Evet
K 6	Erkek	20	Lisans 2. sınıf	Azerbaycan	4 Yıl	Evet
K 7	Erkek	19	Lisans 2. sınıf	Azerbaycan	3 Yıl	Evet
K 8	Erkek	20	Lisans 2. sınıf	Azerbaycan	4 Yıl	Evet
K 9	Erkek	19	Lisans 2. sınıf	Azerbaycan	3 Yıl	Evet
K 10	Kadın	22	Lisans 2. sınıf	Bosna Hersek	3 Yıl	Evet
K 11	Kadın	22	Lisans 2. sınıf	Senegal	2 Yıl 6 Ay	Evet
K 12	Erkek	20	Lisans 2. sınıf	Azerbaycan	3 Yıl	Evet
K 13	Erkek	21	Lisans 2. sınıf	Macaristan	2 Yıl 6 Ay	Evet
K 14	Erkek	17	Lise 11. Sınıf	Afganistan	4 Yıl	Hayır
K 15	Erkek	15	Lise 11. Sınıf	Irak	6 Yıl	Hayır
K 16	Kadın	15	Lise 11.sınıf	Filistin	3 Yıl	Evet
K 17	Erkek	15	Lise 9. Sınıf	Irak	7 Yıl	Hayır
K 18	Kadın	33	Yüksek Lisans	Fransa	3 Yıl	Hayır
K 19	Erkek	18	Lise 12. Sınıf	Irak	6 Yıl	Hayır
K 20	Kadın	22	Lisans 4. sınıf	Japonya	4 Ay	Evet

Tablo 1 incelendiğinde çalışmaya katılan gönüllülerden 6 tanesinin kadın, 17 tanesinin erkek olduğu görülmektedir. Çalışmaya katılan Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenlerin 1'inin yüksek lisans mezunu, 14'ünün üniversite öğrencisi ve 5'inin lise öğrencisi olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların 5'i Azerbaycan, 3'ü Irak, 2'si Bosna Hersek, 1'i Japonya, 1'i tanesi Fransa, 1 tanesi Macaristan, 1 tanesi Ürdün, 1 tanesi Senegal, 1 tanesi Somali, 1'i Gürcistan, 1'i Afganistan, 1'i Filistin ve 1'inin de Moldova'dan ülkemize geldiği anlaşılmaktadır. Bu katılımcılar ülkemizde 4 ayla 6 yıl arasında bulunmuş ya da halen bulunmaktadır. Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak bir kurstan öğrenen katılımcı sayısının ise 15 olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Veri toplamak amacıyla hazırlanan görüşme soruları "Avrupa Birliği – DigCompEdu Dijital Yeterlik Çerçevesi"nden yola çıkılarak oluşturulmuştur. Avrupa Birliği–DigCompEdu Dijital Yeterlik Çerçevesinde eğitimciler için altı farklı alanda 22 yeterlik belirlenmiştir. Bu yeterlilikler göz önüne alınarak araştırma için 25 soruluk yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme formu hazırlanmıştır. Görüşme formu için pilot uygulamalar yapılmış, pilot uygulamalar sonucunda sorulara ekleme ve çıkartmalar yapılarak alan uzmanlarıyla paylaşılmış geri bildirimler neticesinde son halini almıştır. Görüşme soruları hazırlanırken ve görüşmeler gerçekleştirilirken etik ilkelere uyulmuştur. Katılımcıların araştırma için gerekmeyen kişisel bilgileri ve demografik özellikleri görüşme sorularına dahil edilmemiştir.

Veri Analizi ve Yorumlanması

Nitel araştırmada araştırmacı araştırmanın her aşamasında bulunarak çalışmada aktif bir rol almaktadır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında araştırmacının verilerin analizinde de büyük öneme sahip olduğu görülür. Araştırmacının çalışması için hazırladığı görüşme soruları ve katılımcıların yanıtlarından oluşturduğu kodlar analizi ve cevapların yorumlarını belirler (Çelik, Başer, Baykal ve Kılıç Memur, 2020). Bu araştırmanın nitel verileri tümevarımcı betimsel analizle ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Betimsel analizde çalışmanın veri toplama aşamasında elde edilen görüşme cevapları okuyucuya doğrudan sunulur. Katılımcıların görüşme sorularına verdiği cevaplarla beraber bu cevaplardan oluşan kodlar ve temalar da çalışmaya eklenebilir (Günbayı, 2019).

Geçerlilik ve Güvenirlik

Bilimsel araştırmaların geçerliği ve güvenirliği en önemli inandırıcılık ölçütüdür. Nicel araştırmalarda araştırmaların veri toplama araçları ve desenleri geçerlilik ve güvenirliği test edebilirken nitel araştırmalarda bu mümkün değildir (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2021). Nitel araştırmanın geçerlilik ve güvenirlikte örneklemin makul büyüklükte olması inandırıcılığının kanıtlanabilmesini ve araştırmanın kalitesini artıracaktır (Başkale, 2016).

Bu çalışma kapsamında araştırmanın geçerlik ve güvenirliğini sağlamak adına veri toplama araçları uzman kişilerin görüşleri doğrultusunda düzenlenmiştir. Çalışma verileri toplanmadan önce farklı yabancı uyruklu Türkçe öğrenen gruplar üzerinde pilot olarak uygulanmış ve B2 seviyesinde Türkçe öğrenenlerin görüşme sorularına verdiği yanıtların araştırma açısından daha açıklayıcı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmanın verileri birbirinden bağımsız iki kodlayıcı tarafından analiz edilmiştir. İki araştırmacı araştırma verilerinden elde edilen kod ve temaları karşılaştırarak ortak bir noktada buluşmuşlardır. Araştırmada verilerinin analizi yoluyla gerçekleştirilen kodlar ve temalar alan uzmanlarının görüşlerine sunularak son hali verilmiştir. Son olarak elde edilen kodlar katılımcıların sayılarıyla frekanslara dönüştürülmüştür.

BULGULAR

Bu bölümde araştırmanın alt problemleri doğrultusunda elde edilen bulgulara yer verilmiştir.

Bilişim Teknoloji Hakkındaki Bilgileri ve Bu Konudaki Yeterlikleri

Tablo 2

Bilişim teknoloji hakkındaki bilgileri ve bu konuda kendilerini ne kadar yeterli gördükleri

Kod	f
Yeterince biliyorum.	9
Çok yeterli değilim.	4
Bilişim teknolojilerini öğrenmeye çalışıyorum.	4
Bilişimin tanımını biliyorum. Kendime yetecek kadar da bu konuya hakimim.	4
Bilişim teknolojilerinden bazı programları öğrenmeye çalışıyorum.	2

Bilişim teknolojilerinin önemini biliyorum ama bu konuda kendimi yetersiz görüyorum.	2

Tablo 2 incelendiğinde çalışmaya katılan yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenler bilişim teknolojileri hakkında yeterince bilgiye sahip olduklarını (f=9), bu konuda yeterince bilgi sahibi olmadıklarını (f=4), bilişim teknolojilerini öğrenmeye çalıştıklarını (f=4), bilişim teknolojilerini kullanmayı bildiklerini ve özel programlar öğrenmeye çalıştıklarını (f= 2), bu konunun önemini bilmekle birlikte kendilerini bu konuda yetersiz gördüklerini (f=2) belirtmişlerdir.

"Yeterince biliyorum." (K1 kodlu katılımcı)

"Phyton öğreniyorum." (K2 kodlu katılımcı)

"Çok yeterli değilim." (K3 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bir bilgi oluşturmak ve korumak için kullanabileceğimiz aletler ve cihazlar olarak biliyorum. Bence az çok." (K 4 kodlu katılımcı)

"Yeni teknoloji insanların herhangi bir işlerin kolaylaştırması sağlıyor. İletişim dahil." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Telefon bilgisayar gibi teknolojik alatlerdir. %70 oranında yeretli bulmaktayım kendimi". (K7 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bilişim teknolojileri bilginin toplanmasında işlenmesinde depolanmasında kullanıla iletişim ve bilgisayarlar dahil bütün teknolojileri kapsayan teknolojilerdir". (K11 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bilişim teknolojileri hakkında aşina değilim. Başka bir bölümde okuduğum için kendimi bu konuda yetersiz görüyorum." (K13 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bilişim teknolojileri hakkında o dersi almadan önce bir sürü merak düşüncem vardı ve Bayadır o bölümü okuyabilmek için Bilgisayar arasında Birçok Eğitici Videolar izliyerek Kendimi Uzman Yapmaya çalıştım." (K17 kodlu katılımcı)

"Onlarla büyüdüğüm diye, çok iyi anliyorum ve iyi kullaniyorum." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ben teknolojide çok iyi biliyorum + yazlım öğreniyorum." (K19 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bilişim teknoloji hakkında özel bilgileri çok bilmiyorum. Temel bilgiler biliyorum." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Günlük Hayatta Teknoloji Kullanarak Yaptıkları İşler

Tablo 3

Günlük hayatta teknoloji kullanarak yaptıkları işlerler ilgili görüşleri

Kod	f
Ders çalışmak için	8
İletişim için	8
Ödev yapmak için	6
Boş vakit geçirmek	5
Kitap okumak için	4
Türkçe bilgimi ilerletmek için	1
Alışveriş yapmak için	1

Tablo 3 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılanların günlük hayatlarında teknolojiyi ders çalışmak (f=8), iletişim (f=8), ödev yapmak (f=6), boş vakitlerini değerlendirmek (f=5), e-kitap okumak (f=4), Türkçe öğrenmek (f=1) ve alışveriş yapmak (f=1) için kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir.

"Ders çalışmaya, müzik dinleme, film izleme, sosyal medya" (K1 kodlu katılımcı)

"Üniversite eğitimim için gerekli olan bazı konularda internet aracılığıyla bilgi sahibi oluyorum." (K2 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bana zor gelen bütün işleri teknoloji kullanarak yapmak isterim.Örn: muhasebeci, pilotluk, öğretmenlik" (K4 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ders çalışmak ve diğer aktiviteler nerdeyse günün yarısını" (K7 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ders çalışma, kişisel gelişim(araştırma vb.), boş zamanlarımı kişisel bilgisayar vasıtasıyla karşılıyorum" (K8 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ders çalışma, film izleme, kitap okuma" (K10 kodlu katılımcı)

"Günlük hayatta ders çalışmak, haberleşmek teknoloji kullanıyorum" (K11 kodlu katılımcı)

"Haber okuma , ödev yapma" (K12 kodlu katılımcı)

"Günlük hayatta sadece ders çalışmak ve ailemle iletişim kurmak için teknoloji kullanıyorum." (K13 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ödevleri, spor yapınca, sınavlarda" (K16 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ders, proje, performans vb. gibi ödevlerim ve derslerim için kullanıyorum" (K 17 kodlu katılımcı)

"Her sey yapabilirim. Hicdeftler kullanmadan her sey dijital olarak kaydediyorum (istedigimkalmali bilgi). Bilgisayarda çalisiyorum. Butunihtiyaçlarim için uygulamaları bulurum." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Kitap okumak video izlemek" (K19 kodlu katılımcı)

"Türkçe kelime araştırırken internette bakıyorum Türkçe video yayılırken video düzeltmek için uygulama kullanıyorum ve instagrama veya youtubeye atıyorum. Stajda metin yazarken ve metin şirketin sitesinde yayılırken" (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Medya Okuryazarlığı Hakkında Bilgileri ve Bu Bilgiyi Edinme Süreçleri

Tablo 4

Medya Okuryazarlığı Hakkında Bilgileri ve Bu Bilgiyi Nasıl Edindikleri

Kod	f
Medya okuryazarlığını kendimce tanımlayabilirim.	11
Medya okuryazarlığı hakkında bilgim yok.	4
Medya okuryazarlığı kavramını internetten duydum.	1
Eğitim süreci için çok önemlidir.	1

Tablo 4 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılanların medya okuryazarlığı hakkında bazı katılımcıların kendilerince bir tanımlama yapabildikleri (f=11), bazı katılımcıların ise bu kavram hakkında bilgilerinin olmadığı (f=4) tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca bazı katılımcılar medya okuryazarlığı terimini internette duyduğunu dile getirirken, bazı katılımcılar ise medya okuryazarlığının eğitim süreci için çok önemli olduğunu dile getirmektedir.

"Günlük dilde radyo, televizyon, gazete, dergi, gibi elektronik veya yazılı basın organlarına erişmek, kritik bir şekilde okumak, yargılamak, yaratmak için kullanılan bir terimdir."(K1 kodlu katılımcı)

"Radyo, gazete, dergi, elektronik dergileri gibi kritik bir şekilde okumak, yargılamaktır. Genelde bu konudaki bilgileri elektronik medyadan (twitter gibi) alıyorum." (K2 kodlu katılımcı)

"Cevap olarak bu okur yazarlık internette karşılaştığın haberleri okuyup anlama becerisi Türkçe ama dilim ile aynı dil ailesi olması sebebiyle tarafımca öğrenilmek aşamasında sıkıntı yaratmadı." (K8 kodlu katılımcı)

"Twitter, instagram ve diğer büyük platformlarda günlük hayatta gördüğümüz gibi paylaşım veya bilgi edinmektir." (K 9 kodlu katılımcı)

"Radyo, tv. Gazete, dergi kritik şekilde okumak, yargılamak için kullanılan terimdir." (K 10 kodlu katılımcı)

"Medya okuryazarlığı radyo, televizyon gibi elektronik veya yazılı basın organlarına erişmek, kritik bir şekilde okumak yaratmak için kullanılır." (K11 kodlu katılımcı)

"Medya okuryazarlığı günlük hayatta sosyal medya kullanırken okuyup yazmaktır." (K12 kodlu katılımcı)

"Medya okuryazarlığı benim için vatandaşların somut etilere sahip bilgilere erişme, bunları analiz etme ve üretme yeteneğidir." (K13 kodlu katılımcı)

"Medyadan aldığım bilgileri değerlendirme becerisidir. Yani sadece medyadan bilgi almaktan ziyade, kendin düşünüp nasıl bilgi olduğunu anlama becerisidir. Nereden edindiğimi hatırlamıyorum ama sanırım internetten bu kavram karışma çıktı." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrendikleri Kurumdan Gördükleri Teknolojik Destekler ve Bu Alandaki Beklentileri

Tablo 5

Türkçe öğrendikleri kurumdan gördükleri teknolojik destekler ve bu alandaki beklentileri

Kod	f
Kurum Türkçe dersleri için internet, bilgisayar, akıllı tahta gibi teknolojik destek sağlıyor.	9
Türkçe öğrendiğim kurumdan teknolojik destek görmedim.	2
Kurum dışında internetten ücretsiz Türkçe öğrenme imkânı çok kısıtlı.	2
Online olarak Türk arkadaşlar ile tanışmak için fırsat varsa daha güvenli bir şekilde arkadaş olabilir ve daha eğlenceli Türkçe geliştirebilir.	1
Kurumun teknik alt yapısı yetersizdi.	1

Tablo 5 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılan katılımcıların Türkçe öğrendikleri kurumdan teknolojik anlamda internet, bilgisayar, akıllı tahta (f=9) desteği dışında yeterli teknolojik imkânı görmedikleri (f=2) imkanların

kısıtlı olduğu (f=2) ve teknik alt yapının yetersiz olduğu (f=1) ve online çalışmalarla Türk arkadaşlarla güvenli ortamlarda görüşme imkânı sağlanmasını (f=1) bekledikleri görülmüştür.

"Internette bulduğumuz bilgiler çok faydalı" (K22 kodlu katılımcı)

"Türkçe öğrenmek için pek teknolojik destek sağlanmıyor. İnternette ücretsiz Türkçe öğrenme siteler ya da kursları çok az ve gelişmiş değildir. (İngilizce öğrenmek için miliyonlarcaopsyon vardır.)"(K2 kodlu katılımcı)

"Askeri okulda okuduğum için eğitim sadece kitaptan veya öğretmenden aldım. Olduğu zamanlarda telefonda kullandım." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bilgisayardan, internet kullanılarlalı ders çalışma çok önemlidir. İnternetteki bilgileri kullanılardayararlyoruz." (K10 kodlu katılımcı)

"Hiçbir şey beklemem çünkü gereken her şey var diye düşünüyorum."(K17 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ögretmen onun bilgisayar ila geliyordu. Halk egitimdenretroprojektorkullandik. Iyi bir höparlör bana eksik geldi." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Teknoloji hakkında çok destek vermişler" (K19 kodlu katılımcı)

"Japonya'da uzaktan Türkiye'deki Türkçe ders katlıyordum. O zaman zoom kullandık. Türk arkadaşlar ile tanışmak için fırsat varsa daha güvenli bir şekilde arkadaş olabilir ve daha eğlenceli Türkçe geliştirebilir." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrenme Sürecinde Öğreticileriyle ve Türkçe Öğrenen Diğer Arkadaşlarıyla İletişim İçin Kullandıkları Dijital Materyaller

Tablo 6
Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticileriyle ve Türkçe öğrenen diğer arkadaşlarıyla iletişim için hangi dijital materyalleri kullandıkları hakkında

Kod	f
Telefon üzerinden iletişim kurdum.	8
Bilgisayar üzerinden (internetle) iletişim kurdum.	7
Sosyal medya üzerinden iletişim kurdum.	4
Parmak işaretleriyle iletişim kurdum.	2
Google translate sayesinde iletişim kurdum.	2
Uygulama sözlü discord kullanarak iletişim kurdum.	1
Hello talk ile iletişim kurdum.	1

Tablo 6 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılan katılımcıların Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticileri ve arkadaşlarıyla telefonla iletişim kurarak (f=8), bilgisayar üzerinde (f=7), sosyal medya üzerinden (f=4), Google translate sayesinde iletişim kurabildikleri (f=2), dijital sözlük (f=1) ve hello talk ile iletişime geçtikleri (f=1) görülmektedir. Bazı katılımcıların ise Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticileriyle ve arkadaşlarıyla iletişime geçebilmek için dijital materyal kullanmadıkları (f=2) tespit edilmiştir.

"Parmaklar işaret için kullanıyordum ve bazende" (K4 kodlu katılımcı)

"Sadece telefon ve bilgisayar (sosyal media dahil)" (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Konuşarak, yeni arkadaşlar edinerek veya dijital materyaller (İnternetden)" (K6 kodlu katılımcı)

"Konuşarak iletişim kurabileceğimiz, yeni arkadaşlar edine bileceğimiz tüm dijital materyaller" (K7 kodlu katılımcı)

"Türkçe öğrenen arkadaşlarımla ületişim için İngilizceyi ve çeviri uygulamalarını kullanıyordum" (K12 kodlu katılımcı)

"İşaret dili ve çevirisi" (K14 kodlu katılımcı)

"Genellikle az ama sık kullandığım uygulama sözlü discord kullanıyorum ama eğitim yüzünden dijital olarak arkaşımla görüşmüyorum." (K 17 kodlu katılımcı)

"Telefon ile WhatsApp." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Japonya'da uzaktan Türkiye'deki Türkçe ders katlıyordum. O zaman zoom kullandık. Ve metin da PDF olarak aldım. Türk arkadaşlar ile tanışmak için Hello talk kullanıyordum." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Öğretim Ortamı Dışında Türkçe Öğrenmek İçin Dijital Materyal Uygulamalarını Kullanılırken Yaşadıkları Kaygılar

Tablo 7
Öğretim ortamı dışında Türkçe öğrenmek için dijital materyal uygulamalarını kullanılırken yaşadıkları kaygılar

Kod	f
Online uygulamalarla Türkçe öğrenirken kaygı duymam.	9
Kaygılarım olsa da Türkçe öğrenmek için bu uygulamaları kullanırım.	3
Öğretim ortamımda telefon yasak.	1

Dijital materyallerin faydasının daha fazla olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1

Tablo 7 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılanlardan büyük çoğunluğunun Türkçe öğrenim ortamları dışında online ortamlarda Türkçe öğrenirken kaygı duymadıkları (f=9), kaygı duysalar bile Türkçe öğrenmek için pek çok uygulama kullandıkları (f=3), bir kısmı ise öğrenim ortamı dışında dijital materyallerin faydası olmadığını düşündükleri (f=1) tespit edilmiştir.

"Telefon yasak" (K3 kodlu katılımcı)

"Somaliler kaygılanmaz." (K4 kodlu katılımcı)

"Telefondaki bir uygulama yanlış hatırlamıyorsam duolingo kullanıyorum. Ayrıca tercüme etmen ve kelimeler öğrenmek için farklı siteler kullandım." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Google, youtube" (K11 kodlu katılımcı)

"Dijital materyel uygulamalarını dil öğrenmede çok yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyorum." (K12 kodlu katılımcı)

"Şöyle bir sözüm vardı "Ben bunu dili öğreneceğim" dedim ve bu dili öğrenme sürecinde Farklı Diller geliştirdim" (K17 kodlu katılımcı)

"Biri kötü bir amaç ile onlarikullansin." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bazen kötü insan ile karışabiliyor. Ama dil öğrenmek için anadil olarak konuşan kişi ile tanışmak çok önemli olduğu için dikkat ederek aynı amacı sahip olan kişi bulmak gerekiyor." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrenirken Kullanılan Dijital Materyallerin Başarıya Etkisi

Tablo 8

Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin başarıya etkisi hakkındaki görüşleri

Kod	f
Kullandığım dijital materyaller Türkçeyi daha hızlı öğrenmemi sağladı.	12
Kullandığım dijital materyallerin Türkçeyi öğrenmemde çok etkisi olduğunu düşünmüyorum.	3
Dijital materyal etkili ama kitap okumanın etkisi çok daha fazla	1

Tablo 8 incelendiğinde bazı katılımcıların Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin Türkçeyi öğrenmeyi hızlandırdığını (f=12), bazı katılıcılar ise dijital materyallerin Türkçeyi öğrenmeyi çok etkilemediğini (f=3) düşündüğü tespit edilmiştir. Bazı katılımcılar ise dijital materyallerin

etkili olduğunu ama kitap okumanın Türkçe öğreniminde daha etkili olduğunu (f=1) düşündüğü tespit edilmiştir.

"Çok büyük bir fayda gördüm. Daha hızlı öğrendim." (K1 kodlu katılımcı)

"Yabancı insanlara konuştuğumda veya dilde birbirlerimize yardım ettiğimizde farklı uygulamalarda çok etkiledi." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Çocunluntan çizgi film izemem sayesinde Türkçem iyi seviyedeydi burada ise iletişim vuraran dahada geliştirdim." (K6 kodlu katılımcı)

"Dijital materyaller öğrenciye çok yardım edebilir, ama kıtab okuma daha çok etkili olduğunu düşünüyorüm." (K13 kodlu katılımcı)

"Çok etkiledi. Dijital materyal olmasa buraya kadar gelemezdim, her şeyi tercüme ettiğim için çok etkiledi." (K16 kodlu katılımcı)

"Bence bir parça oluyor evet. Ama sadece ondan degil." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

"Şarkı dinlerken altyazı Okuyorum ya da film izlerken aynı şey" (K19 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrenirken Kullandıkları Dijital Materyaller

Tablo 9

Türkçe öğrenirken kullandıkları dijital materyaller ve uygulamalar

Kod	f
Televizyon (film, dizi ve çizgi film izlemek)	10
Bilgisayar (youtube, Google, Netflix, Dizipal	7
Duolingo	3
Akıllı Tahta	2
Learnturish	2
Busuu	2
Tandem	1
EBA	1
Pdf drive	1
Hellotalk	1
Uygulama kullanmak yerine kitap okudum	1

Tablo 9 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılan Türkçe öğrenicilerinin farklı uygulamalar ve dijital materyaller yardımıyla Türkçe öğrendikleri (televizyon f=10, bilgisayar f=7, duolingo f=3, akıllı tahta f=2, learnturkish f=2, busuu f=2, tandem f=1, eba f=1, pdf drivef=1, hello talk f=1) tespit

edilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan bazı katılımcılar ise dijital materyaller yerine Türkçe öğrenimindekitap okumayı (f=1) tercih etmektedirler.

> *"Film ve dizi izlemek için Netfilx uygulamasını kullanıyorum. Netfilx aylık ücreti olan farklı teklifler sunarak para verip en güncel film, belgesel, çizgi film izleyebileceğiniz platformdur."* (K6 kodlu katılımcı)

> *"Film ve dizi izlemek için dizipal, netflix gibi, uygulamaları kullandım."* (K7 kodlu katılımcı)

> *"Televizyon dizi (Arka Sokaklar) Çizgi filmler (yumurcak tv, Cartoonetwork)"* (K8 kodlu katılımcı)

> *"Bilgisayar kullandım. Bilmediğim şeyler Google ya da youtube'den bilmediğim şeyler öğrendim."* (K11 kodlu katılımcı)

> *"Duolingo, Busu, Tandem, (digerleri unuttum). Bi de whatsapp ta insanlarla çok konuştum"* (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

> *"Japonya'da uzaktan Türkiye'deki Türkçe ders katlıyordum ve bu PDF olarak aldım. Uzaktan olursa da kitap bakalak Türkçe ders yapabiliyordu. Hem para hem de zaman harcamadım. *https://www.pdfdrive.com/yeni-h%C4%B0t%C4%B0t-1-yabanc%C4%B1lar-%C4%B0%C3%A7in-t%C3%BCrk%C3%A7e-ders-kitab%C4%B1-with-audio-e163544543.html *https://www.busuu.com/ja Bu da işe yaradı. Türkçe öğrenmek için bir alışkan kazandım. https://ja.duolingo.com/ Biraz denedim ama zaten çoğu öğrendiğim bilgi olduğu için çok kullanmadım. *https://apps.apple.com/jp/app/hellotalk%E3%83%8F%E3%83%AD%E3%83%BC%E3%83%88%E3%83%BC%E3%82%AF-%E8%8B%B1%E8%AA%9E%E9%9F%93%E5%9B%BD%E8%AA%9E-%E9%81%B8%E3%81%B9%E3%82%8B%E5%AD%A6%E7%BF%92%E8%A8%80%E8%AA%9E/id557130558. İyi ve ciddi bir şekilde dil öğrenen insanlar ile tanıştığım için çok işe yaradı. Türkçe konuşmaktan korkmamaya başladım. Ve günlük hayatta kullanılan ifadeleri çok öğrendim."* (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrenirken Kullanılan Dijital Materyallerin Derse Olan İlgiyi ve Çalışma Süresini Etkilemesi

Tablo 10

Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin derse olan ilgiyi ve çalışma süresini etkilemesiyle ilgili görüşleri

Kod	f
Derste anlamadıklarımı dijital materyaller yardımıyla öğrendim.	8
Türkçemi geliştirdi.	5
Dijital materyaller yazılı materyallerden fazla olunca olumsuz etkiliyor.	3
Herhangi bir etkisi olmadı.	1

Tablo 10 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılan Türkçe öğrenicilerinin Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin yardımıyla öğrendikleri (f=8), dijital materyallerin Türkçelerini geliştirdiği (f=5), dijital materyallerin herhangi bir etkisi olmadığı (f=1), dijital materyaller fazla olunca ise olumsuz etkilendikleri (f=3) tespit edilmiştir.

"Derste anlamadıklarımı dijital materyallerden yardım alarak öğrendim." (K1 kodlu katılımcı)

"Çok kullanmadığım için bilmiyorum." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Türkçem geliştirdi" (K10 kodlu katılımcı)

"Olumlu olarak etkiledi. Dijital materyal kullanarak Türkçe daha hızlı öğrendim." (K 11kodlu katılımcı)

"İyi etkiledi çünkü derslerimi hep internetten çıkartarak öğreniyorum. Kitaptan her cümleyi tercüme ederek okuyorum, o yüzden çok iyi oldu." (K16 kodlu katılımcı)

"Aslında bazen onlardan biktim. Bi an boyunca daha çok kitaplarda okudum, sonra dijital ile..." (K18 kodlu katılımcı)

Türkçe Öğrenim Sürecinde Dijital Materyallerin Etkisi

Tablo 11

Türkçe öğrenim sürecinizde dijital materyallerin etkisi hakkındaki görüşleri

Kod	f
Türkçe öğrenim sürecimde dijital materyallerin faydalı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	12
Türkçe öğrenim sürecinde dijital materyaller öğrenmemi kolaylaştırdı.	3

Türkçe öğrenim sürecimde dijital materyalleri kullanmadım.	1

Tablo 11 incelendiğinde araştırmaya katılanların büyük bir kısmının Türkçe öğrenim sürecinde dijital materyallerden faydalandığı (f=12), bazılarının Türkçe öğrenim süreçlerini dijital materyallerle öğrenimlerini kolaylaştırdığını (f=3), bazılarınsa öğrenim sürecinde dijital materyalleri kullanmadıkları (f=1) tespit edilmiştir.

"Çat etkili olduklarımı düşünüyorum." (K4 kodlu katılımcı)

"Türkçe öğrenim sürecimde çok kullanmadım ama mesela İngilizce öğrenim sürecimde çok etkili ve iyi olduğunu düşünüyorum." (K5 kodlu katılımcı)

"Pozitif yönde etkili , kolay ve ulaşılır olması" (K8 kodlu katılımcı)

"İhtiyacımız olan kelimeleri daha fazla görüb, dil kapasitemizi geliştirebiliriz." (K9 kodlu katılımcı)

"Ne kadar Türkçe anladığım, kaç kelime öğrendiğim ve nelerde hata yaptığım konusunda mevcut durumu anlamama yardımcı oluyor. Dijital öğrenme materyalleri, Japonya'da bu dili öğreten az sayıda kurum olduğu için Türkçe öğrenmek isteyen kişilerin Türkçe öğrenme fırsatına sahip olmasını kolaylaştırıyor." (K20 kodlu katılımcı)

TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Çalışmaya katılan yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenler bilişim teknolojileri hakkında yeterince bilgiye sahip olduklarını belirtmişlerdir. Katılımcıların günlük hayatlarında teknolojiyi; ders çalışmak, iletişim, ödev yapmak, boş vakitlerini değerlendirmek, e-kitap okumak, Türkçe öğrenmek ve alışveriş yapmak için kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir. Adıyaman ve Adıyaman (2020) çalışmalarında BİT'in Türkçenin öğretilmesinde dört temel beceri için de kullanılabileceğini, BİT'in doğru kullanımının eğlenerek öğrenmeyi sağladığını, BİT'in yanlış kullanımının ise zaman kaybına ve yanlış öğrenmelere neden olabileceğini belirterek öğrenicilere etkin ve verimli bilgi iletişim teknolojilerinin nasıl kullanılacağının öğretilmesi gerektiği belirtilmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılanların medya okuryazarlığı hakkında kendilerince bir tanımlama yapabildikleri, bazı katılımcıların ise bu kavram hakkında bilgilerinin olmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca bazı katılımcılar medya okuryazarlığı terimini internette duyduğunu dile getirirken, bazı

katılımcılar ise medya okuryazarlığının eğitim süreci için çok önemli olduğunu dile getirmektedir. Araştırmaya katılanların medya okuryazarlığı hakkında kendilerince bir tanımlama yapabildikleri tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca bazı katılımcılar medya okuryazarlığı terimini internette duyduğunu dile getirirken, bazı katılımcılar ise medya okuryazarlığının eğitim süreci için çok önemli olduğunu dile getirmektedir. Türkiye Maarif Vakfı Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe Öğretimi Programı'nda Dinleme/izleme A1/A2 düzeylerinde; 21.yüzyıl okuryazarlık becerileri kapsamında bilgi okuryazarlığı (17 kazanım), görsel okuryazarlık (10 kazanım) ve medya okuryazarlığı (7 kazanım) becerilerine yer verildiği görülmüştür. Görsel okuryazarlık ve medya okuryazarlığı becerilerinin geliştirilmesi, yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretimi açısından büyük bir gerekliliktir (Kılıç, 2021, s. 180). Bu araştırmada yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen öğrencilerin medya okuryazarlığı ile ilgili görüşleri incelenmesine rağmen medya okuryazarlığıyla ilgili yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen görüşlerini içeren teorik ve uygulamalı araştırmalar yoktur.

Katılımcıların Türkçe öğrendikleri kurumdan teknolojik anlamda internet, bilgisayar, akıllı tahta desteği dışında yeterli teknolojik imkânı görmedikleri imkanların kısıtlı olduğu ve teknik alt yapının yetersiz olduğu ve online çalışmalarla Türk arkadaşlarla güvenli ortamlarda görüşme imkânı sağlanmasını bekledikleri görülmüştür. Öztürk ve Uslu'nun (2019) araştırmalarındaki bulgulardan biri yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde yenilikçi teknolojilerden yeterince yararlanılamadığı konusudur. Çalışmada teknoloji kullanımının yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretiminde önemli bir yere sahip olduğu fakat öğrenicilerin teknoloji kullanımı üzerine bilgi ve beceri düzeylerinin eşit seviyede olmadığı ve bu sebeple teknoloji kullanım düzeylerinin ilerletilmesi gerektiği belirtilmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılan katılımcıların Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticileri ve arkadaşlarıyla telefonla iletişim kurarak, bilgisayar ve sosyal medya üzerinden, Google translate sayesinde iletişim kurabildikleri, dijital sözlük ve hello talk ile iletişime geçtikleri görülmektedir. Bazı katılımcıların ise Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde öğreticileriyle ve arkadaşlarıyla iletişime geçebilmek için dijital materyal kullanmadıkları tespit edilmiştir. Çalışkan (2021) çalışmasında araştırmaya katılanlara Türkçe öğrenimi için en çok hangi teknolojik araçları kullandıkları sorulduğunda kendi telefon ve

bilgisayarlarıyla ders çalışmanın daha kolay olduğunu dile getirmişlerdir. Telefon tercihini her yerde rahatlıkla kullanımı açısından yapılırken bilgisayarın tercih nedeni büyük ekranda çalışma kolaylığı olmuştur. Öztürk ve Uslu (2019) çalışmalarında yabancılara Türkçe öğretimi için çoklu ortam materyalleri hazırlanırken ve hazır materyaller kullanılırken öğrencilerin cep telefonları ile rahatça ulaşabileceği kaynaklardan yararlandıklarını belirlemişlerdir. Bazı katılımcıların Türkçe öğrenimleri sırasında iletişim materyalleri kullanmadıkları, bazılarının ise Türkçe öğrenirken kullandığı dijital iletişim materyallerini daha önce de kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir. Bunların yanında Türkçe öğrenimleriyle daha önce kullanmadıkları dijital iletişim materyallerini kullanan katılımcıların da olduğu görülmüştür.

Araştırmaya katılan öğrenicilerin dijital yolla iletişim sırasında kendilerini güvende hissetmek ve kişisel verilerini korumak adına kendi çabalarıyla korunma yöntemlerini öğrenen, kendince yöntemler geliştiren, çevresinden öğrenen katılımcılar olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılanlar arasında kendini dijital platformlarla iletişim kurduğunda güvende hisseden ve güvende hissetmeyenlerin olduğu görülmüştür. Keskin (2010) çalışmasıyla öğretimde iletişim ortamları aracılığıyla öğrenicilerin iletişimine izin verilmesi, simülasyon ve oyunlarla sanal öğrenme ortamları hazırlanmasının kullanıcıları motive ettiği ve eğlenceli bir öğrenim ortamı yarattığı böylece performanslarını da artırdığını belirtmiştir. Araştırmaya katılan Türkçe öğrenicilerinin bir kısmının ise dijital platformlar üzerinde kişisel verilerini nasıl koruyacaklarını bilmedikleri tespit edilmiştir. Katılımcılardan büyük çoğunluğunun Türkçe öğrenim ortamları dışında online ortamlarda Türkçe öğrenirken kaygı duymadıkları, kaygı duysalar bile Türkçe öğrenmek için pek çok uygulama kullandıkları, Bir kısmı ise öğrenim ortamı dışında dijital materyallerin faydası olmadığını düşündükleri tespit edilmiştir. Taş ve Uğurlu (2019) çalışmalarında gençlerin iletişim ve sosyal ilişkiler için sosyal medyayı kullandığını bu durumun hem Türkiye hem de dünyada hızla arttığını ve sosyal medyanın kullanımının dil ediniminde yararlanmak adına eğitim sistemine dahil edilip geliştirilmesi gerektiğini belirtilmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılan katılımcıların Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin Türkçeyi öğrenmeyi hızlandırdığını, bazı katılımcılar ise dijital materyallerin Türkçeyi öğrenmeyi çok etkilemediğini

düşündüklerini belirtmiştir. Bazı katılımcılar ise dijital materyallerin etkili olduğunu ama kitap okumanın Türkçe öğreniminde daha etkili olduğunu düşündüğü tespit edilmiştir. Türkçe öğrenicilerinin farklı uygulamalar ve dijital materyaller yardımıyla Türkçe öğrendikleri (televizyon, bilgisayar, duolingo, akıllı tahta, learnturkish, busuu, tandem, eba, pdf drive, hello talk) tespit edilmiştir. Göksu ve Bolat (2020) akademik başarının teknolojinin öğretim alanında kullanılmasıyla arttığına değinmiş ve teknolojinin öğretimde kolay ulaşılabilir olması gerektiğini dile getirmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılan bazı katılımcılar ise dijital materyaller yerine Türkçe öğreniminde kitap okumayı tercih etmektedirler. Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenicilerinin Türkçe öğrenirken kullanılan dijital materyallerin yardımıyla öğrendikleri, dijital materyallerin Türkçelerini geliştirdiği, dijital materyallerin herhangi bir etkisi olmadığı, dijital materyaller fazla olunca ise olumsuz etkilendikleritespit edilmiştir.Araştırmaya katılan Türkçe öğrenicileri katıldıkları dijital materyallerle hazırlanan sınavları kolay buldukları, zor buldukları, yapılan sınavlarda kopya çekilebileceği endişesini yaşadıkları tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırmaya katılan katılımcılardan büyük bir kısmının dijital materyallerin yazılı materyallerin yerine geçebileceğini düşündükleri, bir kısmının ise dijital materyallerin yazılı materyal yerine geçemeyeceğini dile getirdikleri tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca iyi bir öğrenme için dijital materyaller ve yazılı materyallerin birlikte kullanılması gerektiğini düşünenlerin de olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmalarında yazılı materyalleri tercih eden ya da böyle bir kıyaslamaya dahil olmak istemeyen katılımcılarında olduğu görülmüştür.Tiryaki ve Karakuş (2019) çalışmalarında Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının okuma becerisinde dijital materyal kullanımının olumlu sonuçları olduğu özellikle kadın öğretmen adaylarının dijital uygulamalar sayesinde okuduğunu anlama konusunda daha başarılı olduklarını tespit etmişlerdir. Karalök (2020) çalışmasında klasik yöntemlerle dijital öykü ile yabancı dil öğrenimini kıyaslamış ve dijital öykünün okuma motivasyonunu geliştirdiğini tespit etmiştir.

Türkçe öğrenenlerin dijital materyallerin uygulanışı hakkında faydalı oldukları, derslerini kolaylaştırdıkları görüşünde oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca dijital materyallerin uygulanışıyla ilgili görüşü olmayanların da olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Türkçe öğrenicilerinin bir

kısmının dijital materyal hazırlayabilecekleri, bir kısmının dijital materyal hazırlayamayacağı, bir kısmının ise dijital materyal hazırlayabilmek için eksiklerini gidermesi gerektiği tespit edilmiştir. Kalaycı ve Durukan (2019) araştırmalarında yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenimi sırasında kullanılan mobil cihazların dilinin Türkçeyle değiştirilmesinin sürece olumlu katkıları olduğunu tespit etmiş ve kelime öğrenim hızını artırdığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Uçar (2019) çalışmasında yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen öğrencilerin Türkçe öğrenimleri için mobil uygulamalar kullanmaya istekli olduklarını ve bu uygulamaların dil becerilerine olumlu etki yarattığını düşündüklerini ortaya koymuştur.

Araştırmaya katılanların dijital materyalleri kullanırken karşılaştıkları sorunlarda öğretmenlerinin yardımcı olabildiği, dijital materyal kullanımında herhangi bir problem yaşamadığı, dijital materyallerle ilgili sorunlarını kendi kendine çözebildiği, dijital materyallerle ilgili sorunlarında öğretmenlerinden rehberlik alamadığı tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmaya katılanların büyük bir kısmının Türkçe öğrenim sürecinde dijital materyallerden faydalandığı, bazılarının Türkçe öğrenim süreçlerini dijital materyallerle öğrenimlerini kolaylaştırdığını, bazılarınsa öğrenim sürecinde dijital materyalleri kullanmadıkları tespit edilmiştir. Katılanların büyük çoğunluğunun kullandıkları dijital materyallerdeki yönergeleri anlamakta sorun yaşamadıkları, bazı katılımcılar ise kullandıkları dijital materyallerin yönergelerinin anlaşılmaz olduğunu düşündükleri tespit edilmiştir. Bazı katılımcılar ise kullanılan dijital materyallerin doğru dil seviyelerinde hazırlanmadığını düşünmektedirler. Türkçe öğrenme süreçlerinde özellikle telefondan kullanılabilecek kolay ulaşılabilir dijital materyaller görmek istediği, kullanılacak dijital materyallerin telaffuz pratiğine katkısı olasını istedikleri, kullanılacak dijital materyallerin üzerinde not alınabilecek şekilde düşünülmesi gerektiği, kullanılacak dijital materyalin farklı kategorilere ayrılabilmesi gerektiği ve kullanılan dijital materyalin kullanana dizin oluşturma kolaylığı sağlaması gerektiği hakkındaki fikirleri tespit edilmiştir. Bazı katılımcılar ise Türkçe öğreniminde nasıl bir dijital materyal tasarlanması gerektiğiyle ilgili herhangi bir fikir dile getirememiştir. Katılımcıların bir kısmının başka yabancı dillerde kullanılan dijital materyallerin Türkçe öğrenirken de kullanılabileceğini düşünürken bir kısmının ise başka yabancı dilde kullanılan dijital materyallerin Türkçe öğrenimine uygun olmadığı

hakkında görüşleri tespit edilmiştir. Temizyürek ve Ünlü (2015) çalışmalarında dijital göçmenlerin her alanda dijital yerlilere eğitim ve öğretim vermesi için içinde bulunduğumuz dijital devre uygun yöntemler ve materyallerle öğrenme ortamlarını yeniden düzenlemeleri gerektiğini dile getirmiştir. Günümüzde geleneksel eğitim uygulamaları yerine yapılandırmacı eğitim ve öğretim yöntemiyle birlikte eğitim uygulamalarına teknolojinin daha kolay entegre edildiği belirtilmiştir.

Öneriler

1. Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenecek öğreniciler farklı bilgi alt yapılarına sahip olabilir bu durum göz önüne alınarak dijital materyallerin daha sağlıklı kullanımı için öğrenicilere bilgi iletişim, medya okuryazarlığı, kişisel verilerin korunması, yönergelerin okunması hakkında ayrıntılı bilgi verilmelidir.

2. Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğreticisi dersleri sırasında ve öğrencilere pekiştirme yaparken kullanılabilecek dijital yöntemler uygulamalı olarak öğrenicilere öğretilmeli ve kendilerini bu platformlarda nasıl korumaları gerektiği de öğretilmelidir.

3. Çevirimiçi kullanılması gereken dijital materyallerin hangi platformlarda ve kimler tarafından görülebildiği öğrenicilere bildirilirse sanal ortamdaki güvenlik kaygıları azalacaktır.

4. Hazırlanan dijital materyallerin çevirimiçi ya da çevirimdışı kullanılıp kullanılamayacağı öğrenicilere ayrıntısıyla açıklanıp bildirilmelidir.

5. Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğreticileri teknolojik olarak materyal hazırlamak konusunda hizmetiçi eğitimler almalı ve öğrencilere bilgilerini aktarmalıdır.

6. Öğrenicilere yararlanabilecekleri interaktif web sayfaları tanıtılmalıdır.

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