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THRILL OF LANGUAGE, FEAR OF SPEAKING: LANGUAGE AWARENESS, SPEAKING COMPETENCE AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Philip GLOVER[1]

ABSTRACT

The way that learners describe their speaking is informative for the learners themselves and for their teachers. Language learning can be an exciting experience and every learner has a story. This paper presents students' awareness of their own speaking over four years of undergraduate studies. This is a story of engagement with speaking, a story of growing thoughtfulness and a story of acquiring the tools that help thinking and learning. It is often an emotional story, and feelings can be seen to have a major influence on speaking. When students talk about their speaking they reveal experiences that are sometimes exciting and sometimes frightening, and all of which contribute to learning. This paper compares students' reports about their own speaking at the start and end of their university studies. Findings show that changes occurred in the students' experience of speaking, their awareness of speaking, their language use, the places they speak, the people they speak to and how they felt about speaking. The changes reveal increasing learner autonomy through learning as a series of acts involving monitoring of progress, self-awareness, target-setting, strategies and self-assessment.

Keywords: learner autonomy, language awareness, speaking competence, emotions.

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1. INTRODUCTION

People often say 'I understand the language, but I can't speak it'. The skill of speaking, or the task of converting knowledge of language into speech (Thornbury, 2005), seems to have characteristics that set speaking apart from other language abilities. This paper compares students' descriptions of their speaking at the start of the first and fourth years of English language and literature studies at university level. The students describe their speaking abilities, aims and strategies for learning and their feelings about speaking, showing changing levels of self-awareness and language competence. The descriptions are emotional at times, and the emotions involved lead learners to see speaking differently to other skills which presents difficulties for learners developing their language skills. The descriptions illustrate how learner autonomy grows alongside language awareness and speaking competence while learners endeavor to deal with negative feelings related to speaking.

Learner autonomy can be described as the extent to which learners take charge of their own learning, and is 'a series of acts' involving self-awareness, target setting, strategies and self-assessment (Holec, 1991). There is a link between autonomy in learning and language use, and autonomy requires the development both of awareness and language to describe that awareness (Little, 2007).

Language learning is a series of acts that occur over time. One particular language learning experience, like one lesson or one course, is just one act in a series of acts (Holec & Huttunen, 1997). Self-awareness in language learning produces a range of benefits, as being aware of how learning has taken place for an individual learner can help that learner carry out current and future learning (Hawkins, 1999). Target setting also contributes to effective learning, because if learners know where they want to go, they have a better chance of getting there (Cotterall, 2000). Strategies for learning vary greatly between learners, and the successful application of effective strategies is seen as making a major contribution to language

learning (Oxford, 1999). Finally, self-assessment is an important part of learner autonomy as it gives learners 'more control of language learning, by enhancing their self-awareness and their awareness of the language learning process, and by giving them a realistic idea of their own abilities'(Alderson, 2005, p. 209). All of these various acts contribute over time to learning the language.

Self-assessment is an important part of learner autonomy because it enables learners to become more aware of what they can do in order to assist target-setting and strategy selection. Previous research has shown that learner autonomy can help learners achieve desired outcomes when there is some kind of teacher support or input present. Chen (2008) observed how teacher assessment and student self-assessment converged and enabled learners to have a more positive view of their learning and Stefani (1998) found benefits of students and teachers working in partnership. Without support for self-assessment, other studies found disappointing results for learner autonomy (Sert, 2006; Zhang & Goh, 2006). Previous research has therefore noted the role of teachers in supporting learner autonomy.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research Method

This paper reports the results of a qualitative study that analysed data elicited from 32 students at the start of the first and final years of academic study by a group of English Language and Literature students at a state university in Turkey. The students were asked to write a report describing their speaking, state what they wanted to learn and how to learn. Research questions for the study were:

1. What do the students know about their speaking?
2. What do the students think they need to learn?
3. What learning strategies do the students identify?
4. What language do the students use to describe their speaking, targets and strategies?

Analysis of the data compared the students' responses by coding them as descriptions of speaking, learning targets, learning strategies and other topics. The coded data were then grouped according to the features of the descriptions, targets and strategies.

2.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate changes in the students' view of their speaking skills that occurred from a learner autonomy perspective: to look at how learning as a series of acts advanced; how the learners monitored their progress; how they self-assessed and set targets; and how the students hoped to improve. The study also compared findings for this group of students with findings from different cohorts of students reported in earlier studies. The first of these earlier studies (Glover, 2011) used data collected in a single year from a different university in Turkey which analysed data within an analytical framework based on metacognition (Wenden, 1998). The second study (Glover, 2019 under review) involved students from the same university as the current study and analysed data elicited at five points over the course of four years of study using an Engagement with language (EWL) framework (Svalberg, 2009). The earlier studies found that students' descriptions of speaking grew longer and more detailed as they became better able to describe their speaking, often using language from the CEFR (Europe, 2001). The present study also found that the students' descriptions became longer and more detailed, but awareness of the CEFR of these students at the start of the study period was higher than for the previous studies.

3. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

Findings show that changes occurred in the students' descriptions of their speaking abilities, targets set, strategies identified and in their feelings about speaking. There were changes in length, content and complexity of descriptions.

1) Speaking abilities

The descriptions of speaking abilities in the fourth year were longer than in the first year and were more likely to refer to actual language use experiences outside the classroom. The descriptions in the fourth year described speaking as a skill rather than as a body of knowledge. Self-assessment put the students' speaking at a higher level.

Year 1

At the start of the first year the students had little to say about their speaking, and most comments were negative, referring to an inability to speak. The word 'can't' occurred frequently at this stage, for example: "*Unfortunately I can't speak English very well.*"

The descriptions of speaking were sometimes followed by an explanation of why the learner could not speak, or a comment relating to the consequences of not being able to speak. Explanations referred to a lack or absence of speaking in English lessons at high school, in some cases attributed to the examination system: "*our teacher always focused on English grammar because of the exam which was very important for us to begin a university so I couldn't pay enough attention other skills like listening, speaking and writing*". Consequences of poor speaking mentioned include errors of grammar: "*When I speak, I can't pay attention to my grammar because I get stressed*". Other students felt that vocabulary not coming to mind was a problem: "*I know the words, I can comprehend the sentences, but I can't speak English fluently. I hesitate to say whatever comes to my mind*". Several students pointed to a lack of fluency: "*if I prepare… I can speak fluently… but if I don't prepare my speaking I can make some mistakes or I can't talk fluently*", "*While I speak English, I usually get excited, I can't speak fluently and I speak with a stammer*". Problems with speaking were often related to feelings of nervousness or anxiety.

The students' self-assessments using CEFR levels were mainly at B1 level, with some below B1 and some above. Fourteen of the students assessed themselves at B1 in all or most of their speaking: "*If I evaluate my level , I can say, reading (A1), listening (A2), spoken interaction (B1), spoken production (B1), writing (B2)*". Five students said they were at A1 level, for example: "*Firstly, My speaking interaction and production is A1 level*" or A2 level "*By the way my speaking level is A2*". Six assessed themselves at B2 level for some but not all of their speaking: "*I think that my spoken interaction level is B1 and my spoken production level is B2*" and one said

C1 level "*Last year preparation class, was very contributive for me. I had chance to practice with teachers. My speaking skill became better and I passed preparation class with level C1*". Six students did not self-assess using CEFR levels. Apart from using the CEFR levels very few students used words or phrases from CEFR descriptors to describe their speaking.

Year 4

In the final year the students' descriptions of their speaking changed in a number of ways. Descriptions of speaking were much longer than in the first year in terms of how the students spoke, where they spoke and who they spoke to, and there were more examples of actual speaking experiences. Self-assessment placed the students at a higher level than in the first year. There was greater awareness of the processes involved during speaking.

Students were more likely to use 'can-do' statements instead of 'I can't…'. Who the students spoke to and where they spoke changed. In the first year speaking was an activity largely located in the classroom, but in the fourth year it took place more often outside the classroom with a range of different people: "*I can talk in English with my friends from abroad… and understand them very well also they can understand my English well. I can speak with foreigners and explain what I try to mean and understand them correctly… I can talk about daily life with people around me and get in a conversation*".

Student self-assessment tended to be at a higher level than in the first year. Seven said they were B2 or above in the final year: "*My speaking level is between B2 and C1*" and three said B1: "*If it is necessary to mention my spoken production, my level is B1. When I interact with someone, I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe dreams, experiences and hopes*". In addition students were more likely to use words and phrases from C1 level in the tables to describe their speaking in the fourth year, especially the criteria from the Spoken Language Use table (Europe, 2001, pp. 28-29): "*My current speaking level is B2 because I can show a relatively high degree of grammatical control and in addition this, I can express myself fluently and spontaneously, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning*". There was also greater awareness of the processes involved with speaking, as in the two following examples: "*I*

had to improve lots of things about my speaking. I always try to stop myself because of making mistakes, when there is a conversation and it is not a familiar topic I hesitate about joining it. When I am making a formal talk I get very nervous and start making unnecessary pauses and mistakes that I actually knew the correct ways". "*But some of these things have changed in time. I think that I improved with regards to speaking in many aspects such as choosing of correct grammar structure, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency, interaction with other people from 1st year to 4th year. But of course I am not still wonderful and I still have shortcomings and mistakes*".

Students were more likely to use 'can-do' statements instead of saying 'I can't…' and many of these statements used words and phrases from the CEFR tables: "*I think that I gained self-confidence and improved my speaking. I can communicate with people from different countries and I can share my own opinions in conversation about familiar topics*".

The following extended quotation illustrates how the changes described above combine to produce more competent, confident speakers of English who know they can speak with different people in different places and with pleasure:

> "*Living five months abroad and using English more than my native language affected my speaking positively. Thanks to my Erasmus experience, now I am a way better than I used to be in daily conversations. Furthermore, in the Language and Literature Conference which I was conference staff in Lithuania, I had a chance to speak a few people whose native language is English. After the conference, we went to a pub in Kaunas with the participants, conference staff and luckily I was sitting next to a lecturer from Cardiff and it was a great opportunity to test my speaking with a person whose native language is English. The more I spoke, the more I was happy, because it was the first time that I realized I can speak English fluently with someone who is from GB. We talked about almost everything, including UCL Final which took place in Cardiff last summer and even watched a Beşiktaş game together. It was great experience for me*".

2) Targets

The targets that the students set for themselves showed similar evolution to their descriptions of speaking. The targets became longer, more detailed and showed greater awareness of the processes involved in speaking. In the first year targets were expressed as a simple desire to improve, or to learn more vocabulary or better pronunciation. In the final year the students had a more balanced approach with targets set not just in terms of better speaking, and more in terms of improving skills using more detailed criteria such as range, accuracy, fluency, interaction and coherence.

Year 1

In the first year students' learning targets were general and brief. For many students aims were no more than improving English or speaking in general. If the students stated what they wanted to learn, it was expressed in terms of language forms such as vocabulary and grammar. Better speaking was simply a matter of knowing more words and structures.

Most students said their aims were simply to get better: "*I am going to do better speaking this year*" or "*I want to do better in speaking this year*". Other aims were slightly more detailed, identifying pronunciation as a target: "*I want to learn to pronounce words correctly…*" knowledge and vocabulary: "*I want to expand my interests, so I have more knowledge to speak to someone. I have to expand my vocabulary, too*" or fluency and vocabulary: "*I want to speak English fluently by the end of this year because speaking is the most important thing for me… My vocabulary knowledge needs to improve*" or just fluency: "*I want to speak fluently, accurately*" or grammar "*I want to better in my speaking, pronunciation and I want to reduce grammar mistakes as much as possible*" or aiming for emotional change: "*Firstly I must overcome my shyness. Later I believe that I can talk easily*".

Year 4

In the fourth year targets were much longer, more positive and expressed as speaking skills or abilities such as range or accuracy. There was much greater awareness of what happened when they spoke English.

In the fourth year the students saw a more complex relationship between aims for different aspects of speaking. This example showed awareness of

what fluency was and how it related to detailed vocabulary knowledge: "*I would like to develop my fluency ... not to make long pauses for grammatical and lexical planning. Another thing I would like to develop is the range of my speaking. I think I do not have sufficient vocabulary knowledge to talk about academic and formal topics I would like to be able to use high level words and complex terms in speaking*". Aims were described in more detail: "*... these skills are not sufficient for me. In the future, I will become a teacher, so I must improve some skills. Firstly, I must use language more flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Then, I must express myself spontaneously in even complex matters. Also, I would like to be able to present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points, and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion*".

3) Learning strategies

The strategies referred to by the students in the final year were different to the first year strategies. First year strategies tended to be based on solitary activities involving listening, watching, individual study or were expressed as vague aspirations for improvement. Practice was rarely mentioned, and when it was it was located in the classroom. In the fourth year students referred to practising speaking with real people outside class more often than to solitary or individual activities or activities in class.

Year 1

In the first year the strategies that the students identified tended to be solitary and based on individual activities or study. Watching films or TV "*I think that watching tv series is best way to learn something about speaking*" and listening to music were the most frequently mentioned: "*First, I should ... watch more English series and listen to voice records in English. I am planning to listen to you carefully*".

There were very few strategies that actually involve speaking, although some students were aware of the need to self-monitor by listening to their own speaking: "*I will watch films, animated cartoons and news with subtitle in English. I will listen to song... I will read books. I will practice myself and I will record my voice and I will listen to my sound and... figure out my mistakes and try not to do it again*". If practice of speaking was mentioned, there was usually no further information about how or who with apart from when that speaking was located in the classroom with

classmates or teachers: "*I am going to go to English course this summer… I study vocabulary and grammar at this course… I am going to watch foreign movies and listen to foreign music if I can understand what they are saying, I can speak well. I am going to speak English at free time in my room. I should do a lot of practice*". For most of the students in the first year there was a simple relationship between listening and speaking, where speaking could improve just as a result of listening.

Year 4

In year four a much wider range of strategies was mentioned. These strategies were actually employed by the students rather than being aspirations for the future. Practice had become the most frequently mentioned strategy for improvement. "*I am aware of that there are a lot of ways to improve speaking, and for me the most efficient among them is learning by practicing. I believe in that the more you get involved in conversations, the more your speaking will improve and becomes more fluent and accurate*". Speaking English was an activity that could take place in real life: "*I can improve my English by using it everywhere in my life, I should practise more and also I should always try to speak English. Secondly I should increase my vocabulary by reading some articles, watching English series and maybe playing word games*".

Students showed they had become aware of the need to involve themselves in speaking as much as possible, and that these experiences could be enjoyable: "*I should take every opportunity that can be helpful for me. For example attending to the conferences, taking part in activities, using English more frequently not to forget it and so on. I also believe that travelling helps a lot to improve your language skills and I am sure I will do that with pleasure*". These strategies illustrate the extent to which students had started to view speaking as part of a series of acts. Speaking in different places with real people had become a reality for most of the students.

4) Other subject-feelings

The instructions for the report asked the students to describe their speaking, state targets and identify strategies. It was striking to see that most of the

students also wrote about another aspect of speaking that was important to them, the emotional aspect of speaking.

Year 1

In the first year most of the students reported having very negative feelings about speaking, whilst also expressing very positive feelings about the English language. Many students blamed anxiety for their inability to speak, although some recognised that inability to speak may also have been a cause of their anxiety.

Many students said that they were very happy to be studying English: "*I like English and learning foreign languages.*" Many had even acquired a love of English: "*I 've been in love with English since I was at secondary school*". However, speaking was seen as difficult: "*I think the most difficult... is speaking*". Difficulty was sometimes linked with emotions: *I'm shy. So, I have difficulty in speaking. The results of these negative feelings concerning speaking were often quite extreme: "my hands shake because of the excitement*". There were feelings of fear: "*We can't say things that we know. We fear in case we say the wrong things*" and feelings of shame were reported: "*My speaking interaction and production is A1 level. This case is shameful for me*". These feelings affected the ability to speak in front of others: "*I'm a little bit shy. If I can't say a word correctly, I think people make fun of me. Maybe they don't but I'm just a shy person*". Students were embarrassed by their speaking: "*I was embarrassed by my English. I didn't tell which department I study. I became aware of my terrible speech*". These emotions often led to feelings of inadequacy: "*I feel insufficient in English*".

Year 4

The fourth year reports showed that the students had quite different feelings about speaking. There were fewer references to difficulty and anxiety. When feelings were referred to they were more often positive than negative.

There was a realisation in many reports that speaking was not so difficult, and their ability to speak had changed for the better: "*Speaking English is not so difficult for me even though (I was) out of my depth at the beginning of learning English*". By year four, feelings of nervousness had either been replaced with positive emotions or else anxiety had been reduced or was under control. For example, the negative feelings of the student who felt

'shameful' in the first year became less strong: "*I sometimes worry about making mistakes in front of crowd.*" Others still hoped to overcome nervousness: "*Finally, I would like to overcome my excitement*". The student who referred to hands shaking in the first year stated: "*I have more confidence now but this (does) not mean I do not (make) any mistake… this is also quite natural because I am not a native speaker*".

Most students reported feeling more confident: "*I think that I gained self-confidence and improved my speaking skill*". Nervousness was under control: "*I was so excited while I was speaking English but now I am not like before*". Speaking English, for example by working at a language school, had a positive effect: "*This experience (working at a language school) has provided me lots of advantages, so I have gained self-esteem*". More positive feelings are associated with speaking: "*I appreciate that my lecturer guides and helps me by feedback and encouragement*". Another student wrote: "*In speaking part, I have nice memories, really*". Speaking had become a series of acts that was no longer daunting and could be pleasurable.

4. DISCUSSION

The students' reports indicated changes in five main areas: experience of speaking, awareness of speaking, language to describe speaking, places for speaking and people for speaking to. All these aspects of the students' speaking provided examples of learner autonomy, presenting learning as a series of acts involving awareness of speaking, setting targets and monitoring progress through self-assessment. Some of these acts occurred in the classroom, but most took place outside the classroom.

1) **Speaking experience**

Experience of speaking increased greatly. In the first year most students stated that they had had little or no previous experience of speaking English before coming to university. A few had gained experience outside the classroom, mainly through summer employment in tourism work. These findings were similar to the previous studies conducted. In the final year most, but not all

students had taken opportunities to speak that university study had presented, mainly outside the classroom. Some students still longed for speaking opportunities. These findings concur with the previous longitudinal study.

2) Speaking awareness

Awareness of speaking increased greatly. In the first year the students described their speaking with some difficulty using brief and simple descriptions and the idea of thinking about language learning in general and speaking in particular did not seem to have occurred to the students. In the fourth year the students had a much clearer idea of what they could and could not do in English, and of the processes involved in how speaking and learning work.

3) Language used

The language used by the students to describe their speaking borrowed words, phrases and criteria from the CEFR, and the sophistication of their thinking developed from the first to the fourth year. In the first year the use of the CEFR tended to be limited to a self-assessment level (predominantly A2 or B1) or in a few cases longer chunks of language taken from the statements in the tables. This finding was different from the earlier studies, which showed that most students had had no experience of the CEFR until they joined the ELL department. This cohort, however, were familiar with the levels, probably because those who did the prep year had used a language portfolio and their grades were given using CEFR levels. Important changes occurred in how the students used the CEFR statements between the first and fourth year, and the framework statements and criteria seem to have contrinuted to the students' awareness of their own speaking. By the fourth year most students were using CEFR language in some way to describe their speaking, and the CEFR language had been integrated into the students wider discourse for describing their speaking. The students had acquired a discourse that enabled them to think about and express how they spoke.

4) Places and people

The places and people involved in speaking English for these students changed greatly between the first and final year. In the first year speaking was generally seen as an activity for the classroom with teachers and classmates. In the final year speaking had become an activity used mainly

outside the classroom in many different setting and with many different people. This finding was similar to the previous longitudinal study.

5) Classroom activities

Classroom activities were part of the series of acts that the students performed. However, the role that classroom activities played in supporting the development of learner autonomy is not clear and cannot be directly attributed to the changes in competence and awareness that occurred. Courses that focused on the skill of speaking presented the students with opportunities to develop their speaking through a number of different tasks. Most tasks consisted of students speaking in pairs. The three main tasks used were a conversation on a familiar topic (families, home towns, weekend activities and so on), a picture description and discussion and advice about language and learning and the advantages and disadvantages of various language learning strategies. There were also self-assessment activities with CEFR tables to monitor progress. As one student described the activities: "*Till now, I have learned how to express myself – or a situation- better, clear, and fluent in an appropriate style on a general or leisure topics compared to past. I believe that I can use language clearly, mostly for social purposes. I can take turns, and interact with native speakers who are on my level mostly; without doing much searching for expressions. I can make grammatical control of my own speaking most of the time, and correct other people's mistakes especially if it is obvious. I can produce speech but it may not be totally smooth flowing, or well structured.*" During the courses that focused on speaking the students also gave brief presentations, wrote reports, recorded podcasts and were examined through paired oral exams. There were up to 21 hours of speaking-focused classes per term for each student.

5. CONCLUSION

The study aimed to investigate the students' views of their own speaking at the beginning of the first and final years of their studies in an ELL department. The study analysed how the students described their speaking, what they wanted to learn, how they learned and how they used language to describe their speaking.

1.   What did the students know about their speaking?

In Year one the students were able to write very little about their speaking. Descriptions were limited to brief, mainly negative comments followed by explanations of why their speaking was poor. Speaking was hampered by anxiety. In Year four speaking had become a combination of skills and sub-skills for the real world and anxiety was under control.

2.   What did they think they needed to learn?

In Year one students wanted to learn English in general, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. In Year four students recognised that they needed to communicate with real people using a combination of skills and sub-skills.

3.   What learning strategies did the students use?

In Year one strategies were largely solitary activities, at home, involving reading and listening. If speaking happened at all it was in the classroom or involved a vague idea of 'practice'. In Year four speaking occurred inside and outside the classroom, through specific types of practice, with real people.

4.   What language did the students use to describe their speaking, targets and strategies?

In Year 1, there was an abundance of can't do statements using a very limited range of words and phrases. Self-assessment used CEFR levels but most did not use other words and phrases from the CEFR. In Year four the language used was more focused, more detailed and used can-do statements and CEFR criteria.

The results of this study suggest that learning success benefits from learner autonomy, learner autonomy needs awareness and awareness needs a discourse. The study suggests that learners can develop learner autonomy through their own speaking experiences and awareness, which build ability and confidence. Classroom events are just part of a series of acts, and what happens outside the classroom is more significant than what happens inside.

Here, two learners have the final word:

"*I am so eager to improve myself until I speak and write in English without having any doubts about making mistakes. I know that I will taste the pleasure of using English as if it is my native language and when I do it, I will be convinced about my skills. All these things depend on practicing and studying hard. Nothing can help you but yourself*".

"*I know that there is no limit in speaking. Once someone realizes the joy of expressing yourself in English, that person becomes more motivated and willing in terms of speaking just like I do…*"

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AUTHENTIC NEWS ARTICLES IN ESP TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

Practice has shown that students of technical universities, having completed a full course of English grammar and having mastered the basic vocabulary of the studied direction, still have problems in understanding authentic texts and communicating in foreign language with their colleagues. Today it is extremely important to acquaint students with the news material related to the sphere they are studying in and they will have to practice their language. Thus, the purpose of this article is to propose a new approach to improve and strengthen the connection between academic education and practical engineering. We tried to conduct a study in order to assess the impact of authentic materials on the development of students' communicative competencies.

Keywords: ESP teaching, authentic news articles, professional competence, engineers.

1. INTRODUCTION

ESP teaching has recently undergone major changes in the process of globalization and the universal penetration of various fields of

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activity. In this regard, the task of the ESP teacher significantly expands in the direction of acquaintance with the latest trends in the field of teaching. Today, the aim of the teacher is not only to possess primary information in the field being taught, but also to follow the latest business trends.

The largest content of such trends today are news articles on the Internet. The importance of such texts for learning is difficult to overestimate. Practice has shown that advanced students are significantly motivated when working with these texts. Moreover, these tasks are carried out equally as involved both in the independent search for the contents and with the exercises prepared by the teacher for the articles.

As a result we may observe strengthening the previously learned terminology, familiarity with new terms and concepts, as well as constant awareness of the latest trends in the field under study, without departing from theoretical training.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Authentic materials and media can help students to develop and enhance the connection between the language classroom and the outside world. According to Gebhard (1996, p. 25), authentic materials are a way to "contextualize" language learning. He thinks that when lessons are focused on comprehension of a restaurant menu or a newspaper article, students tend to concentrate more upon the content and meaning of the text rather than upon the language itself. This represents for students an invaluable source of language input and cultural elements specific to the community of the target language. Little et al., (1989, p. 26) hold the same position that learners who use authentic materials become motivated as the materials bring them close to culture of the target language. If students want to visit a foreign country and perform appropriately in the foreign community, they have to get familiar with the authentic materials. Berardo (2006, p. 64) states that "authentic material can

be used to promote motivation". Extracting real information from real texts can be exciting and motivating for students as these materials reflect the changes in language use, which do not occur in the textbooks. This gives the learners "the proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people" (Nuttall, 1996, p.172), and not only studied in the classroom. Brosnan (1984, p. 2-3, cited in Nunan (2005, p. 51) offers the following justification for the use of these real-world resources:

1. Language is natural. By simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controlling vocabulary, etc.) we may risk making the reading task more difficult.
2. Authentic material offers students the chance to deal with a small amount of print which, at the same time, contains complete, meaningful messages.
3. Authentic printed material provides students with the opportunity to make use of nonlinguistic clues (layout, pictures, colors, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) to help them discover the meaning more easily.
4. Adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom, and to what they need to do outside it.

A brief review of some of the current theme and similar topics reveals some interesting, and sometimes conflicting, points. For example, Gilmore (2007, p.109) considers it is possible to adapt authentic texts to different language levels by constantly varying the tasks. Therefore, the ESP materials designer must have the ability to find authentic texts that fit the students' differing pedagogic needs, solutions to which can be implemented in the course syllabus. Mishan (2005, p. 40) suggests that elementary level LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) students possess background knowledge, an expertise in their subject area that "enables them to cope with TL texts in their specialism which lay native speakers might have difficulty with." One could add that even the language teacher may find such texts difficult, especially if they lie outside a foreign language teacher's specialty. On the other hand, the majority of ESP

students are usually more interested in the topic than in the form of language (Webener 2008, p. 139). Lüdtke and Schwienhorst (2010) carried out a study and concluded that students "expressed more interest in vocational LSP rather than study-related LSP courses." Further, they suggested that "Law, Humanities, and Natural Sciences students (…) [in particular] favour study-related content while Economics and Mechanical Engineering students are more interested in job-related content." Camiciottoli states that an awareness of metadiscourse is also useful in helping ESP learners "with the difficult task of grasping the writer's stance when reading challenging authentic materials." (2003, p. 29)

3. METHODOLOGY

Nowadays future engineers who are learning English, can not be limited to the assimilation of grammar and terminology. To become competitive specialists in the nearest future, current technical students must be aware of the latest trends in the field of study. The latest information can be obtained on the official news sites on the Internet, which is distinguished not only by reliability and timeliness, but also by the presence of new terms and concepts. On the other hand, an English teacher, being a non-expert in this field, can work with text only in relation to linguistics, and with respect to technology, students work independently with the article and explain it to the teacher in an accessible manner. Thus, there is a continuous mutual learning between students and the teacher, allowing both parties to keep abreast of the latest developments in the industry being studied.

The essence of this technique is as follows. We used two methods of working with Internet articles.

As Dorda (2008) considers, many ESP learners have little time for class contact and rely on a mix of classes, self-study and reference material. For self-study or reference purposes, materials need to be complete, well laid out and self-explanatory.

The learner will want explanations, examples and practice activities that have answer and discussion keys.

The materials will need to take account of different learning styles and allow for the explorer, who will follow through a train of thought; the browser, who will pick and choose at random; and the systematist, who will work through methodically. This implies that an important feature is the overt organization of the material – through informative contents pages and an index.

All this places high demands on the materials and great pressure on materials writers. Not surprisingly, producing one hour of good learning material gobbles up hours of preparation time. Each stage of finding suitable carrier content, matching real content to learning and real world activities, composing clear rubrics, planning an effective layout, is time-consuming. Preparing new materials from scratch for every course taught is clearly impractical. One of the myths of ESP has been that you have to write your own materials. This then leads to the myth that every ESP teacher is also a good designer of course materials. Only a small proportion of good teachers are also good designers of course materials. A good provider of materials will be able to:

- select appropriately from what is available;

- be creative with what is available;

- modify activities to suit learners' needs;

- supplement by providing extra activities.

3.1. Purpose of the Study

Our study was conducted for the purpose of assessing the impact that the use of authentic materials in teaching ESP classes has on the developing of students' communicative competences.

The branch of the Russian State University of Oil and Gas (National Research University) named after I.Gubkin in the city of Tashkent curriculum for foreign languages has adopted the recommendations

include Common European Frame of Reference and this is reflected in the fact that it sets the task of developing students' communicative competence in foreign languages. The purpose of training is the further development of language and communication competence in the field of foreign language professional communication in the field of oil and gas business.

Along with the practical goal of the course of a foreign language sets educational and educational goals, namely the formation of readiness and ability to further independent study of a foreign language.

The discipline "Profiled Foreign Language" refers to the disciplines of the variable part of the humanitarian, social and economic cycle B1. The course of study in this discipline is the 2nd stage of an integrated system of university training in a foreign language (advanced level) and is a continuation of the basic part of the discipline "Foreign Language".

In the process of mastering the discipline, the student improves and demonstrates the following general cultural competencies in mastering the GEP (General Educational Programs) and implementing the FSES (Federal State Education Standards) in ESP:

- ability to communicate in oral and written forms in Russian and foreign languages for solving problems of interpersonal and intercultural interaction;
- ability to self-organization and self-education

As a result of the development of the "Profiled foreign language" discipline, the student must demonstrate the following learning outcomes:

1. *The student should know:*
- vocabulary on the profile of training, features of speech etiquette when conducting discussions in situations of professional communication;

- grammatical forms and constructions of the studied language characteristic of scientific speech and writing on the profile of training;

2. *The student should be able to:*
- search for new information and comprehend it when working with texts from educational and scientific literature;
- carry out an oral exchange of information in situations of professional communication on the training profile;
- understand oral (monologue and dialogical) speech in situations of professional communication;

3. *Student must own:*
- skills to participate in professional discussions in the format of the Round Table, the expression of certain communicative intentions (request / communication of information - additional, detailed, clarifying, illustrating, evaluative, clarification of the interlocutor's opinion, expression of own opinion about the information received, expression of approval / discontent);
- skills of bilateral consecutive interpretation of texts on the training profile.

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

At the initial stage, we took four articles for one lesson. It turned out that in one lesson 2-4 students received the same texts. In total for the semester, the teacher prepared twelve articles with 10 underlined words. The task consisted of three exercises.

1. Give definitions of underlined words orally.

2. Choose at least 3 synonyms for each underlined word.

3. Choose any five words and compose two questions for them.

4. Write a summary of the text.

With this approach, you can see and assess the scale of the vocabulary of students, especially when exercising with synonyms.

Selecting synonyms, and comparing them with the synonyms of their classmates, students mutually enrich vocabulary, and also get a different point of view on the same word.

After working on the article prepared by the teacher, students independently find authentic articles of interest from the Internet. Thus, they are even more informatively motivated. Working with the article is the same as in the first method, with the difference that they write out 10 words themselves. In this way, even if the material is repeated, the words under study and tasks are different because students create their own thinking. Since the work takes place in the audience mainly verbally, students unwittingly exchange news and new words.

The task, the purpose of this technique is, first, to consolidate the previously learned grammatical and terminological material, while practicing it in speaking. Secondly, students significantly expand vocabulary and conceptual reserve. Thirdly, students are constantly aware of the latest global scientific and technological trends in their field, without disconnecting from the theoretical teaching of disciplines, which takes place in their native language.

After every five sessions, we conducted a control test of Internet articles prepared by the teacher. The test consists of three tasks:

1. To find words to the 10 given definitions. Synonyms are possible.

2. to give definitions to the 10 words in written form.

3. To give a summary of the article orally.

The total score for the control was 10: for the 1st task - 2.5 points, for the 2nd - 5, for the 3rd - 2.5. the results are shown in the table.

3. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

Table 1: Analysis results

Group	Quantity of students	Level of students	1st midcourse assessment, overall score	2nd midcourse assessment, overall score	final assessment, overall score
UTS-15-01, 1st group, A	9	advanced	8	9	9, 4
UTS-15-01, 2nd group, B	15	intermediate	5	6,5	8
URN-15-01, group C	12	intermediate	6	6,5	7,8

In Table 1 the results of the analysis show that all students are making progress in their work. Group A, being at a fairly high level, receives a relatively high score for the 1st midcourse assessment. As a result of further work, the score is slightly increased.

In group B, due to the large number of students and different levels of language, the average score for the test shows the average result. As a result of further work, including self-help, progress is significantly increasing, by the final assessment showing a fairly high score.

In group B, where all students are approximately on the same level, progress is stable, without large gaps.

In addition, during the semester, students independently prepared a large number of various Internet articles from various fields of the profession being studied. Extensive news content was processed and discussed, which allowed students to gradually master the realities of their future profession - thus, another result of this methodology was achieved.

This study was conducted in the branch of the RSU of Oil and Gas named after I.M. Gubkin in Tashkent, in the academic group TS-15-01. There are 24 students in the group, which are divided into two subgroups according to the level of English - nine (advanced) and fifteen (intermediate). And also in the 1st subgroup of the group RN-15-01 (intermediate), in which twelve students. All students study at the 4th year, by the time of the study five semesters of the English language have been completed (a total of 198 academic hours). The material covered is the basic textbooks of Language Practice by Michael Vince (Intermediate), Oil and Gas 1.2 by Lewis Lansford and D'Arcy Vallance, Petroleum Engineering by T.D.Vavilova, T.L.Ivanova, and thematic handouts. The study was conducted during one semester (36 academic hours).

4. DISCUSSION

The focus group students were provided with a questionnaire at the end of the period regarding the authentic materials use in teaching ESP classes. The study aimed to determine the students' attitudes toward the use of authentic materials, their attendance, the benefits and difficulties they encountered when they were exposed to authentic materials. The outcomes of the study revealed a high level of students' participation in the English classroom tasks. The table representation shows that 92.85% of the students participated in all the classes when authentic materials were used. Students showed positive attitudes toward the use of authentic materials stating that most of them greatly enjoyed the use of authentic materials. The

results of the final tests and the outcomes of the study have shown that teaching ESP through authentic materials had a positive impact on students' language acquisition and communicative competences in the target language. Throughout the present study, the students showed a positive attitude toward using the authentic materials in English classes and expressed the idea that these materials stimulated them to wish to enhance their communicative skills and knowledge about the culture of the English speaking countries. We believe that the authentic materials offered the students a valuable source of language input "since they could be exposed to more than just the language presented by the teacher and the textbook" (Gebhard, 2006, p. 105) and we had many opportunities for planning and organizing teaching and learning activities. The authentic materials used in the present study proved to be highly motivating, giving a sense of achievement when understood, a sense of pleasure, and encouraging further reading.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion we can say that groups that were chosen for our study, graduate from the university, which means they are not only knowledgeable in basic English, but also motivated to get close to the profession.

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ENGLISH IMMERSION IN A NON-NATIVE SPEAKING COUNTRY

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ABSTRACT

Results of a survey applied to the parents of the elementary school where this study took place, indicated that most parents would like to join workshops to help their children in their assignments and to consolidate what is being taught in class. Regarding English, parents have reported a very low or none proficiency. There is extensive research that supports parent's involvement and technology to improve learning. Thus, the researcher conducted a longitudinal case study to describe the effects of watching television in English in a non-English speaking country. A child was immersed to the English language from the age of three. She was approaching age seven by the time of this report. Data were collected through notes recorded after observations in real-life contexts. Findings indicated that she could translate some words, there was interference of the foreign language in the mother tongue, she followed instructions in English and interacted with native speakers in basic routine conversations. Implications of this study are for parents' using available technology to immerse their children in English from early ages and for authorities to include these suggestions in the curriculum not only for parents but for teachers.

Keywords: early English education, parents' involvement, television.

1. INTRODUCTION

English has become a main language worldwide. The British Council considers it as the global common language (2013). They reported that about a quarter of the world's population speak

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English. This lingua franca is used for communication, science, technology, business, entertainment, and diplomacy (British Council, 2013; Nurhayati & Fitriana, 2018). Thus, learning English is a concern not only for individuals but also for education authorities worldwide.

In the Ecuadorian context, education authorities have set standards for students (Ministerio de Educación, 2014) and teachers (Ministerio de Educación, 2012). They have also included this language as early as first grade in elementary formal education, students in this grade are six years old (Ministerio de Educación, 2016). Standards are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Thus, students that finish 7th grade should demonstrate an A2 level, high school students should reach a B1 level, and higher education students should finish their studies and be proficient at a B2 level. For teachers, they should have a higher level from that of the students. It is important to mention that the mother tongue in Ecuador is Spanish (L1) and English is taught as a foreign language (L2).

Local authorities have also acknowledged a lack of English teachers and have motivated native speakers to come and teach in Ecuador through the project "Time to Teach". They have also searched for mechanics to enhance teachers' proficiency, and launched the "Go Teacher" program. Through this program, English teachers took a proficiency test. Those that got passing results were chosen to travel to the United States and spend a semester there to improve their proficiency through language and professional development classes (Educar Ecuador, 2017). Even though all above mentioned efforts, a report of Education First (2018) indicated that Ecuadorian population have low proficiency and is in place 65th out of 88 countries.

On the other hand, parents worldwide support their children's English education and emphasized its short and long-term advantages. They may lack evidence-based strategies to strive

learning from home (Asia Society, 2012; Lee, 2008; Pagan & Sénéchal, 2014; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2013). To confirm these perspectives, a survey was taken to parents of first graders of the school where this case study took place. They indicated that they were willing to take workshops to help their children be successful in the school. They advocated that meetings in the schools were mainly informative.

Furthermore, the use of handy technology can be a venue to support students' learning of English. This is presented in this case study. There are many studies that have investigated television to improve EFL learning in formal education settings (Chusanachoti, 2009; Kines, 2012; Kuo, 2009; Rodgers & Webb, 2017) but not as a type of immersion from home. Moreover, the interconnectivity provided by technology for new generations has been recognized (Asia Society, 2012). In the same vein, the local agency of telecommunications indicated that 30% of the Ecuadorian population (4,200,000) has accessed to cable television. This means they are given a decoder and a control where they can select the language of the programs. There are four main operators. They offer different plans that go from 35 to 143 international channels. From them, most movies, series, and cartoons have been produced in English settings and are available in that language.

This longitudinal case study aimed at describing the effects of watching television in English as a type of immersion in a Spanish speaking country. It is intended to provide suggestions for parents in assisting their very young children in acquiring English, since for some it has become a major concern. Teachers can also benefit from these findings to include popular English programs in their classes. They can scaffold, guide, and expand the content in their lessons. This can also motivate students to continue watching the programs at home. This study implemented handy technology that is popular among families worldwide.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Bruner (1966) proposed an order in the way of structuring the curriculum that considers immersion as a first step, followed by structure and ends with application. Immersion was considered in terms of using the target language for instruction and included interaction through communication activities (Hammerly, 1987). According to Hammerly, this was applied in Canada to improve French with excellent results in listening and reading comprehension tests. However, it was not reporting the same outcomes in productive skills like writing where there were high percentage of mistakes in sentences. Same results were found by Pinar (2016), there were positive results in pronunciation and fluency; however, different results were reported for writing, grammar, and vocabulary. Fortune (2012) shared the same positive statistics for listening and reading, which are receptive skills.

Hammerly (1987) reported that participants had been exposed to 7,000 of instruction in French. This author concluded that 13 years of immersion were not sufficient for productive skills; this type of immersion was not a natural context for second language acquisition though; and, there was interference of the mother tongue grammar in the new language. Regarding children, this author remarked that output should be expected from grade five on, due to cognitive and linguistic limitations in prior grades.

In a meta-analysis conducted by Pinar (2016), the researcher reported different factors of immersion. Pinar considered immersion as living in the country of the target language besides the definition provided by Hammerly (1987). Hammerly added to this description that immersion implies being surrounded by native speakers. Pinar reviewed studies to determine the effects of immersion in linguistic competence, individual differences, intercultural sensitivity, and non-linguistics factors that also affect learning. Pinar also mentioned some drawbacks like living with a host family, and cultural shock. Pinar concluded that there were individual differences and motivations that could facilitate or hinder learning a language when living abroad.

Fortune (2012) referred to immersion in the same way as Hammerly (1987), using only the target language for instruction for half or more of the assigned subjects in a regular schedule. Fortune added that it brings benefits in terms of academic achievement, and literacy development. However, this researcher pointed out some drawbacks like deficient teacher preparation to address: content, language, and literacy development.

Currently, there is a trend to integrate technology in classes and as part of the curriculum (Kizildag, 2017; Ministerio de Educación, 2019). Most studies reviewed for this paper included television as a supplementary resource during EFL classes. They have not included television as a type of immersion in non-English speaking countries, like in the case of this study. These research studies reported the benefits of television for learning a new language in educational institutions (Ahrabi, 2016; Chusanachoti, 2009; Ramírez, 2002).

There are positive and negatives insights regarding television in education. Defenders provide several benefits like: they are organized under a narrative, viewers are exposed to culture and language in context, and that actions motivate students, among others. Retractors indicate that learners may watch television with no purpose or not gain anything from it, there is no feedback, and its space in terms of size of the televisions is limited, among others (Anderson, Lavigne, & Hanson, 2013). However, children watch television in their mother tongue for entertaining not for education. In this sense, their learning is incidental (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014).

It is important to mention that extensive research has also been conducted to measure the effects of television in children's sleep, obesity, academic performance, and behavior, among others. The number of hours that children spend in front of the television is 32 hours a week. There is also a tendency of online viewing (Boyse, 2010). This author also mentioned that many parents in the United States encourage their children to watch television.

After the revision of this literature, knowing the low levels of English in Ecuador, and the high percentage of watching television,

this study tries to shed light on improving English proficiency of children by programming the programs in English. Another purpose is to assist parents on their children's second language acquisition. Thus, this study addressed the following research question: What is the effect of watching childish television in English in toddlers and infants in a non-native English speaking country?

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants and Setting

In this case study, the participant was a girl. At the moment of this report, she was approaching seven years old. Her mother is an English teacher. The father is a recognized artist (painter). The girl attends a catholic elementary school located in the south west of the city. It is a private school. In the first grade, she did not have an English teacher, but the teacher of the grade provided some vocabulary in English. As of second grade, there was an English teacher. She had three hours of English lessons per week. The girl watches television in the morning and afternoon for a total of one or two hours on a daily basis.

3.2. Design and Data Collection Instruments

This longitudinal case study was conducted under a single design. Zainal (2007) pointed out that case studies can be applied in any areas and disciplines. This author added that this design describes and analyzes events in a specific context. It is usually limited to a small geographical area. It includes a limited number of participants as well. Walliman (2011) referred to it as something that can be predicted under same circumstances. This design was chosen because it explores and explains authentic situations.

The instruments collected qualitative data through observations that were reported in diary notes. This has been conducted from 2015. Collected data were only disclosed for the purpose of the study.

Names and other identification information were kept confidential and used for the description and analysis in this study.

Observations were not participants. Walliman (2011) mentioned that observations collect data regarding events and activities. They can demonstrate participants' understandings of processes by describing their actions. During this research, they were carried out in natural settings. Descriptions of the observations were reported in diary notes in a chronological order to report the moments the girl used English. This process was used to document the effect of watching childish TV program.

Childish TV program served as a resource. From the moment the girl watched television, it was programmed in English. The remote control provides an option to choose the language. All kids programs were set in the target language. Her favorite channels were Discovery Kids when she was three; Disney Junior and Disney Channel when she turned five until the report of this research.

3.3. Data Analysis

The collected data were categorized according to the output of the infant. They were reported in chronological order. Transcripts of diary notes and records of observations were included to prove evidence of acquisition of the new language. Context of the output was also added to provide in-depth information of the usage of English.

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

In this section, there is a description of the notes recorded from 2015 when the girl was three years old. They are mentioned in chronological order. Notes were taken when English was used in real-life settings.

Diary notes report that when she started to communicate she uttered some English words, like: *taki* (pronounced /ta:kI/) meaning thank you; and *alulu* (pronounced /alu:lu:/ meaning I love you. The girl was repeating in her way what she had listened. Interestingly, she

did not use the Spanish words to say the same. She also said good morning and referred to colors in English regardless the person she was addressing to.

Since in these channels, the logo appears in every program, it was noticed that she recognized the logo when she saw it in other contexts. For examples: when the family went shopping, in flyers that were given there; or, when her parents were reading the newspaper and there was an ad.

When she was four, she wanted to have meal conversations with her mother, when they were eating lunch or dinner. They were hold when the girl initiated or asked to keep the conversations in English. She also interacted with English native speakers. The first situation was with a foreign friend who always sends presents to her. So, the girl was expecting a present and asked for it. The dialogue was:

Context: The mother, the American friend, and the girl were at a sightseeing voyage ride in the afternoon.

- *Girl: (Name of friend) where is my present?*
- *Friend: I will give it to you when we get home, now sit here and do not walk around.*
- *Girl: Sat and was quiet.*

The friend made some other indications to the girl. She followed instructions to the surprise of her mother. This friend speaks English and Spanish but used English to talk to both the mother and the girl. A similar situation happened at age five, when other foreign friends from Belgium asked some personal questions, she answered back. It was nighttime, the girl was sleepy, and therefore she did not ask or want to keep the conversation going on. These Belgium friends speak Flemish (mother tongue), French (L2), and English (foreign language).

When she was under a psychology test to be admitted in the school where she was going to be registered (she was four), the psychologist pointed some colors and the girl identified them in English. The

psychologist recommended parents to teach her the colors in Spanish. In her school life, she has not had problems with English so far. The English teacher has asked her sometimes to volunteer to say English phrases in class.

From age six, records indicated that she can describe in Spanish what was happening in the program to her father, who does not understand English. The mother is a proficient English speaker. When they watched television together (mother and girl), they both talked about the program. Sometimes the girl repeated the words in English and said the translation. Some other times, she said the words in English and asked for the translation just to confirm that what she thought was correct. Other times, she asked the mother to explain certain situations that were new to her, especially when she did not understand abstract language or cultural differences.

Another finding is related to the interference of English grammar in the girl's Spanish discourse. When she spoke in Spanish she tended to say first the adjective and then the noun. This is a sequence in English grammar; for example: un bonito carro (a nice car), una linda muñeca (a pretty doll), una colorida blusa (a colorful blouse), un amoroso perro (a lovely dog).

Reports also indicated that cognates were another interference. She made a card to her mother. She said in Spanish: *¿Mami por qué no me haces una carta? [Mom, why don't you make a letter to me?]* However, she meant: *Mom, why don't you make a card to me?* She used "carta" in Spanish meaning "card" in English. The translation of "carta" is letter.

It is important to highlight that she underestimated her performance in English, especially with relative members that were not very close to her or that did not live with her. This may indicate that she was not willing to communicate in English with people that did not understand her or that may laugh at her for speaking in the L2.

At age seven, she has started to write in English. This is due to school classwork and assignments. The mother was checking the books and notebooks. She noticed that the girl wrote the way the words were

pronounced. This happens in the Spanish language, there is not a difference between the spoken and the written language.

5. DISCUSSION

Results showed that there are effects of watching television in English as a type of immersion in a non-English speaking country. In this case study, findings reported effects on both languages. The foreign language has interfered in some Spanish (mother tongue) structures, for example. There were other unexpected findings that will be also discussed in this section.

Diary notes reported that when the girl started to communicate she uttered some English words. This finding is aligned with the benefits of immersion given by Pinar (2016) in pronunciation and fluency. However, Pinar's meta-analysis is different in terms of age and context of the participants in the studies she reviewed. Unexpectedly, the girl in this case study did not use those same words in her mother tongue. There are no studies that have explored television in English as a type of immersion in Spanish-speaking countries to explain, compare or contrast this finding.

The girl's willingness to interact with her mother in English and her description of the programs to her father can be compared to Bruner's spiral curriculum that starts with immersion, structure, and application (1996). However, in this case study, the structure phase was skipped. Even though, the mother has a good level of English, she did not teach or initiate any conversation in English. This finding cannot be compared or contrasted with other studies, since most research studies conducted have implemented television as a resource in formal learning.

The girl's description of the programs in Spanish to her father can be due to the organization and structure of the programs (Anderson, Lavigne, & Hanson, 2013). It might be easy for her to follow the visuals and describe them. Some series and movies are repeated, so that repetition can also serve to better understand the beginning,

middle, and ending. She may recall what happened and that helped her to better describe the program. None of the drawbacks reported by Boyse (2010) matched in this study because parents controlled the time to watch television.

The girl could follow directions, and answer basic personal questions. These are similar results to immersion in the country where the target language is spoken (Pinar, 2016). Her listening comprehension is better than her spoken output (Fortune, 2012; Hammerly, 1987; Pinar, 2016). In this regard, Hammerly (1987) mentioned that output is expected after grade five due to children's limited cognitive and linguistic repertoire. Those interactions happened when she was in first and second grade.

There were signals of L2 interference when she spoke in her mother tongue. She usually placed the adjective before the noun, which is an English grammar structure. Additionally, she used false cognates. This maybe a signal of the structure phase proposed by Bruner (1966). She was applying the structure of the English language in her oral Spanish production. Same situations of interference were reported by Hammerly (1987), in his study English was the mother tongue and French was the new language. The interference were reported from the mother tongue to the new language. In this case study, the other way around happened. The girl was applying the foreign language (English) structure and words in her mother tongue (Spanish). Another interference is in writing, the girl has started to write in English and she followed the Spanish structure. This means she is writing the way the words are pronounced. These deficiencies in productive skills have also been reported in other studies (Fortune, 2012; Hammerly, 1987; Pinar, 2016).

This immersion in English has resulted in good results at school. She knew some vocabulary prior to starting her classes in formal education. The teacher has requested her to model some phrases in English. This incidental acquisition is supporting her English lessons at school (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014; Fortune, 2012).

All in all, this research study has proven Bruner's spiral sequence: immersion through television programs in a non-English speaking

country; a type of structure by the use of English grammar in Spanish discourse; and, application when following instructions, asking for and demanding for objects, answering back to simple questions with English speakers as well as in conversations with her mother (1966). It has confirmed the positive outcomes of immersion reported by authors (Fortune, 2012; Hammerly, 1987; Pinar, 2016) in listening comprehension. It has also reported unexpected findings and contrasted those of other studies in terms of language interference and using specific words in one language.

6. CONCLUSION

English has become the lingua franca in this century. Its importance has guided its inclusion in Ecuador as early as first grade. Parents have also acknowledge that and want to support their children in their academic success. In this regard, it is necessary to look for different available venues, so children have an additional contact with the language at home.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Snow (2014) highlighted incidental learning. Learning happens in formal contexts for education. This study reports incidental acquisition of a second language by a type of immersion. Television was used as a regular entertaining resource. This means, childish program were included. They are viewed by any child in any household at any moment. The only difference was that instead of watching them in Spanish, they were programmed in English. More importantly, the constant exposure to English through entertaining programs has demonstrated that the foreign language can interfere in the development and discourse of the mother tongue; for example: in the use of grammar and false cognates.

This case study described the benefits and effects of watching children programs in a seven-year-old girl. This started when she was three years old. Results confirmed that her listening comprehension has been tested in different interactions with foreigners with positive outcomes. She had sometimes displayed her

intentions of holding conversations in English. She could even describe what was happening in the program – which was in English - in her mother tongue. All these effects can be also due to the constant exposure to the programs, and to the repetition of certain movies and series.

Even though findings can be compared to other research studies, there are differences in context and participants. Other research studies have been conducted in the foreign country, in scholarly institutions, and with older participants. They have not considered television as an immersion tool.

Parents have the technology at hand. They can just program the channels in English as a type of immersion to make future or current English classes at their educational institutions easier for their children at no extra cost. Authorities should also consider these results to suggest parents the use of television in English as resource to improve the proficiency and for later practice. Teachers can exploit the content of these programs in class.

Further research should include children in the same context whose parents do not speak English to compare and contrast results with this case study. Researchers can also add videos or recordings to notice progress. Parents should be warned that even if they or their children do not understand the language, they are getting used to the pronunciation, context, and culture of the target language. Channels should also include other languages, so viewers can benefit and incidentally acquire other languages in an entertained way. Future studies can also include English teachers to improve their language skills. Lastly, teachers can also use the content of television programs, according to the age of their students, to motivate students to watch programs in English at home, to connect the content of the book in real situations, to start discussions in the language, to guide students to benefit from this resource, among others.

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LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATIONS IN THE WRITTEN PRODUCTIONS OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

Collocations are one of the areas generally considered problematic for EFL learners. Turkish learners of English face various problems in producing written collocations. Since collocations play a crucial role in vocabulary acquisition and in students' productive skills, the present study set out to evaluate the rate of collocations in L2 learners writing productions at tertiary level in Turkey. The secondary aim of the study is to investigate the role of L1 interference in leaners' writing samples. To this end, 30 higher education students enrolled in an English Language and Literature (ELL) Department at a public university in Turkey were chosen as the participant group. They are second grade students. The participants were asked to write three essays on three topics which are related to the course "Teaching Language Skills". After students' writing assignments were collected, the rate of lexical collocations was calculated and the results are presented in the form of descriptive statistics. Different categories of collocations, such as verb – noun or noun – verb collocations, were compared. Results indicate that the participants have a significantly low level of collocation use and one of the most influential factors in collocation errors is L1 interference.

Key words: Collocations, L1 interference, EFL, writing.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The role of formulaic language has been problematized in the area of language learning research for a long time (Wray, 2013). Studies that focus on formulaic language are related with a number of fields such as psycholinguistics, corpus linguistics, and language education with a variety of formulaic units identified (e.g., collocations, lexical bundles, collostructions, collgrams) and is part of fluent and natural production of the language (Paquot & Granger, 2012; Powley & Syder, 1983; Gablasova et al., 2017, Schmitt, 2012). Studies conducted in recent years indicate that formulaic language play a crucial role in language learning and are psycholinguistically real (Schmitt, 2012; Wray, 2012).

The present study attempts to contribute to the existing knowledge in terms of collocations, a prominent area of formulaic language that is of interest to researchers in language learning research. As a component of formulaic language, collocations have been an important area of study in corpus-based language learning studies in the 10 years (e.g., Bestgen & Granger, 2014; Gonzalez Fernandez & Schmitt, 2015; Nguyen & Webb, 2016; Paquot & Granger, 2012). Such studies mostly employ corpus and aim to get an insight into collocational patterns in the language production of L2 users. The present study also employs a mini-corpus based method in which advanced level EFL learners' written samples are collected and analyzed.

Collocations are words that naturally go together, either constructed with two or more words. To study collocations is vital for language learners to make their foreign or native language sound fluent and natural. Nonetheless, they are one of the areas that generally pose a problem for EFL learners. Proficiency in a foreign language no doubt requires a sound knowledge and use of collocations. According to Hill (2000), when students do not have a satisfactory level of proficiency in collocations, they are often compelled to make grammatical mistakes since they fail to provide the meaning in an accurate way.

There may be a number of difficulties on the part of EFL learners in terms of the mastery of collocations. Fan (2009, p. 111), for example, views "the idiosyncratic nature of collocational use" and "the fact that collocational use may be markedly different among languages" as primary sources of difficulty. Overcoming these issues requires exposure to the target language.

Collocation is divided into two categories: (a) grammatical collocation and (b) lexical collocation. "A grammatical collocation consists of a dominant content word (a noun, an adjective, or a verb) and a subordinate grammatical structure (e.g., a preposition, an infinitive, a gerund, or a clause). For example, phrases like "interested in," "adhere to," "at night," and "in advance" are grammatical collocations. In contrast, a lexical collocation is combined by two content words that contribute almost equally to its whole meaning. Some examples of lexical collocations are "throw-party," "bee-buzz," "movie-theater," and "heavysmoker." It is noteworthy that lexical collocations can be consistently classified according to their syntactic patterns. For instance, "throw a party" is a verb-noun collocation and a "heavy smoker" is an adjective-noun collocation. This syntactic approach is often adopted by computational linguists (Seretan, 2011 as is cited in Xu, p. 257)."

Despite having enough lexical or grammatical knowledge, EFL learners have problems in the use of collocations. One reason for this may be the fact that EFL learners have limited knowledge of collocations due to the inadequate attention paid to collocational patterns in textbooks and instruction. Another major problem is that collocations do not generally become the focus of teaching. They mostly receive peripheral attention. As such, the present study aims at answering the following questions:

1. What are the most frequently used lexical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

2. What is the frequency of the most common lexical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

3.What are the most frequently used grammatical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

4.What is the frequency of the most grammatical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

5. What are the potential causes of lexical and grammatical collocation errors?

2. METHODOLOGY

The present study is qualitative in nature. It concerns the analysis of advanced level EFL learners' use of collocations. The collocations used by the learners were in the first place determined and counted. Then, correct and incorrect used were calculated. In addition, collocations or expressions such as "listen the teacher" were included under the title of "verb + preposition". The expressions such as "pursue academic goals" "enhances students' motivation", or "constitute an effective teacher" were examined under the title of "verb + noun" although there is an adjective in between. Moreover, collocations such as "a comfortable zone" are in fact acceptable. However, within the context of the study they were considered because they do not fit the register of the classroom environment. They were accepted as incorrect in sentences like "Teachers should give information a comfortable zone." or "teachers should not use childish materials"

3.1. Purpose of the Study

The present study aims at analyzing the collocation use of advanced level ELL students

3.2. Participants and Setting

The participants of the study are 30 advanced level EFL learners enrolled in an English Language and Literature department. The students were selected randomly. They are second grade students.

3.3. Data Collection Process

In order to collect data, a small-scale corpus of students' papers was formed. Students were assigned to write essays on different topics at home. After they wrote their compositions, the papers were collected by the researchers and examined in terms of the use of collocations. Various collocation dictionaries were used in cases where disagreement arose. In order to collect as much natural data as possible, students were not informed that their writing assignments would be evaluated based on their collocation use. In addition, in order for students to write without much difficulty, easy topics were selected. The topics were on (s) the qualities of a good teacher and (b) the role of teacher or student in language teaching.

After the researchers have collected the papers, they have identified the collocational structures and phrases the participants have utilized in their compositions. Afterwards, the collocation was categorized in two groups such as (a) lexical collocations and (b) grammatical collocations. A further step was taken for sub-categorization (classification) of these collocations.

The lexical collocations were grouped into nine sub-categories such as (a) verb + noun/pronoun, (b) verb + preposition or prepositional phrase, (c) verb + adverb, (d) noun + noun, (e) noun + verb, (f) adjective + noun, (g) verb + adjective, (h) adverb + adjective, and (i) Multi word collocations: verb + noun + preposition.

On the other hand, the grammatical collocations were grouped into eight sub-categories such as (a) noun + preposition combination, (b) noun + to + infinitive, (c) noun + that clause construction, (d) prep + noun, (e) verb + to infitive, (f) be + adjective + to + infinitive, (g) be + adjective + for sb + to + infinitive, and (h) be + adjective + preposition.

Following the categorization procedure mentioned above, the researchers have consulted the most authentic source, Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English (2002), in order to evaluate EFL learners' collocations in their papers. By referring to this dictionary, the researcher was able to separate the proper

collocate words from improper ones. Furthermore, some structures that were not collocations including free combinations were extracted from the data. Then, frequency of those collocations used by the participants either correctly or incorrectly was calculated.

3.4. Data Analysis

As a result of the analysis of the participants written productions, the correct and incorrect use of both collocation types have been obtained. The categorization and the classifications for these collocations rely on only the findings obtained in the current study although there are other examples of collocations to be mentioned in the literature.

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

What are the most frequently used lexical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

The lexical collocations differ from the grammatical collocations in the sense that they do not contain any grammatical elements. It is clear crystal that lexical collocations include the choice of words that collocate each other such as ensure safety, achieve success, etc. Moreover, the meaning can be predictable from the words or elements in the combination itself. For instance, achieve means accomplish and success means attainment. This type of combination is fixed, whereas a collocation like conduct/do a research is loose since we cannot use accomplish a success and accomplish attainment to mean achieve a success and make a research to mean conduct/do a research. Otherwise, it is easy for us to observe the L1 interference in L2 use. "The meanings of these loose collocations can still be derived from their individual words" (Moehkardi, 2002, p. 53).

Table 1. Lexical Collocation Types

Collocation type	Correct examples from students' writings	Typical incorrect / weird uses
verb + noun/pronoun	ensure safety, set up rules, achieve success, demonstrate competence, heighten interest, arouse student's curiosity	show diversity, tells the present perfect, obtain much successful, show more successful, teaching lecture, disgust the language, give a lecture, show like, arise more interest, takes the scene, increase the relationship
verb + preposition or prepositional phrase	attribute to participate in	motivated to lesson, sees like easy, go to abroad, direct to students, support to learning, pioneer to children, study for abroad, participate to reach to information, visit to another country enjoy from the courses
verb + adverb	affect positively, rely heavily on, behave appropriately, link directly	know very good, do exercise declaratively, learning conspiratorially, learns visual, work compulsory, teach badly, do exercise declaratively, behave tolerantly
noun + noun	classroom structure, teacher's attitudes	world endeavors, a student's education, teacher's lesson, material usage training process (meaning education process
noun + verb	no correct use	complication happen, their strength shows up
adjective + noun	supportive relationship, safe environments, positive stimuli,	effective of the teacher, conventional information, functionless information, solid guidance, bad

	constructivist teacher, previous experiences	human, high interest, quality human, warm-blooded teacher, unavoidable fact
verb + adjective	feel stressed feel comfortable feel engaged	feel knowledgeable
adverb + adjective	naturally inevitable, closely related, naturally learned, notoriously difficult	deliberately needed, critical important, practically way, extreme learner-centered approach
Multi word collocations verb + noun + preposition	plays a role in pay attention to offer the opportunity to allow the students to	plays a role about pay attention student's level give place to theory give direction to their lives gain a commitment from

What is the frequency and percentage of the most common lexical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

Table 2. Frequency and percentages of lexical collocations

collocation type	correct collocations	incorrect / weird collocations	Total
verb + noun/pronoun	127 (72%)	50 (28%)	177
verb + preposition/ prepositional phrase	18 (33%)	35 (67%)	53
verb + adverb	41 (67%)	20 (33 %)	61
noun + noun	16 (44%)	20 (56%)	36
noun + verb	0	3 (100%)	3
adjective + noun	89 (66%)	46 (34%)	135
verb + adjective	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	4
adverb + adjective	6 (67%)	3 (33%)	9

Multi word collocations verb + noun + preposition	45 (76%)	14 (24%)	59

A careful analysis of Table 2 simply indicates that the number of true multi-word collocations is rather high due to the fact that most multi-word collocations are commonly used ones and students kept using similar collocations. These are collocations like *take into consideration*, *get along well* or *play a role in*. Other significant findings imply that the participants are able to use *verb +noun+preposition* (76%), *verb+adjective* combinations (75%), *verb+noun* combinations (%72), *adverb+adjective* and *verb+adverb* combinations (%67), and *adjective+noun* combinations (%66), correctly. However, there are some problems regarding the incorrect use of *noun+verb* combinations (100%), *verb+preposition* combination (%67), and *noun+noun* combination (%56). This indicates that overall students are able to use the lexical collocation correctly, but they still need help for the incorrect use of lexical collocations in their writing skills.

What are the most frequently used grammatical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

The grammatical collocations are the ones that include grammatical elements such as a noun, an adjective, an adverb, a verb, a preposition, an infinitive/gerund, and/or that clause construction. However, some do not reflect the true lexical meanings of each individual element in this type of structure such as *run out of*, *put up with, come up with*, etc. In *run out of*, *run* does not mean *rush or sprint*. *Run out of* means *consume*. Similarly, *come* in *come up with* does not mean *arrive*. *Come up with* means *suggest*. In this regard, the assumption that collocations are whole units has been supported by accumulating evidence from psycholinguistics research, which indicates that formulaic language is processed more efficiently than non-formulaic language by both native and non-native speakers (Conklin & Schmitt, 2012 as is cited in Xu, 2018, p.258). Word

association (WA) research also has suggested that collocational associations play an essential role in the organization of L1 and L2 mental lexicons (Fitzpatrick, 2006; Namei, 2004; Zareva, 2007 as is cited in Xu 2018, p.258).

Table 3. Grammatical collocation types

Collocation type	Correct examples from students' writings	Typical incorrect / weird uses
noun + preposition combination	relationship between	a pioneer for be a perfect guide to students
noun + to + infinitive	ability to express	the ability of teaching
noun + that clause construction	doubt that	
prep + noun	without pressure	
verb + to infitive	get to know	supply to improve, provide to use prefer to playing
(a) be / have + adjective + to + infinitive	be essential to be essential to be vital to be motivated to learn	be a positive effect be enthusiastic for have capability of learning
(b) be + adjective + for sb + to + infinitive	be free to hard for students to grasp	
be + adjective + preposition	be afraid of be engaged in be capable of	do not afraid of be angry to teacher

Table 3 presents the frequencies pertaining to each grammatical collocation type. As was stated, the collocation types were determined by looking at the related literature and the ones that are found in students' assignments were included. Collocation types that

do not appear in students' writings were not included. In terms of analysis, there are some important points to mention. In the first place, *be+adjective+to infinitive* type was analyzed from a dual perspective. In the first place, we analyzed the collocation in terms of correctness by itself. In the second place, such collocations were also analyzed in terms of whether they are structurally correct. For example, the expression *be vital to* is correct. However, in student's writing it was as follows: "… *is vital to the effect of the language learning*". In this case, it was considered as incorrect.

What is the frequency and percentage of the most common grammatical collocations in the written production of advanced level students?

Table 4. Frequency and percentages of grammatical collocations

collocation type	correct collocations	incorrect / weird collocations	Total
noun + preposition combinations	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	5
noun + to + infinitive	4 (80%)	1 (20%)	5
noun + that clause construction	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	2
prep + noun combinations	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	2
verb + followed by "to infinitives"	12 (60%)	8 (40%)	20
Predicate adj. + to + infinitive			
(a) be + adjective + to + infinitive	16 (80%)	4 (20%)	20
infinitive	2 (100%)	0	2

(b) be + adjective + for sb + to + infinitive			
be + adjective + preposition combinations	10 (83%)	2 (17%)	12

As to the construction of grammatical collocations, it consists of *a noun or adjective or a verb and a particle such as a preposition and an adverb or an infinitive/a gerund construction and a clause* (Bahns, 1993:57). *Be engaged in, be cabaple of, get to know*, etc. can be given as examples of the use of grammatical collocations. In this study, the participants have displayed a satisfactory level of the use of grammatical collocations by reporting that they are able to use *predicate adj.+to+ infinitive constructions* such as *be+adjective+for sb+to+ infinitive (100%)* and *be+adjective+to+infinitive (80%), be+adjective+preposition combinations*(83%), *noun+ to+infinitive* (80%), *noun+preposition combinations* (60%), and *verb+followed by to infinitives* (60%), correctly, whereas an interesting result has been ontained in use of *noun + that clause construction* (50%) and *prep+noun combinations* (50%) (Table 4).

What are the potential causes of lexical and grammatical collocation errors?

Relying on the findings of the study it can be asserted that the potential causes of lexical and grammatical collocation errors can be classified as (a) L1 interference, (b) intra-lingual causes, (c) lack of knowledge, and (d) register, some of which are given in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Potential causes for lexical and grammatical collocation errors

L1 interference	• Education system or the teachers are teaching the language *by force method* • The course *passes fun* … • The human child • The student *overcomes in front of difficulties* thanks to teacher … • In that time teachers should *keep their anger inside*.
Intralingual causes	• When a student looks for a word from any English dictionary • Although they <u>know very good</u>, their mind are confused while exercising. • Teacher's lesson is more enjoyment and students willingly listen to lesson. • Feedback should be taken into consideration to rise the motivation because students …
Register	• Because the person, as a leader, is not a pioneer for the students, she /he will be like a bad boss for students. • make a sensation - Well prepared teachers make a sensation on various subject with play activities…

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study was undertaken in order to examine the collocation use by the participants who are enrolled in the department of English Language and Literature (ELL) at a public university. Some collocations such as disruptive behavior, evaluate student's abilities, breaks the rules, becomes a role model, isolated word lists, gives feedback" were domain-specific collocations. It seems that most of the participants were able to use them correctly.

Overall, the results indicated that the use of lexical collocations far outweighs the use of grammatical collocations. In terms of lexical collocations, ELL students seem have used collocations correctly in "verb + noun/pronoun", "verb + adverb", "adjective + noun", and "multi word collocations verb + noun + preposition" categories. On the other hand, ELL students seem to have hard times in terms of "verb + preposition/ prepositional phrase" and "noun + noun" categories. Examples for this category include "attribute to" or "participate in". Examples of incorrect uses are expressions such as "motivated to lesson, sees like easy, go to abroad".

When it comes to grammatical collocations, ELL students made very little use of them. The most commonly used collocations in this category pertain to "predicate adjective + to + infinitive", "be + adjective + preposition", and "verb + followed by "to infinitives" combinations. On the other hand, the least used combinations in grammatical collocations were "noun + to + infinitive", "noun + that clause construction", "noun + preposition combinations" and "prep + noun" combinations". In these categories, there are very few uses.

As to the possible problems in terms of L1 interference, the descriptive statistics pertaining to the frequency and percentages of collocation use indicate that one fundamental reason for incorrect collocation use is L1 interference. Even at advanced level, students cannot get rid of the influence of their L1. Some constructions were apparently influenced by the participants' L1. Such constructions include a student's education. In Turkish, people say bir kişinin eğitiminde; so, the participant transferred this use from Turkish. To be more natural, he or she could have said "the educational process / academic life of a student."

Another significant cause of problems are observed in the intra-lingual uses. The most significant error type is observed in the use of collocations with go. Go abroad has been incorrectly used by the participants as go to abroad since go is generally followed by to to indicate the destination one would like to go. This type of error is called overgeneralization.

Another problem the participants face is lack of heuristics. As a result of not having enough or sufficient pragmatic knowledge, they unfortunately produce utterances like learning conspiratorially in the sentence the teacher do not depend on theory or practice. Another reason, the learners do not start learning conspiratorially. It is most probable that they come up with such constructions because they just look up the word in thesaurus and use any equivalent they see without caring for the contextual meaning of such words due to the lack of knowledge. Bahardoust and Moeini (2012) report that "each individual word may be known to the learners, but they probably do not know its whole collocation" (p.82).

Register turned out to be an important factor in the use of collocations on the part of the participants. The papers written by students can be considered formal pieces of writing. However, in students' assignments the researchers have noticed such collocations use as "an honorable human", "student can be a good or bad human", "useless method", "thoughtful teachers", or "educates a human". Another interesting use was the expression "fruitless enterprise" in the sentence "Otherwise it would be a fruitless enterprise for doing his / her job." According to Oxford Dictionary of Collocations, the word "enterprise" does not collocate with "fruitless". More importantly, we do not generally use the word "enterprise" in educational jargon. Another striking example is the following utterance: "When interacting with students, a teacher must fill the role of a counsellor, a surrogate parent, a nutritionist and someone who has the best interests of every child at heart." The expressions "a surrogate parent, a nutritionist" are not suitable for the context of the paper. Unfortunately, such uses are common among advanced level students.

The present study provided some insights as to the collocation use of those ELL students. However, caution is required to generalize the results of the present study on the premise that it was a small-scale study. Another limitation is related to the procedure. In the present study, the participants were made to write short compositions on topics related to teaching and learning languages. This may have

limited collocation use, particularly in grammar. Future studies can focus on different topics, or even different genres.

A number of suggestions can be drawn depending on the results of the present study. To begin with, the results indicated that collocations is one of the problematic areas for ELL students. One obvious reason for this is that students are not subjected to formal and explicit teaching of collocation. They always receive peripheral attention. In order to eradicate this problem, teachers should specifically focus on the use of collocations in their writing courses. Moreover, curriculum developers are also supposed to pay extra attention to ensure that language teaching programs include as much space for collocations as possible.

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REFLECTIONS OF EPOSTL FOR PLANNING AND CONDUCTING LESSONS BY PROSPECTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHERS: SELF-ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

When planning a lesson, the teacher's knowledge of language learning theory, a wide scope of methodology, resources and learner activities should be taken into account. The next stage is conducting a lesson in which the lesson plan is coherently yet flexibly implemented in order to achieve the ideal learner performances in class and hopefully help them to transfer these learnings into their real-life situations. Classroom management in that sense is an important process in conducting effective lessons, organizing different ways of working, using a range of resources and instructional methods, techniques, and activities which will provide students with the opportunity to use the target language for their ultimate aims. For this purpose, the ultimate aim of this study is to scrutinize reflections of EPOSTL for planning and conducting lessons by prospective language teachers at tertiary level in Turkish context. A questionnaire has been adapted from Newby, Allan, Fenner, Jones, Komorowska and Soghikyan (2007). This questionnaire has been formed as a five-point Likert scale in order to get quantitative data for interpretation. The findings of the study has indicated almost appositive reflections of EPOSTL by the participants.

Keywords: EPOSTL, lesson, planning, conducting, reflections

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1. INTRODUCTION

Having been developed by the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe by a team of teacher educators from five different countries (Austria, Armenia, Norway, Poland, and the UK), The EPOSTL is a document intended for pre-service teacher education. It encourages pre-service teachers to reflect on the didactic knowledge and skills necessary in language teaching, helps them to 'assess' their own competences and enables them to monitor their progress and to record their experiences of teaching during the course of their teacher education (Newby, Allan et al., 2007). EPOSTL is widely usable for teacher educators, curriculum designers and teachers in improving the quality of teacher education. As such, the EPOSTL can be viewed as a reflection tool that allows teachers and teacher trainees to assess themselves in terms of pre-determined competencies. As is indicated by (Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2017, p.400; Mirici & Kavaklı, 2017), learner independence and better personal and professional enhancement are pre-requisites within the scope of CEFR.

In order to emphasize the highly valuable and beneficial nature of EPOSTL, Mirici & Demirbaş (2013) reports the following:

> "Although it is a document for student teachers, the EPOSTL will do a lot for teacher educators involved in curriculum design by providing a tool in helping to clarify aims and determine content and see the strong and weak points in teacher education programmes. It can be seen as a helpful complementary to the European Profile for Language Teacher Education" (p.1370).

In a similar vein, Bergil and Sarıçoban (2016) assert that:

> "Teacher education has been of primary interest for faculties of education in Turkey, which aims to prepare the teachers for their future careers. Although general revisions, applications and improvements have been introduced to the field of teacher education generally, the teacher education field needs to be focused on considering the subject-field features and characteristics of them. Among the teacher education programs, English language teacher education is also a multidisciplinary field of study the boundaries of which have not been clearly defined and

focused well. Unfortunately, deriving its sources from a variety of disciplines, the theoretical foundation of English language teacher education may be regarded as incoherent." (p.206).

Therefore, a new curriculum can be prepared based on the framework of EPOSTL (CHE, 2007 as is cited in Hişmanoğlu, 2013, p. 939 and Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2017, p. 400).

> "The new 'ELT' curriculum covers a number of obligatory and a few elective courses. The components of the curriculum are made up of field knowledge (linguistic competence), teacher education (pedagogic competence), general knowledge and teaching practice" (Altunya, 2006 as is cited in Hişmanoğlu, 2013, p. 939).

EPOSTL is a reflection tool for language teacher education that aims "1. to encourage you to refl ect on the competences a teacher strives to attain and on the underlying knowledge which feeds these competences; 2. to help prepare you for your future profession in a variety of teaching contexts; 3. to promote discussion between you and your peers and between you and your teacher educators and mentors; 4. to facilitate self-assessment of your developing competence; 5. to provide an instrument which helps chart progress" (Newby et al., 2007, p.5).

Basically, it can be stated that there are two main functions of EPOSTL. In the first place, EPOSTL is intended to promote transparency of education programs. The second aim is to enhance reflection on the part of teachers (Akbari, 2007). It should also be noted that transparency also makes it possible to compare teacher education programmes in Europe. The principles of EPOSTL are the concept of teacher/learner autonomy, CLT (Communicative Language Teaching), interdependence of language and culture, ICT (Information and Communication Technologies), and independent learning. Its main aim of is to list the fundamental features of qualifications and competences at different stages of language teachers' development (Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2018, p.1008). Çakır & Balçıkanlı (2012) state that:

> "The EPOSTL contains three main sections: a) a personal statement, asking student teachers to make comments on their own previous experiences related to language teaching/learning, b) a

self-assessment section, consisting of the 196 descriptors to facilitate reflection and self-assessment, and c) a dossier, helping student teachers to keep any work done relevant to teaching (e.g. lesson plans, lesson scripts, observation notes) and thus provide evidence of progress and make the outcome of self-assessment transparent. The other sections available in the EPOSTL are: An introduction, a users' guide, a glossary of terms used in the EPOSTL related to language learning and teaching and an index of terms used in the descriptors. There are several underlying principles that shape the descriptors such as the concept of teacher/learner autonomy, CLT (Communicative Language Teaching), interdependence of language and culture, ICT (Information and Communication Technologies), and independent learning" (p.5).

The self-assessment descriptors (Figure 1) in this document include seven subcategories: a) context, b) methodology, c) resources, d) lesson planning, e) conducting a lesson, f) independent learning, and g) assessment of learning. In this study the researchers have only aimed to seek how prospective language teachers reflect or have reflected those competencies during their practicum studies in their ELT Certificate Program. The descriptors are presented in the form of "can-do" statements such as I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching.
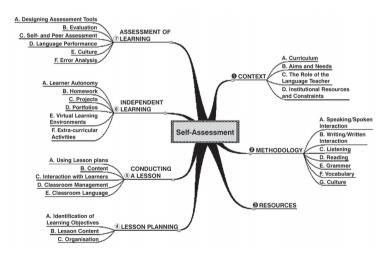

Figure 1. Categorisation of self-assessment descriptors by Newby et al. (2007).

The main purpose of this study is to see the reflections of EPOSTL by prospective English language teachers in terms of self-assessment regarding (a) lesson planning and (b) conducting a lesson. In order to highlight the issue, the following research question was mainly formulated.

      1. What are the overall reflections of EPOSTL by prospective language teachers?

      2. What are the reflections of the subcategories of EPOSTL below by prospective language teachers in terms of:

      (a) lesson planning

      a.1. identification of learning objectives

      a.2. lesson content

      a.3. lesson organization

      (b) conducting a lesson

      b.1. using lesson plans

      b.2. content

      b.3. interaction with learners

      b.4. classroom management, and

      b.5. classroom language?

2. METHODOLOGY

The present study employs a quantitative approach. It is a survey study. Pre-service teachers' views on two components of EPOSTL, namely planning and conducting lessons, were gathered by means of a questionnaire. The adopted questionnaire by Newby, Allan et al. (2007) was prepared based on the descriptors given in the document of EPOSTL. The "can-do statements" under these categories were transformed into five-point Likert items and the questionnaire was obtained.

3.1. Purpose of the Study

The current study seeks to investigate the reflections of EPOSTL for planning and conducting lessons by prospective language teachers. Therefore, a questionnaire designed and developed by Newby et al. (2007). This questionnaire has been formed as a five-point Likert scale in order to get the quantitative data for interpretation.

3.2. Participants and Setting

The present study was conducted with fourth grade English Language and Literature (ELL) department students who have taken teaching certificate program at two public universities in Turkey. The aim was to measure the effectiveness of the teaching certificate programs on ELL students. Since they do not take any pedagogical courses during their four-year in-service education, it is important whether the teaching certificate program is effective on them or not. The researchers employed the convenience sampling method. The number of participants was 69 4th year ELL students, who have taken a teaching certificate program either from their universities or another. According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 99), convenience sampling is "a kind of sampling where an important criterion of sample selection is the convenience of the researcher".

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

The questionnaire, adapted from Newby et al. (2007), has been administered in the form of 5 point Likert-scale: 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (undecided), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaire consists of 49 items in total. It has subcategories such as (a) for identification of learning objectives with 6 items (b) lesson content with 12 items (c) lesson organization with 4 four items (d) using lesson plans with 6 items (e) content with 4 four items (f) interaction with learners with 6 four items (g) classroom management with 5 four items, and (h) classroom language with 6 four items. The reliability analysis is given in the method part of this research below.

As to the data analysis, the descriptive method has been utilized by the researchers in order to see the overall reflections of EPOSTL by the participants. Moreover, a further analysis has been conducted for their reflections of EPOSTL subcategories, as well. To do so, SPSS.20.0 has been run for the ultimate purpose of the study.

The reliability analysis has been conducted and it has been observed that the overall reliability level is at ,971, which indicates a high level of reliability. As to the reliability levels for the sub-categories of the

current questionnaire, the reliability level for identification of learning objectives is ,656, for lesson content ,865, for lesson organization ,779, for using lesson plans ,769, for content ,787, for interaction with learners ,850, for classroom management ,840, and classroom language ,834.

Table 1. Reliability analysis

Sub-dimensions	Cronbach's alpha value
Identification of learning objectives	,656
Lesson content	,865
Lesson organization	,779
Using lesson plans	,769
Content	,787
Interaction with learners	,850
Classroom management	,840
Classroom language	,834
Total	**,971**

3. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

Research question 1: What are the overall reflections of EPOSTL by prospective language teachers?

The main aim of the current study is to investigate how prospective language teachers view themselves in their reflections of EPOSTL. The overall mean was calculated as 3,92, which indicates that the participants of the study almost agree their reflections of EPOSTL in their teaching practices in their practicum studies.

Research question 2. What are the reflections of the subcategories of EPOSTL below by prospective language teachers?

In this analysis, the researchers aim at analyzing the most three important characteristics of their reflections of EPOSTL in their practicum studies.

(a) Lesson Planning 3,90
As to the statistical analysis regarding lesson planning the participants almost agree about their ability of reflections as positive (M=3,90).

a.1. identification of learning objectives
The application of descriptive statistics for identification of learning objectives has indicated that prospective language teachers almost agree their reflections about the issue (M=3,84). They have reported that they can set objective to encourage learners to reflect on their own learning (M=4,01), they can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and / or for a period of teaching (M=3,98), and set objectives in order to challenge learners to reach their full potential (M=3,84).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics about identification of learning objectives

	Min	Max	M	StD
1. I can identify curriculum requirements and set learning aims and objectives suited to my learners' needs and interests.	1,00	5,00	3,69	,82
2. I can plan specific learning objectives for individual lessons and/or for a period of teaching	1,00	5,00	3,98	,73
3. I can set objectives which challenge learners to reach their full potential	1,00	5,00	3,84	,79
4. I can set objectives which take into account the differing levels of ability and special educational needs of the learners	1,00	5,00	3,72	,88

5. I can decide whether to formulate objectives in terms of skills, topics, situations, linguistic systems (functions, notions, forms etc.).	1,00	5,00	3,81	,80
6. I can set objectives which encourage learners to reflect on their learning.	1,00	5,00	4,01	,93
Total			**3,84**	

a.2. lesson content

As to the reflections on lesson content, prospective language teachers in their classroom applications almost agree (M=3,98) that they can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking (M=4,11), design activities to make the learners aware and build on their existing knowledge (M=4,08), and accept learners' feedback and comments and incorporate this in future lessons (M=4,07).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics about lesson content

	M	Std
1. I can structure lesson plans and/or plan for periods of teaching in a coherent and varied sequence of content	3,89	,91
2. I can vary and balance activities to include a variety of skills and competences.	3,94	,82
3. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	4,11	,61
4. I can plan activities to emphasize the interdependence of language and culture.	4,00	,86
5. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	4,05	,92
6. I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using the target language (cross- curricular teaching, CLIL etc.).	3,59	1,03
7. I can identify time needed for specific topics and activities and plan accordingly.	4,05	,66

8. I can design activities to make the learners aware and build on their existing knowledge.	4,08,76
9. I can vary and balance activities to enhance and sustain the learners' motivation and interest.	3,97,78
10. I can vary and balance activities in order to respond to individuals learners' learning styles.	4,02,70
11. I can take on board learners' feedback and comments and incorporate this in future lessons.	4,07,67
12. I can involve learners in lesson planning.	4,04,99
Total	**3,98**

a.3. lesson organization

Another important issue to take into consideration is organizing lessons in language teaching profession. The participants have reported a positive view about lesson organization in this research (M=3,89). At this vein, it is reported that they can plan for learner presentations and learner interaction in the activities (M=3,98), select from and plan a variety of organizational forms (frontal, individual, pair, group work) as appropriate (M=3,92), and plan when and how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom (M=3,86).

Table 4. Descriptive statistics about lesson organization

items	M	Std.
1. I can select from and plan a variety of organizational forms (frontal, individual, pair, group work) as appropriate.	3,92,81	
2. I can plan for learner presentations and learner interaction.	3,98,88	
3. I can plan when and how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom	3,86,87	
4. I can plan lessons and periods of teaching with other teachers and/or student teachers (team teaching, with other subject teachers etc.).	3,79,02	

Total   **3,89**

(b) conducting a lesson
A careful analysis regarding conducting a lesson has implied another positive agreement among the participants (M=3,90).

b.1. using lesson plans
A careful analysis of Table 5 indicates that the participants have a positive attitude towards using lesson plans (M=3,87) in the sense that they can finish off a lesson in a focused way (M=3,98), time classroom activities to reflect individual learners' attention spans (M=3,91), and ensure smooth transitions between activities and tasks for individuals, groups, and the whole class (M=3,88).

Table 5. Descriptive statistics about using lesson plans

	N	Min.	Max.	M	Std.
1. I can start a lesson in an engaging way.	69	1,00	5,00	3,84	1,00
2. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan and respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	69	1,00	5,00	3,82	,98
3. I can ensure smooth transitions between activities and tasks for individuals, groups and the whole class.	69	1,00	5,00	3,88	,93
4. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	69	1,00	5,00	3,78	,99
5. I can time classroom activities to reflect individual learners' attention spans.	69	1,00	5,00	3,91	,96
6. I can finish off a lesson in a focused way.	69	1,00	5,00	3,98	,96
Total	**69**			**3,87**	

b.2. content
The findings regarding content are found in Table 6. As can be understood from Table 6, the participants almost agree with their reflections on content. Prospective language teachers can relate the language they are teaching to the culture of those who speak it

(M=3,8696), present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners (M=3,8406), and relate what they teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences (M=3,8551).

Table 6. Descriptive statistics about using lesson plans

items	N	Min.	Max.	M	Std.
1. I can present language content (new and previously encountered items of language, topics etc.) in ways which are appropriate for individuals and specific groups of learners.	69	1,00	5,00	3,84	,83
2. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	69	1,00	5,00	3,85	1,00
3. I can relate what I teach to current events in local and international contexts.	69	1,00	5,00	3,73	,94
4. I can relate the language I am teaching to the culture of those who speak it.	69	1,00	5,00	3,86	,90
Total	**69**			**3,82**	

b.3. interaction with learners

A careful analysis of Table 7 indicates that the perceived level of interaction of prospective language teachers with learners is relatively high (M=3,92) in terms of encouraging learner participation whenever possible (M=4,19), being responsive and reacting supportively to learner initiative and interaction (M=3,95), and settling a group of learners into a room and gain their attention at the beginning of a lesson (M=3,8824).

Table 7. Descriptive statistics about interaction with learners

items	Min.	Max.	M	Std.
1. I can settle a group of learners into a room and gain their attention at the beginning of a lesson.	1,00	5,00	3,88	,98
2. I can keep and maximize the attention of learners during a lesson.	1,00	5,00	3,88	,99
3. I can be responsive and react supportively to learner initiative and interaction.	1,00	5,00	3,95	,92
4. I can encourage learner participation whenever possible.	1,00	5,00	4,19	,83
5. I can cater for a range of learning styles.	1,00	5,00	3,80	,88
6. I can make explicit and help learners to develop appropriate learning strategies.	1,00	5,00	3,85	,93
Total			**3,92**	

b.4. classroom management

In relation to classroom management, prospective language teachers seem to agree in their reflections of classroom management (M=4,01). Prospective language teachers can make and use resources efficiently (flashcards, charts etc.) (M=4,11), take on different roles according to the needs of the learners and requirements of the activity (resource person, mediator, supervisor etc.) (M=4,05), and manage and use instructional media efficiently (OHP, ICT, video etc.) (M=4,02).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics about classroom management

items	M	Std.
1. I can take on different roles according to the needs of the learners and requirements of the activity (resource person, mediator, supervisor etc.)	4,05	,70
2. I can create opportunities for and manage individual, partner, group and whole class work.	4,00	,90

3. I can make and use resources efficiently (flashcards, charts etc.).	4,11	,98
4. I can manage and use instructional media efficiently (OHP, ICT, video etc.).	4,02	,84
5. I can supervise and assist learners' use of different forms of ICT both in and outside the classroom.	3,86	,91
Total	**4,01**	

b.5. classroom language

The final section is concerned with classroom language. Prospective language teachers seem to agree with their skills in terms of classroom language (M=3,92). They rated themselves high in terms of encouraging learners to use the target language in their activities (M=4,07), to relate the target language to other languages they speak or have learned where and when this is helpful (M=4,00), and deciding when it is appropriate to use the target language and when not to (M=

3,92).

Table 9. Descriptive statistics about classroom language

	M	Std.
1. I can conduct a lesson in the target language.	3,85	,90
2. I can decide when it is appropriate to use the target language and when not to.	3,92	,76
3. I can use the target language as metalanguage.	3,80	,88
4. I can use various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.	3,91	,89
5. I can encourage learners to use the target language in their activities.	4,07	,80
6. I can encourage learners to relate the target language to other languages they speak or have learned where and when this is helpful.	4,00	,92

Total	**3,92**

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The first research question which tries to seek the answer of what the reflection levels of the prospective English language teachers are while or after taking the ELT certificate program given by either their universities or another, it seems that their reflection levels of EPOSTL is positive, which can be interpreted as pleasing in general for both their teacher trainers and the teacher candidates.

The second research question has sought the reflections of the subcategories of EPOSTL by prospective English language teachers such as (a) *Lesson Planning* that includes identification of learning objectives, lesson content, and organization and (b) *Conducting a Lesson* that includes using lesson plans, content, interaction with learners, classroom management, and classroom language. The findings of the study indicate that the participants have positive view about their reflections in terms of lesson planning and conducting a lesson. Relying on these findings it can be inferred that the ELT certificate program that they have attended can be said effective enough in equipping the teacher candidates with the necessary teacher competencies in the skills mentioned above. The importance of determining the most appropriate lesson content, its design and organization, and objectives should be the focus of attention for language teachers. Of course, the next stage is the implementation of lessons in terms of effective classroom management, the use of effective classroom language, interaction with students, and handling with content that interest the learners.

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INSIDE-SCHOOL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF TEACHER BURNOUT ACROSS IRANIAN AND TURKISH EFL TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

Burnout is a reaction to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors in the workplace, and is widely characterized by the three dimensions of emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA). Burnout has an alarming effect on the achievement and improvement of the educational goals because of its severe psychological, sociological, and physiological consequences on teachers. Thus, the study would generate more useful information about the effectiveness of our EFL teachers in achieving ongoing educational goals. The study aimed at determining the role of six inside-school factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehavior, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials, and Social Support) in predicting EE, DP and PA burnout processes across Iranian (n=230) and Turkish (n=156) EFL teachers. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was used to measure the perceived burnout levels of the participants, and a six-dimension scale (36 items) was developed to measure the participants' perceptions in these areas. The results revealed that EE, DP, and PA subscales were better predicted among both Iranian and Turkish groups by Mixed-ability Classes, Social Support, and Student Misbehavior factors, respectively. Moreover, the contrasted results showed that the strongest burnout source among Turkish group was Social Support, whereas among Iranian group it was Workload.

Keywords: Burnout, MBI-ES, school factors, EFL teachers.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Burnout was characterized as "a work-related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward (output)" (Farber, 1991, p. 24). Maslach and Jackson (1981) introduced the most widely accepted conceptualization of burnout that has three dimensions: Emotional exhaustion (EE) referring to the feelings of being emotionally drained by intense contact with other people, depersonalization (DP) denoting the negative attitudes or callous responses toward people, and reduced personal accomplishment (PA) picturing a decline in one's sense of competence and of successful achievement in working with people (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Soderfelt & Soderfelt, 1995).

In the same vein, teacher burnout refers to decline in one's well-being that is caused by long-term stress in the work place. Burned-out teachers in the conceptualization of Maslach and Jackson (1981) usually feel that they are emotionally exhausted with their work. They also may develop cynical attitudes towards their students or the school community and less interact with them. Moreover, teachers in a state of burnout may evaluate their accomplishments at work negatively. The results of the emotional exhaustion, negative feelings to others, and negative self-evaluation are a sense of personal distress, a feeling of demoralization, dissatisfaction with one's work, poor performance on the job, poor health, family problems, intention to quit one's job, and failure in life (Brenninkmeijer, VanYperen, & Buunk, 2001; Fivesa, Hammana, & Olivarez, 2007).

There are a lot of studies showing that teachers are dissatisfied with their profession. For instance, Friedman and Farber (1992) estimated that 30 to 35% of American teachers are strongly dissatisfied with their profession and 5 to 20% are truly burned out. Furthermore, Ewing and Smith (2003) reported that between 25% and 40% of beginning teachers in western countries are leaving teaching profession. Finally, in a study of European teachers, it was found out that 60% to 70% of the participants were under frequent stress, and

a minimum of 30% had distinct symptoms attributed to burnout (Ozdemir, 2007). Taking these reasons into account, we think that it is significant to study burnout and its consequences in EFL contexts of Iran and Turkey. Specifically, the study assumes that ELT teachers' assessment of their school conditions will reflect what potential antecedents of teacher burnout are in their workplace.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are a variety of inside-school factors leading teachers to burnout. These factors extend from the school environment in which a teacher works and are unique to a school. Sleegers (1999) states that "the interactions between teachers and their working conditions shape the professional identities of teachers, which in turn influence the manner in which teachers perceive and respond to their work" (p. 252). Studies also support the significant role of school issues in triggering burnout reactions among teachers, either by facilitating or inhibiting an individual's emotional or attitudinal characteristics (Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Muñoz, & Carrasco-Ortiz, 2005; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

The perception of an imbalance between demands at school and teachers' resources for coping with them may result from the number of students served, mixed-ability classes, the amount of work, the lack of inclination for a certain type of work, long and difficult work hours, the speed that the work goes at, the psychological demands of a work, excessive performance monitoring, unrealistic expectations of what can be achieved in the available time and with the available resources, additional tasks imposed on the core workload, availability and suitability of teaching materials, etc. As it is clear, there are a vast variety of inside-school indicators of burnout. Exploring them and describing their relations with burnout is certainly beyond the scope of the present study, so we selected six inside-school factors that are thought to play more salient roles in teacher burnout processes of EFL teachers. They are explained in the following parts.

2.1. Workload

Work overload denotes having too many tasks to complete in a given timeframe as well as tasks that are too complex and/or difficult to complete successfully. It occurs when job demand exceeds human limits and people have to do too much in too little time or with too few resources. Work under-load, on the other hand, means the work is too simple or insufficiently challenging for one's abilities (Jex, 1998; Schultz & Schultz, 2002). Maslach & Leiter (1997) argue that workload is "the most obvious indication of a mismatch between a person and the job" (p. 10), and as a key measurement of organizational life it can be examined from the perspectives of an organization and that of an individual: "from the organization's perspective, workload means productivity" (p. 34), whereas "from the individual's perspective, workload means time and energy" (p. 34).

It is often distinguished between 'quantitative work overload' and 'qualitative work overload'. Quantitative overload refers to individuals' beliefs that their engagement in a task is limited by factors such as time or access to a resource. Qualitative work overload, on the other hand, refers to job complexity, and it exists when individuals believe they lack the capability or skill level required to complete a task (Jex, 1998; Osipow & Spokane, 1992; Peterson, Smith, Akande, Ayestaran, Bochner, Callan, Cho, Jesuino, & Dapos, 1995). Teachers are subjected to quantitative work overload when they are asked to accomplish many tasks or carry out the given tasks in a very short time, and to qualitative work overload while they perceive they do not have adequate knowledge or skill to complete a task at a satisfactory performance level (Osipow & Spokane, 1992). Since quantitative workload is a more significant source of burnout in high-school contexts than qualitative one, this aspect of workload was selected for study, characterizing the dimensions of 'time pressure' and 'work amount'. The first refers to the inability of teachers to accomplish their tasks in due time, while the latter denotes the amount of work to be done.

Studies has also shown that workload is a significant source of higher levels of burnout. For instance, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) found that workload was primarily associated with the physical fatigue component of burnout (i.e., EE) and very minimally associated with other assumed components (i.e., DP and PA). Similarly, Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) found that workload has a consistent relationship with burnout, especially with the exhaustion dimension of burnout. Furthermore, in their study among administrative employees in Iran, Ziaei, Yarmohammadi, Moradi, & Khandan (2015) showed that the job burnout positively correlated with workload, that is, an increase in the employees' workload led to an increase in the job burnout. Equally, Gyorffy, Dweik, & Girasek (2016) observed that the workload increase resulted in job dissatisfaction among female doctors in Hungary. As it is implied from the literature, workload has been recognized as an important teacher burnout source.

2.2. Student Misbehaviour

Student misbehaviour is generally characterized as any behaviour that interferes with the effectiveness of teachers' instructional plans and student learning processes. For instance, Kyriacou (1997) defines student misbehaviour as "any behaviour that undermines the teacher's ability to establish and maintain effective learning experience in the classroom" (p. 121). Moreover, Arbuckle and Little (2004) define disruptive behaviour as "an activity that causes distress for teachers, interrupts the learning process and leads teachers to make continual comments to the student" (p. 60). Sun and Shek (2012) and Ho (2004) argue that the range of student misbehaviour varies across cultures. In the United Kingdom and Australia, for example, scholars consider students misbehaved when their actions are disruptive to classroom order and may cause trouble to teachers. Moreover, in the context of the United States behaviours of students are conceived improper "when students either did what they were not supposed to do or did not do what they were supposed to do" (Ishee & James, 2004, p. 9).

Student misbehaviours have broadly been identified as discipline, apathy, low achievement, and absences (Croom & Moore, 2003). Student discipline problems refers to those disruptive and improper behaviours that adversely affect the classroom and school orders, such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, excessive noise, etc. In addition, student apathy denotes negative attitudes toward the school and indifference to school work. For example, students make little or no effort to participate in classroom activities, rarely respond to the questions, may not bother themselves to hand in their homework in due time, and may just sit there with a bored blank expression on their faces. While apathy is usually viewed individually, the whole class is sometimes indifferent and virtually unresponsive to the motivational techniques and expectations of teachers. In many instances, responsible factors for student apathy include ignorant and uncaring parents, lack of parental involvement, parents who complain about the amount of homework, teachers who unjustly pass negative attitudes to students about their colleagues, and a society that does not value education. Furthermore, low student achievement specifies students' failure to achieve system-defined and/or teacher-defined learning outcomes. Some main factors contributing to students' lack of progress and failure are: Having too many students, not having the time and enough resources to meet individual needs, lack of student preparedness in an academic study, educational deficiencies, unsupportive parents, etc. Finally, student absence expresses their patterns of inordinate nonattendance (Blasé, 1986; Croom & Moore, 2003).

Research has also shown that student misbehaviour can hamper the teaching/learning processes (Thomson, 2009), affect classroom management negatively (Dalgıç & Bayhan, 2014), increase teacher stress (Tsouloupas, Carson, & MacGregor, 2014), and even leads them to burnout when they fail to cope with the classroom problems (Parker, Martin, Colmar, & Liem, 2012). Friedman (1995), for instance, observed that student discipline problems are among the primary sources of teacher burnout when they directly or indirectly interfere with teacher performance and student learning processes

and outcomes. In fact, he revealed that typical student misbehaviours including disrespect and inattentiveness accounted for 22% of the variance in predicting teacher burnout across all grade levels. Moreover, Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers (2004) examining burnout among teachers in the Netherlands revealed that disruptive classroom behaviours were significantly correlated with each dimension of burnout. In short, our conceptualization of student misbehaviour in the study includes three subscales of discipline, apathy, low achievement as defined above.

2.3. Oversized Classes

Oversized classes simply means having too many students in the classroom. Although a large class has no exact size, it is usually measured in terms of the number of students per teacher. From a teacher's perspective, however, a class is large whenever he/she feels it large, that is, those teachers who normally teach 25 or fewer students may consider a class of 35 to be large and overwhelming (Benbow, Mizrachi, Oliver, & Said-Moshiro, 2007; Shaeffer, 2006; Trang, 2015).

Teachers are faced with the challenge of teaching a large class due to budgetary constraints or growing student population (Trang, 2015). Although teaching large classes can offer opportunities for teachers to improve their educational, interpersonal, managerial, organizational skills, it affects the quality of education delivered in all fields of study, especially in TEFL where there is need for allowing students to express their thoughts and feelings as they move through the learning processes, accomplishing teaching/learning tasks properly, giving effective feedbacks, individualizing instruction and work, enhancing student attention, and so on. Christensen (1994), for instance, discusses a number of problems that exist in large language classrooms. Biddle and Berliner (2002) also indicate that teachers in oversized classes usually confront with management problems and sense the impossibility of implementing of some of their activities. As the studies show, oversized classes creates a challenging learning environment for teachers and affects student achievement negatively; therefore, it was involved in the

study to see whether it has any effect on teacher burnout processes in EFL contexts of Iran and Turkey, two developing countries where indices of class population are often beyond the standard of Western countries, where the class sizes of 30 are usually considered large and in need of reduction.

2.4. Mixed-ability Classes

The term mixed-ability is normally used for a class in which individual differences are very pronounced. Chapman and King (2003) argued that a mixed-ability classroom consists of a group of students with differing levels of learning abilities, interest, and skills. To be more specific, mixed-ability classes in the EFL contexts refer to classes in which there are very clear differences between students in terms of their levels of (a) language ability such as the receptive and productive skills, fluency and accuracy, grammatical knowledge, size of vocabulary, command of pronunciation, and so forth; (b) employing learning styles, pace of learning and developing, and aptitude of learning; (c) background and world knowledge; (d) motivating and creating a very positive attitude towards learning English; and (e) types of intelligences, physiological needs, interests, and maturity (Prodromou, 1995).

There are many factors which may differ from one student to another (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In a sense, every language class in a secondary school can be said to be mixed-ability to a certain degree (Pedersen & Kronborg, 2014; Richards, 1998). The differences in language experiences and learning ability cause problems in heterogeneous classes (Al-Subaiei, 2017; Ur, 1996). Şalli-Çopur (2005) indicates that major problems generated from the situation are (a) there is the problem of class participation: Some learners are very active and always participate in the classroom activities, while some others are shy and indifferent to activities; the first group may lose interest in the class activities, while the latter lose their confidence as they cannot respond as quickly as their counterparts, (b) there is also the problem of reaction on textbooks: Texts may seem easy, interesting and appealing for some students, whereas those texts may be strange (or meaningless) and boring for some

others, and (c) there is the problem of student misbehaviour and confidence: Some students follow lessons and are able to answer questions in time, while others fall behind and lose their confidence. This fact may cause management problems in the classroom. Teaching in large and mixed-ability classes, however, is more arduous, exhausting and demanding. It is perhaps the most challenging task for ELT teachers in such classes to tailor teaching activities and learning tasks for every student, to keep all students on-track, to maintain discipline in the classroom, and so forth. Therefore, we want to see what role the composition of Iranian and Turkish EFL classes, which are usually heterogeneous, plays in teacher burnout processes.

2.5. Teaching Materials

Materials play a very important role in many language classrooms though there is debate among scholars on the actual role of teaching materials, especially textbooks, in TEFL. There are some reasons and arguments for and against the use of textbooks. Nunan (1992) states that teaching materials are often the most substantial and observable component of pedagogy. Similarly, Sheldon (1988) suggests that textbooks "represent the visible heart of any ELT program" (p. 237) and offer considerable advantages for both students and teachers in EFL classrooms. In the same vein, Haycroft (1998) claims that one of the chief advantages of using textbooks is that student progress and achievement can really be measured by them. Moreover, Cunningsworth (1995) argues that textbooks are an effective resource for self-directed learning, presentation, ideas and activities. They are also a guide for less experienced teachers and a syllabus for students, reflecting pre-determined learning objectives. In favour of using textbooks Ur (1996) mentions their use as a syllabus and guidance help for teachers, and that they give learners some degree of autonomy.

While the aforementioned scholars point out the benefits of using EFL textbooks, there are other researchers and practitioners who do not necessarily accept this view. Against using a textbook, Ur (1996) herself mentions its homogeneity and inadequacy for individual

needs and objectives, its irrelevance and lack of interest in many occasions, its limitation of initiative and creativity, and its over-easiness. Additionally, Prodromou (1988) and Alptekin (1993) criticize teaching materials from the point of view of the target language culture. They argue that it is not really possible to teach a language without embedding it in its cultural base, and any attempt in this regard may result in alienation, stereotyping, or even reluctance or resistance to learning. Proponents of authentic classroom language models have also argued that many textbooks are actually too contrived and artificial in their presentation of the target language (Illés & Akcan, 2017; Pinner, 2016; Rost, 2002). Finally, Allwright (1990) suggests that textbooks essentially determine and control the methods, processes, procedures, and activities of language teaching and learning and may include biases of their authors.

Whether or not one accepts the value of teaching materials, most teachers would agree that textbooks provide them with some teaching objectives, a variety of texts and activities, procedures for assessment, a visual course design, etc. (Ur, 1996). It seems that English textbooks offered in Iranian and Turkish high schools hardly meet the appropriate teaching and learning qualifications. In his study of teaching materials taught in Turkish various secondary schools Işik (2013) argues that "those who are choosing the ELT materials do not have enough academic and practical knowledge about materials evaluation" (170) and "the way the ELT materials selection process is undertaken seems to be inappropriate and one of the topics that must be handled seriously in ELT in Turkey" (170). It seems that there is a very similar situation in the Iranian context. Maybe, it is worth mentioning that the present textbooks taught all over the country have been offered for more than three decades after an Islamic Cultural Movement in 1978. Some adaptations have been done since then, but the overall layout and methodological design have not been changed much, and many linguistic shortcomings still exist. Therefore, the evaluation of the teaching materials seems to be a significant criterion for determining teacher burnout. To this end, the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks

and availability of other teaching materials are on focus from a pedagogical view in teacher burnout processes of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers.

2.6. Social Support

Social support generally refers to any type of assistance (e.g., emotional, informational, or companionship) that individuals receive or expect to receive from those who come into contact with them (Münzer, Ganser, & Goldbeck, 2017; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2017). Gottlieb (2000) defines the concept in a broad sense as the "process of interaction in relationships which improves coping, esteem, belonging, and competence through actual or perceived exchanges of physical or psychosocial resources" (p. 29). Hagihara, Tarumi, and Miller (1998) also define it as "the provision and receipt of tangible and intangible goods, services and benefits (such as encouragement and reassurance) in the context of informal relationships (e.g., family, friends, co-workers, and boss)" (p. 75). Additionally, Sarason, Levine, Basham, and Sarason, (1983) define social support as the "existence or availability of people on whom we can rely, people who let us know that they care about, value, and love us" (p. 127). Finally, Malecki and Demaray (2002) defined social support as "an individual's perceptions of general support or specific supportive behaviours (available or enacted upon) from people in their social network, which enhances their functioning and/or may buffer them from adverse outcomes" (p. 2).

Social science scholars conceptualize several overlapping typologies of social support, the basic one connected with the structural and functional support. Structural support (also called social integration) refers to the degree to which a person is integrated in a social network, like the number of social ties or how integrated a person is within his or her social network. In other words, it concerns with the quantity of established social connections that an individual has, rather than with the quality of existing relationships (Sarason & Sarason, 1994; Taylor, 2007). In contrast, functional support, the qualitative aspect of support, considers the particular functions that members of a social network can provide, such as the emotional (i.e.,

the offering of empathy, concern, affection, love, trust, acceptance, intimacy, encouragement, or caring), instrumental (i.e., the provision of financial assistance, material goods, or services), informational (i.e., the provision of advice, guidance, suggestions, or useful information to someone), and companionship (i.e., a sense of social belonging) support (Kerres & Kilpatrick, 2002; Stroebe, 2000; Tardy, 1985). Regarding the functional aspect, a distinction often made between received support and perceived support. The former refers to the amount of support that is actually received in a given time, whereas the latter can be understood as "an individual's subjective appraisal that people in their social network care for them and are willing to provide assistance when needed" (Ciarrochi, Morin, Sahdra, Litalien, & Parker, 2017, p. 1155).

Social support plays a key role in education; therefore, scholars have tried to identify and understand its relation with any educational factors affecting the teaching and learning processes. It has been proved that social support relates to burnout, and its absence can create teacher stress which eventually leads to teacher burnout. There is also strong body of evidence in this regard. Van der Doef and Maes (2002), for instance, found that social support along with work aspects and workload explained 40% of the variance in emotional exhaustion, 29% of the variance in depersonalization, and 32% of the variance in personal accomplishment. Moreover, Dworkin, Saha, and Hill (2003) reported that social support, collegiality, and teacher involvement in decision making explained 34 % of the variance in burnout as a whole concept. In the same vein, Van Dick and Wagner (2001) found social support predicted 53 % of the variance in mobbing (i.e., criticism by principals or colleagues, exclusion from social events in the school, and rumours spread by colleagues), which in turn predicted 25% of the variance in burnout. Additionally, Embich (2001) reported that lack of social support explained 42 % of the variance in personal accomplishment for teachers who preferred team work. Finally, Brouwers, Evers, and Tomic (2001) found lack of support to be moderately correlated with emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment.

As the studies show, social support has been identified as a resource that enables individuals to cope with burnout; therefore, the perceived aspect of social support is examined in burnout processes of EFL teachers through the theoretical model of Weiss (1974). It offers six functional dimension of (a) guidance (having access to advice and information to handle problems), (b) reliable alliance (perceiving that others can be counted upon for tangible assistance), (c) reassurance of worth (referring to recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others), (d) social integration (referring to a sense of belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities), (e) attachment (referring to a sense of emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security) and (f) opportunity for nurturance (referring to the sense that others can rely upon one for their well-being). Based on Weiss' (1974) theoretical model, Russell and Cutrona (1984) developed the Social Provisions Scale for measuring social support, which is a 24-item measure including six dimensions of Guidance, Reliable Alliance, Reassurance of Worth, Social Integration, Attachment, and Nurturance (Cutrona & Russell, 1987).

To conclude the section, the summary of the operationalized definitions of the six inside-school factors playing more salient roles in teacher burnout processes of secondary EFL teachers are offered as (a) workload referring to the existence of too many tasks to complete in a given timeframe as well as tasks that are too complex or difficult to complete successfully, (b) student misbehaviour denoting any behaviour that interferes with the effectiveness of the teacher's instructional plan and the learning abilities of students, (c) oversized classes indicating the presence of too many students in the classroom, (d) mixed-ability classes representing the classes in which there are very clear differences between students in terms of their levels of language abilities, (e) teaching materials signifying the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks and availability of supporting materials, and (f) social support designating any type of assistance that individuals expect to receive from those who come into contact with them. Hence, the paper aims at finding answers to the following research questions:

Q1. What is the common variance of the six inside-school in EE, DP, and PA processes of EFL teachers?

Q2. Which of the six inside-school factors better predicts the EE, DP, and PA burnout processes of the EFL teachers?

Q3. Which of the six inside-school factors plays a cross-cultural role in EE, DP and PA processes of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers?

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Purpose of the Study

Teaching is far more stressful and challenging than ever before, and teacher burnout has an alarming effect on teaching quality, student achievement, school climate, social welfare, etc. Therefore, the general purpose of this quantitative comparative study is to shed more light on educational issues in ELT settings by referring to burnout construct. Moreover, despite the fact that the concept of burnout has spread around the globe, there are not virtually enough investigations that take cultural differences between countries into account. Our study is only one so far to show such differences between Iran and Turkey.

3.2. Participants and Setting

The participants were Iranian (n=230) and Turkish (n=156) teachers teaching English as a foreign language in state high schools during 2011-2012 academic year. There were 176 males (45.6 %) and 210 females (54.4 %) teachers in the study. Additionally, the sample based on gender variable indicated that high schools were dominated by male teachers in Iran (n= 140, 60.9 %), while they were dominated by females in Turkey (n = 120, 76.9 %). The Iranian data were collected from North West provinces of East Azerbaijan, West Azerbaijan, Ardebil, Zanjan, Kazvin, and Tehran, whereas the Turkish data were mainly collected from four urban regions of Ankara (i.e., Mamak, Çankaya, Altındağ, and Balgat). Besides, some data were collected through Internet from Istanbul, Izmir, and Konya

in Turkey. Collectively there were 124 high schools in the study (Iranian $n = 68$; Turkish $n = 53$) in which approximately 677 teachers had been employed. A total of 583 anonymous questionnaires representing 86.11% of the population were sent to all teachers in the randomly selected schools. On the whole, 427 questionnaires were returned, of which 386 questionnaires were included in the study.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) was employed to measure self-perceived burnout levels of EFL teachers in three dimensions of EE, DP and PA. It includes 22 items (EE= 9 items, DP = 5 items and PA= 8 items) asking the respondents how often they experience burnout-relating feelings through a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0-6 (where 0= never and 6= every day). The EE subscale assesses the feelings of being emotionally exhausted or overextended, the DP subscale evaluates the feelings of impersonal response toward people, and the PA subscale measures the feelings of successful achievement. High internal consistency (EE= 0.90; DP= 0.79; PA= 0.71) and test-retest reliability (EE= 0.82; DP= 0.60; PA= 0.80) were reported for the subscales by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter, (1996). However, the obtained reliability estimates of the subscales in this study were EE (r= 0.882), DP (r= 0.722), and PA (r= 0.745).

Additionally, six tools consisting of 36 items (the average r=0.717) were developed based on the literature to measure the participants' perceptions regarding their school conditions in the six areas of (A) Work Overload, (B) Student Misbehaviour, (C) Oversized Classes, (D) Mixed-ability Classes, (E) Teaching Materials, and (F) Social Support. The validity and reliability of the scales were obtained from the experts at English department of Hacettepe University and from the feedbacks of a pilot study among 50 Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. A brief description of each is as follows:

A) A self-developed Work Overload Scale (4 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs on the allocated time to fulfil a task and the amount of work itself. It includes two dimensions of (a) *time*

pressure (referring to the inabilities of teachers to complete a task because of not having enough time) = 2 items and (b) *amount of work* (referring to the amount of work to be done) = 2 items. The internal consistency reliability of the 4-item scale was $r= 0.626$, indicating a moderate reliability index for the measure.

B) A Student Misbehaviour Scale (8 items) was developed based on Blasé's (1986) conceptualization of student misbehaviour to measure the participants' beliefs about student discipline problems. It includes three dimensions of (a) *student discipline* (referring to student problems such as verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, vandalizing school property, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts, drug use, etc.) = 2 items, (b) *student apathy* (referring to students' negative attitudes toward work and school) = 2 items, and (c) *low student achievement* (referring to students' failure to achieve teacher-defined learning outcomes) = 4 items. The internal consistency reliability of the 8-item scale was $r= 0.753$, indicating an acceptable reliability index for the measure.

C) A self-developed mono-dimensional Oversized Classes Scale (2 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the interference of the class-size factor in their classroom activities. The internal consistency reliability of the 2-item scale was $r= 0.528$, indicating a small reliability index for the measure.

D) A self-developed mono-dimensional Mixed-ability Classes Scale (2 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the role of class composition in their activities. The internal consistency reliability of the 2-item scale was $r= 0.873$, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure.

E) A self-developed Teaching Materials Scale (8 items) was used to measure the participants' beliefs about the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks and availability of other teaching materials. It includes two dimensions of (a) *suitability of the textbooks* (referring to the suitability and practicality of the present high-school textbooks in Iran and Turkey) = 5 items and (b) *availability of other materials* (referring to the availability of

additional teaching materials for better presentation of the lessons) = 3 items. The internal consistency reliability of the 8-item scale was $r= 0.757$, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure.

F) An adapted shortened version (12 items) of the Social Provisions Scale Developed by Russell and Cutrona (1984) based on the theoretical model of Weiss (1974) was used to measure teacher self-efficacy perceptions of the EFL teachers in the six dimensions of (a) *guidance* (having access to advice and information to handle problems) = 2 items, (b) *reliable alliance* (perceiving that others can be counted upon for tangible assistance) = 2 items, (c) *reassurance of worth* (referring to recognition of one's competence, skills, and value by others) = 1 item, (d) *social integration* (referring to a sense of belonging to a group that shares similar interests, concerns, and recreational activities) = 2 items, (e) *attachment* (referring to a sense of emotional closeness from which one derives a sense of security) = 3 items, and (f) *opportunity for nurturance* (referring to the sense that others can rely upon one for their well-being) = 2 items. The internal consistency reliability of the 12-item questionnaire was $r= 0.768$, indicating a very high reliability index for the measure.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedures

The collected data were entered into the SPSS version 20 for Windows for analysis. The six inside-school factors (i.e., work overload, student misbehaviour, oversized classes, mixed-ability classes, teaching materials, and social support) were the independent variables of the study, while the three burnout levels (i.e., EE, DP, and PA) were the dependent variables. Inferential statistics including percent, Pearson correlation, ANOVA and multiple regressions were used for determining burnout levels of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers and explaining the predictive role of the six-inside factors in their EE, DP, and PA processes.

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The general burnout perceptions of Iranian and Turkish teachers in the three subscales of EE, DP and PA were specifically reported in

Khezerlou (2012 & 2015). The average burnout scores of the groups based on the three cut-off points of Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) were low =45.2%, moderate =23.5%, and high =31.3% for Iranian teachers and low =33.76 %, moderate =33.13%, and high =33.13 % for Turkish teachers. The results also revealed statistically a significant difference between the groups only in the subscale of EE rather than DP and PA (Khezerlou, 2012 & 2015). Since the potential predictive roles of the six inside-school factors in EE, DP, and PA processes are on focus here, only their results are reported commonly and independently for the groups.

4.1. Inside-school Factors as Predictors of Teacher Burnout

The results of multiple stepwise-method regression analyses for determining the predictive role of the six inside-school factors in the three burnout subscales of EE, DP and PA revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the inside-school factors of Workload (t=2.088; P= 0.037), Student Misbehaviour (t= -2.809; P= 0.005), Mixed-ability Classes (t= -4.409; P= 0.000) and Social Support (t= -3.609; P= 0.000); DP with the factors of Workload (t= 3.358; P= 0.001), Mixed-ability Classes (t= -4.109; P= 0.000), Teaching Materials (t= 3.607; P= 0.000) and Social Support (t= -6.041; P= 0.000); and PA with Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.943; P= 0.000), Over-sized Classes (t= -3.039; P= 0.003), Mixed-ability Classes (t= 2.376; P= 0.018), Teaching Materials (t= -3.144; P= 0.002) and Social Support (t= 5.643; P= 0.000) (See Table 1).

Table 1. Coefficients of EE, DP and PA and inside-school factors

Subscales	EE				DP				PA			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. WL	.106	2.088	.037	.010	.188	3.358	.001	.024	-.099	-1.667	.096	-
2. SM	-.155	-2.809	.005	.017	-.087	-1.575	.116	-	.285	4.943	.000	.051
3. OC	-.097	-1.616	.107	-	.024	.419	.675	-	-.168	-3.039	.003	.019
4. MC	-.233	-4.409	.000	.043	-.200	-4.109	.000	.036	.123	2.376	.018	.012
5. TM	.030	.505	.614	-	.200	3.607	.000	.028	-.164	-3.144	.002	.021
6. SS	-.177	-3.609	.000	.029	-.283	-6.041	.000	.077	.269	5.643	.000	.067
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.153				Total R^2 = 0.196				Total R^2 = 0.202			

WL =Workload, SM = Student Misbehaviour, OC = Over-sized Classes, MC = Mixed-ability Classes, TM = Teaching Materials, and SS = Social Support.

The results also disclosed that the predictive factors of EE, DP, and PA accounted for 15.3, 19.6, and 20.2 per cent of each subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, the strongest predictor of EE was Mixed-ability Classes (t= -4.409; β= -.233), DP was Social Support (t= -6.041; β= -.283) and PA was Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.943; β= 0.285), respectively (See Table 1).

When the Beta values were summed independently for each of the EE, DP, and PA subscales in all six factors, the results showed that the value of PA (β Sum= 1.108) was greater than that of EE and DP, and when the Beta values were summed individualistically for each of the six factors in all EE, DP and PA subscales, they revealed that the value of Social Support (β Sum= 0.729) was greater than that of the others (See Table 2).

Table 2. Beta values of the six inside-school factors and burnout processes

Inside-School Factors	EE		DP		PA		Beta Sum
	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	Sig.	Beta Rank	
1. WL	+	4	+	4	-	6	0.393
2. SM	+	3	-	5	+	1	0.527
3. OC	-	5	-	6	+	3	0.289
4. MC	+	1	+	2	+	5	0.556
5. TM	-	6	+	3	+	4	0.394
6. SS*	+	2	+	1	+	2	0.729
Beta Sum	0.798		0.982		1.108		-
	* indicates the strongest predictive factor						

4.2. Comparison of the Groups

The results of multiple enter-method regression analyses for determining the comparative predictive role of the six inside-school factors in the three burnout subscales across Iranian and Turkish teachers revealed that EE had significant linear relationship with the inside-school factors of Workload (*t*= 2.678; *P*= 0.008), Student Misbehaviour (*t*= -2.332; *P*= 0.021), Mixed-ability Classes (*t*= -3.393; *P*= 0.001) and Social Support (*t*= -3.039; *P*= 0.003) in the case of Iranian teachers and with the factors of Over-sized Classes (*t*= -3.736; *P*= 0.000) and Social Support (*t*= -3.925; *P*= 0.000) in the case of Turkish ones (See Table 3).

Table 3. Coefficients of EE and inside-school factors across Ir. & Tr. groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. WL	.194	2.678	.008	.026	-.157	-1.667	.098	-
2. SM	-.176	-2.332	.021	.020	.115	1.223	.223	-
3. OC	-.001	-.014	.989	-	-.323	-3.736	.000	.064
4. MC	-.220	-3.393	.001	.042	-.128	-1.452	.149	-
5. TM	.001	.008	.993	-	-.075	-.824	.411	-
6. SS	-.200	-3.039	.003	.033	-.274	-3.925	.000	.070
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.196				Total R^2 = 0.319			

Ir = Iranian and Tr = Turkish.

The results also showed that the predictive factors of EE in the case of Iranian participants accounted for 19.6 per cent of the subscale's variance, while in the case of Turkish participants explained 31.9 per cent. Moreover, Mixed-ability Classes (t= -3.393, β= -.220) was the strongest predictor of EE subscale among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of EE among Turkish teachers was Over-sized Classes (t= -3.736, β= -.323) (See Table 3).

Additionally, the scrutiny of values for DP subscale revealed that there were significant linear relationships between the DP subscale and the inside-school factors of Workload (t= 4.242; P= 0.000), Over-sized Classes (t= 2.202; P= 0.029), Mixed-ability Classes (t= -2.383; P= 0.018), Teaching Materials (t= 3.816; P= 0.000) and Social Support (t= -2.965; P= 0.003) in the case of Iranian participants, and between the DP subscale and the inside-school factor of Social Support (t= -6.681; P= 0.000) in the case of Turkish participants (See Table 4).

Table 4. Coefficients of DP and inside-school factors across Ir. & Tr. groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. WL	.285	4.242	.000	.056	-.020	-.214	.831	-
2. SM	-.098	-1.388	.166	-	-.072	-.755	.451	-
3. OC	.154	2.202	.029	.015	-.138	-1.580	.116	-
4. MC	-.144	-2.383	.018	.018	-.103	-1.157	.249	-
5. TM	.251	3.816	.000	.045	.093	1.006	.316	-
6. SS	-.181	-2.965	.003	.027	-.471	-6.681	.000	.209
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.306				Total R^2 = 0.304			

The results also demonstrated that the predictive factors of DP in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants explained 30.6 and 20.9 per cent of the subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Moreover, Workload (t= 4.242, β= 0.285) was the strongest predictor of DP among Iranian teachers, while the strongest predictor of DP subscale among Turkish teachers was Social Support (t= -6.681, β= -.471) (See Table 4).

Finally, the scrutiny of values for PA subscale showed that there was significant linear relationship between the PA subscale and the inside-school factors of Workload (t= -2.190; P= 0.030), Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.557; P= 0.000), Over-sized Classes (t= -2.516; P= 0.013), Mixed-ability Classes (t= 2.730; P= 0.007), Teaching Materials (t= -2.045; P= 0.042) and Social Support (t= 2.309; P= 0.022) in the case of Iranian participants and between the PA subscale and the inside-school factors of Student Misbehaviour (t= 2.490; P= 0.014) and Social Support (t= 6.217; P= 0.000) in the case of Turkish participants (See Table 5).

Table 5. Coefficients of PA and inside-school factors across Ir. &

Tr. groups

Subscales	Ir.				Tr.			
	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2
1. WL	-.154	-2.190	.030	.016	.041	.413	.680	-
2. SM	.335	4.557	.000	.071	.246	2.490	.014	.031
3. OC	-.184	-2.516	.013	.022	-.069	-.762	.447	-
4. MC	.172	2.730	.007	.025	-.062	-.668	.505	-
5. TM	-.140	-2.045	.042	.014	-.044	-.463	.644	-
6. SS	.147	2.309	.022	.018	.453	6.217	.000	.193
All subscales	Total R^2 = 0.240				Total R^2 = 0.256			

The results also disclosed that the predictive factors of PA in the case of Iranian and Turkish participants accounted for 24.00 and 25.6 per cent of the subscale's total prediction variance, respectively. Furthermore, the strongest predictor of PA subscale among Iranian teachers was Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.557, β= 0.335), while the strongest predictor of PA among Turkish teachers was Social Support (t= 6.217, β= 0.453) (See Table 5).

At last, when the Beta values were summed independently for each of the EE, DP, and PA subscales in all six factors across the groups, the results showed that Iranian teachers' EE and DP Beta sum values (EE β Sum = 0.792; DP β Sum = 1.113) were less than that of Turkish ones (EE β Sum = 1.072; DP β Sum = 1.132), while the PA Beta sum value of the Iranian group (PA β Sum = 1.132) was greater than that of Turkish one (PA β Sum = 0.915) (See Table 6). Besides, when the Beta values were summed independently for each of the six factors across the groups in all EE, DP and PA subscales, the findings revealed that the value of Workload factor (β Sum = 0.633) among Iranian teachers and Social Support factor (β Sum = 1.198) among Turkish teachers were greater than that of the other factors (See Table 6).

Table 6. Beta values of the Six inside-school factors and burnout processes across Ir. & Tr. groups

	EE				DP				PA				BS	
	Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.		Ir.		Tr.		Ir.	Tr.
Factors	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR	Sig.	BR		
1. WL*	+	3	-	4	+	1	-	6	+	4	-	6	0.633	0.218
2. SM	+	4	-	5	-	6	-	5	+	1	+	2	0.609	0.433
3. OC	-	6	+	1	+	4	-	2	+	2	-	3	0.339	0.53
4. MC	+	1	-	3	+	5	-	3	+	3	-	4	0.536	0.293
5. TM	-	5	-	6	+	2	-	4	+	6	-	5	0.392	0.212
6. SS**	+	2	+	2	+	3	+	1	+	5	+	1	0.528	1.198
BS	0.792		1.072		1.113		1.132		1.132		0.915		-	-

* (Iran)/ ** (Turkey) indicates the strongest predictive factor in the group.
BS = Beta Sum; BR = Beta Rank

5. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the predictive role of six inside-school factors in EE, DP and PA burnout processes of Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. The results of linear regression disclosed 0.153, 0.196, and 0.202 R-square indexes for EE, DP, and PA subscales, respectively (See Table 1). This means that 15.3%, 19.6%, and 20.2% of the variation in the dependent variables of EE, DP, and PA can be explained in a linear relationship with the inside-school predictors. Theoretically, the more variance that is accounted for by the regression model the closer the data points will fall to the fitted regression line. If a model could presumably explain 100% of the variance, the fitted values would always equal the observed values, and all the data points would fall on the fitted regression line. According to Cohen (1992) R-square values 0.12 and below indicate

low, between 0.13 to 0.25 values indicate medium, 0.26 and above values indicate high effect size. In this respect, our models are of medium effect sizes. However, an R-square index as low as 10% is generally accepted for studies in the field of arts, humanities and social sciences because human behaviour cannot be accurately predicted (Cohen, 1992), therefore, it can be concluded that the predictive models for EE, DP, and PA subscales have equally a good fit, and are reasonable enough to claim for a strong linear relationship when the sample size, the significant predictors, the number of independent fitted variables in the model, etc. are taken into account.

With regard to which factors better predict the EE, DP, and PA burnout processes among both Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, the findings demonstrated that EE subscale was better predicted by Mixed-ability Classes factor (t= -4.409; β= -.233) (See Table 1). This means that Iranian and Turkish teachers are emotionally drained from their job mainly as a result of students' heterogeneous abilities, and that they do not know how to address the diversity of students' needs and abilities. Every learner has his own learning style, linguistic background knowledge or individual pace of learning and developing, and adapting teaching to the needs of individual students is seen as a key element in education (Leithwood, Edge, & Jantzi, 1999).

According to Richards (1998), the majority of foreign language classes involve in students of varying abilities. One possible explanation for this result in Iranian and Turkish EFL settings is that students are set in classes according to their age and year of study, and their potential abilities are ignored before and during the school, meaning that all of them are kept in view as beginners at the start of their grade. A great number of students in EFL classes have no prior knowledge of English or are true beginners, having almost no structural and lexical knowledge of the foreign language. At the same time, there are students who have already been exposed to English for various reasons and possess a substantial knowledge of English, but they are compulsively grouped as false beginners. The mixing of true and false beginners has likely created a dilemma for

our EFL teachers either to focus on the more advanced students ignoring the rest or address the less able learners at the risk of boring the more able ones. Another explanation may be that the teacher training programs offer little or no practical lessons and guidelines for handing the problems on the classroom floor. Thus, the majority of the teachers could not prepare themselves for suitable adaptation according to students' needs and cater for the different ability levels. When teachers' attempts to get up to their confused feelings and situation failed, they severely depleted their energy. This finding is consistent with the literature that indicates teachers face challenges when they are not equipped with the necessary skills and methodologies to deal with mixed-ability classes (Butterworth, 2010; Ellis, 1994; Hernandez, 2012; Xanthou & Pavlou, 2010).

The findings also revealed that DP subscale was better predicted by Social Support ($t=$ -6.041; $\beta=$ -.283) (See Table 1), meaning that teachers who felt they did not receive good support tended to report higher DP burnout. Generally, this finding is consistent with existing literature which regards social support as a significant burnout source at work and an important solution to help individuals deal effectively with work-related stressors (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Sochos, Bowers, & Kinman, 2012). For instance, Maslach and Jackson (1986) put forward that high levels of social support are associated with low levels of burnout. Moreover, Price and Spence (1994) showed that social support is significantly associated with all dimensions of burnout.

Although the present study does not focus on support sources (i.e., support categorized as coming from inside the work context called internal support, such as administrators/supervisors, colleagues, and students and/or originating from outside the work context called external support, such as friends, family members, and parents), previous studies (Brouwers, Evers, & Tomic, 2001; Demerouti et al., 2001; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012; Janssen, Schaufelioe, & Houkes, 1999) have reported that different sources of support have different relationships with each of the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment.

Specifically, it has been claimed that work-related sources of support, because of their more direct influence on job demands, are more strongly related to exhaustion, while non-work related sources of support are more strongly related to depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Halbesleben, 2006). From this view it can be concluded that our EFL teachers' commitment to depersonalization is associated with lack of external support coming from private networks such as partners and friends.

Moreover, Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel and Gutierrez-Wirsching (2016) concluded their "study that certain types of support will buffer the impact of certain components of burnout" (p. 15), and claimed that the negative effect of co-worker support on perceived lack of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization will be stronger than the negative effect on personal accomplishment, whereas the negative effect of supervisor support on perceived lack of personal accomplishment will be stronger than the negative effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Besides, "the negative effect of supervisor support on burnout can be more prominent for lack of personal accomplishment than is the effect of co-worker support" (p. 8). So, it can be inferred from these views that our EFL teachers' commitment to depersonalization is related to the scarcity of internal support provided by colleagues in the work place.

These studies help us clear the view that support sources (whether internal or external to the work context) are associated with teacher burnout in general, but the view that certain support sources buffering specific components of burnout is not much vivid. Further research in this area is necessary. However, one possible major reason drawn from the studies for our case is that teachers mainly engage in continuous interaction with students, families, colleagues, and administrators, and having close friends at work or feeling part of a group is important for them to avoid a sense of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012). Additionally, social support, an important factor in education, is related to many other factors, such as age, gender, educational and socioeconomic levels, and social networks. Moore (1990), for instance, argued that the personal networks of men and women were similar in size, but

they differed in their composition: Men's networks were composed of more non-kin ties (i.e., more co-workers), whereas women's networks were composed of more family ties. Therefore, our teachers' commitment to depersonalization can be explained by the composition of male and female networks: Our female teachers (54.4%) benefited much from external support sources, such as friends, family members, and parents, whereas our male teachers (45.6%) got advantage more from internal support sources, such as administrators/supervisors and colleagues- very common support models in Islamic countries. The support composition differences may extremely have affected their DP perceptions.

Finally, the results showed that PA subscale was better predicted by Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.943; β= 0.285) (See Table 1). It implies that Iranian and Turkish teachers who perceived more student misbehaviour experienced increased reduced personal accomplishment. A number of studies dealing with burnout antecedents indicate the significant association between student misbehaviour and reduced occupational enthusiasm (Aloe, Shisler, Norris, Nickerson, & Rinker, 2014; Hargreaves, 2000; Kyriacou, 2011). In their more recent comprehensive longitudinal study focusing on teacher occupational well-being and student misbehaviour among 222 teachers and 4111 students in German, Aldrupa, Klusmann, Lüdtke, Göllner, & Trautwein (2018) reported that "teachers who perceived more student misbehaviour reported increased emotional exhaustion and reduced work enthusiasm" (p. 131). Consistent with some previous studies (Aldrupa et al., 2018; Bru, Stephens, & Torsheim, 2002; McCormick and Barnett, 2011; Milatz, Luftenegger, & Schober, 2015), our findings confirm the central role of student misbehaviour in reducing sense of occupational accomplishment among teachers and explain inadequacy of a positive teacher-student relationship, which plays the mediating role in burnout processes: Teachers reporting a close, conflict-free relationship with their students experience less burnout. In this regard, Austin, Shah and Muncer (2005) proposed that "an effort to create positive meaning are possible positive coping

strategies" (p. 74) that teachers can solicit to prevent or reduce their personal non-accomplishments.

When beta values were summed independently for each of EE, DP, and PA subscales in all six factors, the results displayed that the value of PA (β Sum = 1.108) was greater than that of EE and DP (See Table 2). It means that the chosen inside-school factors significantly contributed to PA burnout of teachers. Although there is not any coherent and comprehensive framework for reflecting the dynamics of the burnout processes, and the results do not help us align certainly with any developmental model of burnout, we support the well-known sequential progression from exhaustion to personal accomplishment for our case (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Specifically, our EFL teachers, first, experienced exhaustion (EE) in response to imbalance between high demands and less resources at work. Then, they developed negative attitudes to people and the job (DP) as a reaction to excessive exhaustion and impossibility of psychological recharging for the work. Finally, they felt inadequacy and failure (PA). This conceptual model of burnout development seems to be popular among teachers (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

Additionally, when the beta values were summed individualistically for each of the six factors in all EE, DP and PA subscales, the results disclosed that the value of Social Support (β Sum= 0.729) was greater than that of the other factors (See Table 2). Thus, it is interpreted that teachers who feel more burnout are likely to think that they are less supported by their significant others. This finding is consistent with the previous studies (e.g., Brouwers, Evers, & Tomic, 2001; Dworkin, Saha, & Hill, 2003; Embich, 2001; Van der Doef & Maes, 2002), in which the crucial role of social support in predicting teacher burnout has been confirmed. However, to deal with EE, DP, and PA burnout associated with the selected inside-school factors among both Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers, they should mainly be supported socially (See the discussions above).

Regarding to the contrasted data, the results displayed that EE subscale was better predicted by Mixed-ability Classes ($t= -3.393$,

β= -.220) in the case of Iranian, while by Over-sized Classes (t= -3.736, β= -.323) in the case of Turkish teachers (See Table 3). This means that Iranian teachers are emotionally drained from their job mainly as a result of student heterogeneous competence (See the discussions above), whereas Turkish teachers as a result of populated classes. When the above and current results of EE and students' heterogeneous abilities are weighted, it is understood that students' heterogeneous abilities played more role in EE burnout among Iranian teachers than their Turkish counterparts, whose exhaustion is mainly attributed to large classes. The size of Iranian and Turkish secondary EFL classes are almost equal, something around 30, hence, Turkish teachers perceive that their classes are overwhelming. The reason for this difference may be cultural or may endorse the fact that the EFL classes are really crowded in Turkey, which should be determined by further studies. However, it has been argued that children in larger groups often learn antisocial behaviour from peers, which might lead to diminished academic engagement and achievement and to the development of behaviour problems (Laird et al., 2001).

Moreover, the contrasted results indicated that DP subscale was better predicted by Workload (t= 4.242, β= 0.285) among Iranian teachers, whereas by Social Support (t= -6.681, β= -.471) among their Turkish counterparts (See Table 4), meaning that Turkish teachers feel cynical and uncaring toward their students due to shortage of support (See the discussions above), while their Iranian counterparts due to much work. According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017), previous studies showed that work overload "was strongly associated with emotional exhaustion, whereas it was not significantly related to depersonalization or to personal accomplishment" (p. 786). Fernet, Guay, Senecal, & Austin, (2012), for example, found that work overload correlated more strongly with emotional exhaustion than with depersonalization among Canadian teachers. Similarly, Betoret and Artiga (2010) observed a significant but weak association between workload and emotional exhaustion (β= 0.19) and depersonalization (β= 0.10) among Spanish teachers. Besides, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010 & 2011) found that workload

strongly predicted emotional exhaustion in two studies (β= 0.59 and β=0.48, respectively) among Norwegian teachers, but failed to find a significant association between these constructs. Likewise, Goddard, O'Brian, & Goddard (2006) in a study among Australian teachers disclosed that time pressure was significantly related to emotional exhaustion (β= 0.29) but not significantly related to depersonalization. Our results are somehow consistent with the results of Fernet et al. (2012) and Betoret and Artiga (2010), while it is completely at odds with the findings of Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010 & 2011) and Goddard, O'Brian, & Goddard (2006).

This may be attributed to the reason that Turkish teachers are responsible for 15 hours per week, while Iranian teachers are required to teach 24 hours per week with a low amount of salary than that of their Turkish counterparts. Additionally, many Iranian teachers take up a second part-time job or set up their own business on a part-time basis to solve their problems in life. Whatever their reasons are for, working a part-time job along with a professional job can pose a lot of challenges for Iranian teachers because burning the candle at both ends impacts the performance at either the full-time or part-time job as well as the personal life. Once our teachers tried to bear the burden of the second job, they may have failed to psychologically recharge themselves for their professional work. As a result, they depleted their energy and perceived cynical attitudes towards the students and even the colleagues.

Lastly, the contrasted results illustrated that the strongest predictor of PA subscale among Iranian teachers was Student Misbehaviour (t= 4.557, β= 0.335), while the strongest predictor of PA among Turkish teachers was Social Support (t= 6.217, β= 0.453) (See Table 5). When the above and current results of PA and Student Misbehaviour are taken into account, we found out that Student Misbehaviour played more role in PA burnout among Iranian teachers than their Turkish counterparts, whose non-accomplishment is mainly associated with support sources (See the discussions above).

When the beta values were summed independently for each of the EE, DP, and PA subscales in all six factors, the cross-cultural comparative results yielded that Turkish group had higher levels of exhaustion (β= 1.072) and cynicism (β= 1.132) when compared to their Iranian counterparts (EE β = 0.792; DP β=1.113), while the personal accomplishment of the Iranian group (PA β=1.132) was greater than that of Turkish group (PA β= 0.915) (See Table 6). This can be interpreted that Turkish teachers feel more EE and DP burnout than Iranian ones. However, the analyses were followed to see whether such differences were statistically significant. The results showed slight significant difference between the groups in favour of Turkish teachers only in EE (Iranian M= 19.53; Turkish M= 23.57) rather than DP and PA (See Khezerlou, 2012 & 2015). This implies that Turkish teachers feel emotionally drained from their job and are unable to give of themselves psychologically more than that of Iranian teachers. The explanation may be that the EFL programs in Turkey are more demanding or Turkish teachers are not efficient enough in their work.

Although, burnout is considered to be a universal phenomenon, its cross-cultural comparative results are diverse (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Some studies (e.g., Greenglass, 1997; Ispir, 2010) could not find any cultural differences in teacher burnout, but some others (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Pienaar & Wyk, 2006) have emphasized on the role of cultural differences in burnout. For instance, Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) reported higher average levels of exhaustion and cynicism among North Americans compared to Europeans (except the Polish). In a comparative study of teacher burnout between European and South African teachers, Pienaar and Wyk (2006) also put forward lower depersonalization among South African teachers. In line with these studies, our findings support the assumption that the burnout phenomenology may not be the same in all cultures.

At last, the cross-cultural comparative results revealed that the dominant factor in EE, DP and PA processes among Iranian group

was Workload (β= 0.633), while among Turkish group it was Social Support (β= 1.198) (See Table 6). That is to say, Iranian teachers perceive burnout mainly as a result of sensing they do much work or they are unable to complete the given tasks in time, whereas Turkish teachers experience burnout due to sensing support inadequacy (See the discussions above). This finding substantiates the discriminatory role of these factors in burnout across cultures as claimed by some studies (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Pienaar & Wyk, 2006). In short, to deal with burnout problems at school based on these factors, Iranian authorities should mainly reduce teaching hours, but at the same time they should increase the course hours so that teaching tasks and activities could be completed in time. While, Turkish authorities should chiefly create a friendly atmosphere so that teachers could sense safe emotional closeness with each other, provide teachers with advice and information in handling problems, and encourage teachers to participate in team work and activities.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to explore which of the six inside-school factors (i.e., Workload, Student Misbehaviour, Over-sized Classes, Mixed-ability Classes, Teaching Materials, and Social Support) better predicts the EE, DP and PA burnout processes among and across Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers. The results showed that the predictive models for EE, DP, and PA subscales were reasonable and strong. Moreover, the results revealed that EE, DP, and PA subscales were better predicted among both Iranian and Turkish teachers by Mixed-ability Classes, Social Support, and Student Misbehaviour factors, respectively. Additionally, the contrasted results displayed that EE, DP, and PA subscales were better predicted by Mixed-ability Classes, Workload, and Student Misbehaviour among Iranian teachers, whereas by Over-sized Classes, Social Support, and Social Support among their Turkish counterparts, respectively. Based on these contrasted results, it was concluded that the burnout prediction patterns of Iranian and Turkish teachers differ from each other.

Finally, Iranian teachers suffered from burnout mainly due to Workload, while Turkish teachers as a result of inadequacy of Social Support. Therefore, Iranian authorities should increase course hours to overcome burnout, while Turkish authorities should develop communication networks among their teachers.

The study has a number of pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, administrators, educational authorities, and burnout researchers. The first and the most important is that it sheds light on the educational systems of Iran and Turkey. Decision-making authorities can benefit from the results to develop teacher productivity through establishing and developing positive work atmosphere and networks. The findings can also help educational administrators diagnose the burnout sources in educational settings to prevent or reduce teacher burnout. Moreover, they can grow awareness of teachers to develop coping strategies to combat burnout. Finally, researchers interested in the field can get insightful information about the burnout processes of EFL teachers in a cross-cultural situation.

In spite of some useful findings, some limitations of the study need to be acknowledged. The first limitation of the study was its reliance on self-report data. In fact, the accuracy of the results depended on the degree to which participants had willed to disclose honestly their behaviours and feelings. Therefore, the reported results may not reflect the participants' actual thoughts. Thus, the accuracy of the findings may be affected negatively. Second, the participants were English language teachers in Iranian and Turkish secondary state schools during the 2011-2012 academic year; therefore, the results should not be generalized beyond the teachers in the regions, fields, and time periods studied. In short, the author believes that there is need to follow the study with other groups to verify the reliability and validity of the measure and procedures.

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