Past Conferences
First Globelt Conference
16-19 April, 2015
Antalya, Turkey

Second Globalt Conference
14-17 April, 2016
Antalya, Turkey

Third Globalt Conference
18-21 May, 2017
Ephesus, Turkey

Fourth Globalt Conference
10-13 May, 2018
Belgrade, Serbia

Fifth Globalt Conference
11-14 April 2019
Kyrenia, Northern Cyprus

Keynote Speakers

Jelena Vranješević
University of Belgrade
Serbia

Hilel Peker
Bilkent University
Turkey

Martin Luxton
British English Board
UK

Irena Vodopija-Krstanović
University of Rijeka
Croatia

Yağmur Çerkez
Near East University
N.Cyprus

www.globeltconference.com | www.globets.org
From the Presidents of the Conferences,

Dear GlobELT & GLOBETS 2020 participants,

This year our conferences have to be organized as a virtual event due to the COVID-19 pandemic. We all worked very hard to make the conferences a big success, and to keep the high academic standard of GlobELT conferences. This year, the presentations of two sister conferences, GlobELT and GLOBETS 2020 are in the same program in separate sections.

This year, our opening speech will be delivered by Prof. Dr. Mazhar Bagli, the former rector of Nevsehir Hacibektaş Veli University, and the keynote speakers, as usual, are all very well-known scholars in their countries and internationally. Jelena Vranješević from University of Belgrade, Serbia; Hilal Peker from Bilkent University, Turkey; Martin Luxton from British English Board, UK; Irena Vodopija-Krstanović from University of Rijeka, Croatia; and Yagmur Cerkez from Near East University, Northern Cyprus have speeches on diverse topics which, I am sure, are all of your interests.

BILKON, our conference organization company from the first one on, this year, has set up an online platform with great care about our comfort in a smooth conference period. The BILKON team have coordinated the preparation, correspondence, as well as the strategies of the 2020 conference program professionally, with patience and true dedication.

GlobELT and GLOBETS 2020 organization committee members have been working on the conference preparations in a stressful atmosphere. They are now definitely satisfied and feel great relief because you, our dedicated GlobELT and GLOBETS friends have supported them via your kind messages and friendly attitude till the last moment of the conference preparation tasks. As you know there is a real team work behind the success of every single GlobELT and GLOBETS event.

Dr. Semra Mirici and I, as the chairs of the GlobELT and GLOBETS 2020 conferences, express our gratitude to our honorable guests, our distinguished keynote speakers, the BILKON, our ambitious and successful team, and surely to you our dedicated and invaluable participants. We wish a fruitful and memorable conference period and hope to conduct the 2021 conferences in a venue which you will be more than happy to attend and engage with colleagues from all around the world as it has happened in the past five GlobELT / GLOBETS conferences.

Kindest regards.

Prof. Dr. Semra Mirici
President of GLOBETS 2020

Prof. Dr. Ismail Hakki Mirici
President of GlobELT 2020

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<td>10:15 - 11:00</td>
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<td>Prof. Dr. Mazhar Bağh – Karatay University</td>
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<tr>
<td>11:00 - 12:00</td>
<td>First Keynote Speaker</td>
<td>Jelena Vranješević - University of Belgrade - Teachers as knowledge creators: emancipatory potential of teacher leadership</td>
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<td>12:00 - 12:40</td>
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<td>Break</td>
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<tr>
<td>12:40 - 13:00</td>
<td>Day 1 Session 1 Presenters</td>
<td>Nidal Alajaj - Mehmet Bardakçı The Relationship among Willingness to Communicate, Self-perceived Communication Competence, and Communication Apprehension</td>
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<td>Valeriya Merentsova Coping with dyslexia via warm-up activities</td>
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<td>13:20 - 13:40</td>
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<td>Gulcin Cosgun - Derin Atay Fostering critical thinking, creativity and language skills in the EFL classroom through problem-based learning</td>
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<td>13:40 - 14:00</td>
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<td>Daria Bobkova “English Lounge”: Is the Format of a Speaking Club Acceptable in Teaching English for Academic Purposes?</td>
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<td>14:00 - 14:20</td>
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<td>İsmail Hakkı Mirici Contemporary EFL Implementations in Turkey</td>
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<td>Second Keynote Speaker</td>
<td>Hilal Peker - Bilkent University - Imagining a Non-Victimized Balanced Self in the Era of Refugee and Immigrant Traumas</td>
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<td>Esin Akyay Engin</td>
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2nd Day: 29th October 2020, Thursday

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<td>Third Keynote Speaker - Martin Luxton - British English Board - Five Important Steps for Teachers in the Future</td>
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10:00 - 11:00

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<tr>
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<td>Arzi Eren - Çise Çavuşoğlu</td>
<td>Multilingual Classrooms and Refugee Children’s Education in Turkey: English Language Teachers’ Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices</td>
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<td>Bengü Aksu Ataç</td>
<td>The Use of Authentic Materials for Effective Listening Skills in ELT Classes</td>
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<td>Hayriye Sakarya Akbulut - Ismail Fırat Altay</td>
<td>Motivational Differences between Turkish Students and International Students for Learning English at a University Context</td>
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12:00 - 12:40

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<tr>
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<td>Fourth Keynote Speaker - Irena Vodopija-Krstanović - University of Rijeka - Englishmedium instruction: Global trends and local realities</td>
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12:40 - 13:40

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<td>Michael Owusu Tabiri - Ivy JonesMensah</td>
<td>Analyzing the use of subjunctive mood among university students in Ghana</td>
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<td>Vasfiye Geçkin</td>
<td>Does L1 transfer persist in End State L2 English?</td>
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14:00 - 15:00

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<tr>
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<td>Ceyhun Karabiyık</td>
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<td>15:00 - 15:20</td>
<td>Fatima Zahid - Zahida Mansoor</td>
<td>Using Rubrics for Evaluating English Essays in the Pakistani Public Sector Schools</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Fatma Nur Koca – Semra Mirici</td>
<td>Preparation of Epoxy Material of <em>Tenebrio molitor</em> L. Insect in Teaching the Concept of Metamorphosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00 - 12:20</td>
<td>Michael Owusu Tabiri - Ivy JonesMensah</td>
<td>Review of Literature on Coherence and Cohesion in Text Quality Among ESL Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:20 – 12:40</td>
<td>Mehmet Demirezen</td>
<td>Problems of Turkish English majors on some English short vowels versus diphthongs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>İsmail Hakki Mirici - Conference President</td>
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FULL TEXTS
COPING WITH DYSLEXIA VIA WARM-UP ACTIVITIES
Valeriya Merentsova
Public school #5 Mytischi, Russian Federation
merentsova@yandex.ru

Abstract
ESL warm-up activities are indispensable in the English classroom. Students may be weary after other lessons or have other thoughts in their heads and plunging straight into a new class can be quite complicating, in particular, when we teach students with dyslexia. The present study reports on the findings of an investigation into the impact of the special short warm-up exercises on improving reading comprehension of English as a foreign language (ESL) learners. The participants of the research included about 50 learners from 8 up to 16 years old studying in a public school in Russia. Data were collected using EFL learners’ reading videos and the attitudes towards exercises questionnaire. Findings of the research reveal a significant increase in learners’ reading abilities. The participants’ answers to survey along with the open-ended questions also indicated that they not only improved in reading in English, but also noticed increased stress resistance; it became easier to learn in general. Overall, findings suggest that these exercises can help to raise the productivity and effectiveness of education.

Keywords: dyslexia, warm-up, education, reading ability, ESL.

Introduction
Each teacher faces students with different levels of learning for their practice. Now more and more often there are students for whom it is difficult to fit into the time limit when performing a particular task. In developed countries, there has long been a name for this deviation, and students have benefits when passing exams in the form of an increase in the time period. There are associations that help not only parents and students, but also teachers. In Russia, teachers have to evaluate such students in a general way. In addition, many teachers do not consider such students "with disability" at all, but call them lazy. In this review, I will first briefly describe the concepts of dyslexia. Next, I will talk about how to help students minimize the impact of this deviation on the development of reading, speaking and writing skills.

Theory
The effect that dyslexia has is different for each person and depends on the gravity of the state and the efficiency of manual or remediation. The significant difficulty is with word recognition and reading spelling, and writing easily, well, and quickly – fluency. The exact roots of dyslexia are still not completely ascertained. Dyslexia is observed in people of all backgrounds and intellectual levels. So, dyslexia is a slight disorder of the brain that causes difficulty in reading and spelling, for example, but does not affect intelligence. If the hemispheres do not work properly, do not complement each other's functions, the brain consumes much more energy (which the body would otherwise consume), therefore, fatigue appears faster in the
learning process, and the person cannot concentrate. The left hemisphere is connected to the right side of the body (controls it) and Vice versa. Synchronization of the two hemispheres of the brain ensures its optimal use. According to current knowledge, dyslexia is caused by an incorrect connection between the left and right hemispheres, between the front and back of the brain.

**Practice**
During my lessons I always use a couple of exercises/games at the beginning of the lesson or before the difficult task. All leaners do it as a game and all kids and senior leaners have fun doing it.

Exercises for syncing the brain hemispheres will be difficult to do at first, so take your time. When it starts to turn out — speed up the pace. They should be done regularly. The number of repetitions of each exercise is at least 10 times.

"Fist-palm". Put your hands in front of you: the left hand is clenched into a fist, the right palm looks down and is located at the level of the opposite wrist. Now simultaneously change their position. There should always be a fist on top and a palm on the bottom.

"Ear-nose". Hold the tip of your nose with the fingers of your right hand and your right ear with the fingers of your left hand. Release your ear and nose at the same time, clap your hands, and now hold your nose with your left hand and your ear with your right.

«Captain». One hand is placed with a "visor" near the forehead, make sure that the thumb is hidden, and not sticking out to the side. Put your fingers on the other hand in the "class" sign. As in the previous exercises, you must simultaneously change the position of your hands. To complicate things, you can add cotton before changing hands.

«Winner». The fingers on the right hand show the sign "peace", on the left — "OK". Your task is to synchronously change the position of your fingers.

In addition to gymnastics, I use a set of characters that are similar in spelling and cause the most problems. They can be used in different ways: find the same characters directly on the sheet-independent/individual work, and you can add communication by distributing a symbol to all students with the task to find all the same using the description of the symbol in dialogs; in small groups students can disassemble pre-cut signs for the same characters.
Table 1. Samples for combinations of signs

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Table 2. Samples for combinations of signs - 2

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**Conclusion**

Thanks to the synchronization of the left and right hemispheres, learning becomes easier, more effective, faster, a person can perceive and remember more information, and most importantly-do all this without stress. There is a break in the stereotype that learning is difficult. Depending on the age, the degree of neglect of the child and the desire of the student, these simple games can achieve excellent results if you study regularly and do not forget that dyslexics perceive information in images. Therefore, it is important to review the teaching methodology as a whole, because the number of such students increases annually.
References
DO STUDENT TEACHERS GAIN TEACHING EXPERIENCES VIA MICROTEACHING?
Muhlise Coşgun Ögeyik
Trakya University, Faculty of Education, Edirne, Turkey
muhlisecosgun@trakya.edu.tr

Abstract
Microteaching practice is assumed to be contributing to teaching experience in preservice education process. However, microteaching applications may be labelled as daunting tasks by student teachers. In order to defeat predispositions about microteaching practices, the difficulties student teachers face during microteaching practices need to be examined and required feedback and support should be provided. Therefore, this study attempts to evaluate the opinions of the student teachers attending English Language Teaching Department on the aspects of teaching experience in microteaching sessions. In the study that is descriptive in nature, the diagnostic and treatment processes of the microteaching case are evaluated. The overall results of the study revealed that microteaching practices may boost professional development and consciousness and create ideal learning communities for student teachers to be professionally matured to some extent.

Keywords: teacher learning, microteaching, student teacher, teacher training.

Introduction
In teacher training process, student teachers are exposed to field knowledge in order to gain the theory of teaching profession. However, teacher training is not limited merely to theoretical knowledge. That is, student teachers’ proficiency can be enhanced through individual skills and knowledge development during the classroom events with some established common criteria. Student teachers and teacher trainers have the responsibility of theorization of practice through collaboration in educational settings for gaining professional consciousness, knowledge, and development (Johnston, 2009).

As Borg (2003) stresses the embedded values and attitudes in the classroom in language teacher education programs impose the theoretical knowledge on student teachers for professional diploma, and those imposed notions are negotiated and conceptualized in school-based contexts where they work as teachers. However, in order to train competent language teachers, student teachers need to be supported with supplementary approaches for professional development. In teacher training programs, the support is commonly supplied with content knowledge, linguistic knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. Through content knowledge, student teachers are expected to gain theoretical field notes; through linguistic knowledge, they are trained in language skills; through pedagogical knowledge, they are expected to gain experiences on teaching profession. As supplementary approaches, student teachers need to be exposed to microteaching applications in order to have opportunities for teaching experience and getting feedback by teacher trainers before graduation.
Microteaching practices and teacher training

Microteaching practices are teacher training activities that are assumed to be providing student teachers with opportunities to practice teaching through observation and reflection on their own and others’ teaching practices. The most striking opportunity of microteaching is to increase the teaching awareness of student teachers by mastering teaching skills (Richards & Farrell 2011).

Microteaching practices are recorded in order to be evaluated by both student teachers and the lecturer; then feedback is given (Legutke & Ditfurth, 2009). Self-analysis that is another purpose of microteaching is implemented at the end of feedback. In this respect, it can be claimed that the main goal of applying microteaching practices is to increase the competence of teaching practice. The literature on microteaching practices suggest that microteaching practices promotes more efficient and reflective teaching experiences of student teachers (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Tavil, 2012).

While training student teachers for teaching profession, the impact of some affective domains such as anxiety, hesitation, fear, and etc. should be among the concerns of teacher trainers. The studies carried out by some scholars such as Karamustafaoğlu and Akdeniz (2002), Arends (2005), Mergler and Tangen (2010) claim that through microteaching practices, student teachers can defat anxiety problems. Additionally, professional commitment, developing consciousness on teaching, using suitable teaching strategies, designing lesson plans and adopting or creating suitable activities, consuming time professionally, using suitable materials and aids, learning how to manage classroom can also be gained through microteaching practices (Stanulis & Floden, 2009; Khairani, 2011).

Microteaching practices during teacher training process may foster well-organized teacher preparation for future occupation; however, the factors such as non-natural or artificial teaching situations in the classroom, maintenance of teaching equipment, limited course schedules, managing to pay for the expenses while preparing materials due to reduced budget of student teachers and etc. can be listed among the disadvantages of microteaching practices. Despite some disadvantages of microteaching, it can be noted that microteaching can contribute to professional knowledge and reflective skills for the majority of student teachers during teacher training process.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to explore the benefits of microteaching practices in teacher education programs in terms of student teachers’ teaching performance. Based on the abovementioned purpose, the following research questions and sub-questions were designed and answers were sought to the questions:

1. What are the benefits of microteaching practices?
2. What policies are supported through microteaching practices in terms of:
   a. the nature of professional knowledge
   b. professional development
c. the nature of professional consciousness
d. problem solving in teaching process
e. understanding and integrating in the teaching profession

Participants
The participants of the study were 37 third year student teachers attending the English Language Teaching Department (ELT) at a Turkish university. All participants were exposed to consent process wherein they allowed their work to be published. All student teachers (37) in the English Language Teaching Methodology Course who participated in the study were observed in microteaching sessions.

Method
The study is descriptive in nature. The research was carried out through surveys and observations. The participants were exposed to compulsory microteaching activities and were scored at the end of each individual microteaching session.

Data collection and analysis
For data collection interview questions and observation reports were used. The data were evaluated qualitatively.

Findings
Microteaching Evaluation through Interview reports
The reliability of the participants’ responses about microteaching was also checked through semi-structured interviews. Below given the categories of some sample statements:

1. Microteaching for developing professional knowledge
   “Microteaching practices helped me specify appropriate teaching goals…”
   “Designing lesson plans for microteaching sessions promoted my ability for choosing appropriate activities and materials…”
   “I felt myself well prepared after preparing lesson plans…”
   “Microteaching was not so supportive for me to modify the teaching methods and techniques when necessary…”
   “Microteaching was a way of getting opportunity for finding opportunities to design course plans for learners at different age, linguistic levels…”

2. Microteaching for professional development
   “I experienced how to produce teaching materials for microteaching activities…”
   “I think the most important contribution of microteaching was to gain insights from others’ teaching experiences…while giving feedback to my classmates after the microteaching session, I acquired professional expertise…”
   “I had difficulties while teaching because of limited time…”
   “…the more I applied microteaching sessions in the course, the more, I believe, I learnt…”
3. The impacts of microteaching on the nature of professional consciousness
   “…we mostly faced some troubles, but through microteaching we created some opportunities to reflect our ideas…”
   “…teaching practices were difficult but motivating…”
   “…I didn’t feel myself as teacher…”
   “I had difficulty in incorporating real life classroom settings with the artificial ones…”
   “Preparing teaching aids was too expensive and time consuming…”

4. Microteaching is a practical way of problem solving
   “Microteaching provided a space for me to bring together others’ teaching models…”
   “Since microteaching practices were carried out with our own classmates, I knew that the students were not real students. They were just my friends…”
   “I did not feel myself so comfortable while assessing and giving feedback…”
   “The criticisms made by my classmates seemed threatening; therefore microteaching sessions were demoralizing experiences for me…”

   1. Understanding and integrating through microteaching
   “Microteaching was not available for learning about school policies…”
   “Microlessons were the directive practices for improving yourself through other models…but I could not use the class to practice a lot…to learn a lot…”
   “Microteaching didn’t contribute to understanding professional behavior…”
   “…the opportunity of discussing and sharing the experience of others was good for us…but we didn’t share any experiences about the projects…”

As seen, similar ideas were declared in the interview sessions by the participants. The views of the participants were categorized and narrated in Table 1 with the corresponding themes:

Table 1. Categories of the student teachers’ views about microteaching and the corresponding themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the nature of professional</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professionally self-development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing others’ experiences</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>developing educational aims</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focusing on learners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized knowledge for planning lessons</td>
<td>Knowledge in teaching performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15
After gathering the student teachers’ views about microteaching, some challenging points were detected and a treatment process was designed for them to improve their teaching proficiency in a better way. In the table, the highlighted and numbered themes are the problematic points; the numbers are used to indicate the related treatment actions that are presented below. During the treatment process, their awareness about the teaching profession was impelled so as to attain the expected outcomes. The treatment actions were designed in accordance with the responses categorized under five themes for each criteria and were practiced in the re-teaching sessions.

**Data about the treatment process**

After the treatment process which was applied as re-teaching sessions, the participants were asked to reflect on the treatment process and evaluate their own gains. The student teachers’ evaluation of each category is given below:

1. **Instructions and Explanations:** By the help of this action, they recognized the importance of giving clear instructions and explanations, using visual aids during explanations, creating warm rapports with students through body language.

2. **Classroom Management:** After getting feedback on classroom management, the student teachers agreed that they recognized how enjoyable and trouble-free to teach in a peaceful atmosphere through classroom management was.
3. **Evaluation of Student’s Performance:** The student teachers reported that evaluation tools such as homework, worksheets, quizzes, and examinations would be regularly used to assess the performances of the students. They all confirmed that evaluation was an important activity which directed teachers to decide on whether the overall objectives of the course plan were achieved or not.

4. **Material Evaluation:** During re-teaching sessions, they recognized how to prepare suitable materials and make modifications regarding the objectives of the course, needs and expectations of the target group.

5. **Preparing and Using Worksheets:** All student teachers declared the importance of worksheets in the classroom. They noted that eligible worksheets with short and clear instructions for students’ linguistic levels and interests were effective tools for prompting students’ involvement in lesson.

6. **Evaluation and Recording:** In this activity, they reported that the target behaviors expected by teachers would regularly be recorded and consulted.

7. **Simulations in Education:** The student teachers generally reported the benefits of simulation activities in language classes in the sense that such activities enabled the students to be active and creative during the lesson, thus promoting their cooperation.

8. **Using suitable techniques and methods:** For the student teachers, the most striking benefit of re-teaching sessions was gaining experience on how to use suitable techniques and methods during the re-teaching session by getting feedback.

**Results and Discussion**

When microteaching satisfaction levels of the student teachers are evaluated, it is documented that microteaching experience was presupposed to be beneficial for professional development. However, the responses in microteaching interviews revealed that some aspects of microteaching activities were not comprehended well. Microteaching was appreciated as motivating for teaching profession by most student teachers and prompted teaching performance of the student teachers; therefore, fulfilling and applying productive microteaching practices might increase their experiences in teaching profession. For instance, developing course materials and preparing worksheets in artificial context became not trouble-free in microteaching session; however, in re-teaching session such experience became more trouble-free. Besides, observing their classmates’ microteaching sessions was thought to be contributing for teaching profession. In microteaching, they got the opportunity of congregating various teaching models, but they had difficulty in using appropriate teaching methods. Therefore, in the treatment process, they experienced how to plan the courses with suitable techniques and methods, since they became aware of their lacking knowledge after getting feedback.
Additionally, they learnt how to design courses for the learners at different age and linguistic levels. Moreover, after the treatment process, giving feedback, giving instructions and explanations, and performance evaluation were appraised as highly fruitful and useful by the participants. According to this sample research results, microteaching activities and treatment actions were valued as more encouraging facilities to the participants for integrating in the professional matters. The results also indicate that although high-quality professional learning may not considerably occur in microteaching training process, interacting with others, sharing knowledge with classmates, reflecting on their own teaching, and getting suggestions and feedback from their classmates and teacher trainers enable and encourage student teachers to cope with the teaching issues during teacher training process.

Additionally, the results point out that the student teachers gained professional maturity in microteaching and re-teaching processes. Professional maturity for teachers, whether novice or experienced, usually expands the understanding, beliefs, attitudes, and teaching skills of teachers.

Conclusion and Suggestions
The positive attitudes toward microteaching revealed that microteaching practices build many valuable insights about teaching issues such as teachers’ professional and personal behaviors, teachers’ recognition of teaching profession, the importance of being an competent teacher, teachers’ appreciation of students’ attitudes and expectations, classroom management, motivation, using teaching aids efficiently, and developing successful teaching strategies in classroom and school, and etc. Depending on the results of this study, microteaching practices can be valued as a bridging experience between theoretical knowledge and teaching practice in teaching profession.

References


Abstract
Specified assessment criteria provides learners and instructors with information about the abilities and dimensions of the learning task which brings clarity about the expectations of a given task. Assigning marks has always been contentious in the Pakistani education system primarily due to the lack of clear marking criteria (Erfan, 2000). Students often complain about marks in their exams and class assessments as being unjust marking (Whitley et al., 2000). Lack of precise standards in the form of assessment criteria or rubrics and their marking elements not shared with the students adds to the discord (Khattak, 2012). This study investigated the need to establish the explicit standards of marking criteria for each learning outcome by using rubrics for checking essays in the Pakistani public sector schools. Thirty grade VIII students constituted the sample for the study. Data were collected through a Pretest followed by one-week treatment to provide rubric awareness, followed by a posttest. To score pretest and posttest a rubric was developed for a descriptive essay to gauge the effectiveness of the assessment criterion. Teacher’s focus group interviews were conducted to gain an insight of teachers’ perceptions about rubric assessment. Statistical analysis of the scores revealed that students’ awareness of the categories and making decisions showed improved performance in essay writing. Secondly, teachers found rubrics an effective system for justified grading that helped to eliminate the subjectivity in checking the essays. The study concluded that a rubric assessment not only benefited the students; it also helped the teachers to identify areas for improvement in the learners for better essay writing.

Keywords: English essays, writing skills, assessment criteria, rubrics

Introduction
Quality vs quantity has always been a great debate in academics since students who are taught with traditional GTM methods are concerned with lengthy answers to obtain marks. This concept has been changed in 21st century with the implementation of rubrics in educational assessment. Education sector’s emphasis was shifted to descriptive and distributive marking of grades for assessments which they identified as formative assessment. Afterwards assessment has been considered as the results of learning objectives based on learning outcomes. Page and Thomas (1978) explained the concept of examination as “Assessment of ability, achievement or present performance in a subject. Since these assessments need a certain amount of criteria by which they evaluate the assigned task of students. In education sector, the term assessment refers to the variety of methods that educators use to evaluate, measure, and document the academic readiness, learning progress, skill acquisition, or educational needs of students. While assessments are often equated with a traditional checking system for
students, educators use a diverse array of assessment tools and methods to measure students’ academic progress (Darling-Hammond & Pecheone, 2010). Traditionally, assessment is used to evaluate a student's progress and used to find out the student's educational ability. Frank (2012) argues that “Assessment is how we identify our learners’ needs, document their progress, and determine how we are doing as teachers and planners” Similarly a test is a smaller part of assessment, intending to measure the respondents’ knowledge or other abilities. It is a very important process after working or learning time.

Similarly, assessment and evaluation are essential components of teaching and learning in English language and they are highly influenced by modernized assessment methods. Furthermore, these are very closely and objectively co related to each other (Siddiqui et al., 2013) Without an effective evaluation program, it is impossible to know whether students have learned, whether teaching has been effective, or how best to address student learning needs. The quality of the assessment and evaluation in the educational process has a profound and well-established link to student performance. Research consistently shows that regular monitoring and feedback are essential to improve student learning (Nicole & Macfarane-Dick, 2007) which requires a deciphered marking despite of summative marking system.

Formative assessment has introduced the concept of rubrics- a categorized marking system that has been made with the objective to grade the individual characteristics if a unit. Furthermore, rubrics are teaching instruments that help make focused and impartial judgments (Andrade,2000; Stevens & Levi, 2005; Peat, 2006) to put a check on the subjectivity of scoring, it is essential to devise and determine some measuring tools, yardsticks, criteria, and points to be added for specific ability or should be deducted on certain mistakes, but they must be same for all assessors (Henning, 2012). Most of the time students are unaware of the marking categories in the assessments. In this case they write unstructured and according to their learning. On the whole it is not possible that every student is weak in grammar, mechanics, structure etc. but there is a deviation that some might lack vocabulary some might lack essay structure. In Pakistan public sector schools are using traditional grading methods for checking essays (Fatima, 2011). Hence the justification of the marks is not clear and the problematic areas of students are not highlighted and explained by teachers. That is why the undertaken study encompasses the issues and problems of English language assessment in public sector schools in Punjab.

In a similar vein, Stoynoff and Chapelle (2005) stated that “teachers are involved in many forms of assessment and testing through their daily teaching and use of test scores” but they also noted that many teachers find principles of assessment an aspect that is difficult to update and apply efficiently. A descriptive checking and grading is required in order to completely describe the weak areas of students writing. The primary purpose of this paper is to discuss the objective method of language assessment in public sector schools of Lahore.
Common terms teachers are familiar with maybe measurement, test, evaluation, and assessment. The aforementioned terms may informally be used interchangeably to refer to the practice of determining learners’ language proficiency in a variety of contexts. However, Bachman (1990) defined measurement in the social sciences as “the process of quantifying the characteristics of persons according to explicit procedures and rules.” In education, measurement is “the process of quantifying the observed performance of classroom learners” (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Brown and Abeywickrama also mentioned that students’ performance can be described both quantitatively and qualitatively, or by assigning numbers such as rankings and letter grades or by providing written descriptions, oral feedback and narrative reports.

The entire grading criteria does not explain the different categories of task hence the task that has been defined without the categories of content. Hence this uncategorized evaluation of marks does not identify the weak areas of essays. On the other hand, according to Warsi (2004) assessing the English language in Pakistan is subjective in setting in such a manner that it measures pupils' knowledge of the language rather than their performance in it. However, the MoE (2006) has stated that language teachers should employ both formative and summative forms of assessment. Secondly, examiners should explore the cause of students’ strengths and weaknesses and provide helpful and effective feedback to them. Moreover, in constructing an English reading comprehension test, teachers should primarily decide on the purpose of the test and the objectives. Thirdly, the examiners should do an item analysis to find out the validity and reliability of the test (MoE, 2006).

In order to avoid ambiguity and subjectivity in grading, rubrics were designed to analyze the students' learning in objectives and in a categorized manner. A rubric is a coherent set of criteria for students' work that includes descriptions of levels of performance quality on the criteria. Unfortunately, this definition of rubric is rarely demonstrated in practice. It should be clear from the definition that rubrics have two major aspects: coherent sets of criteria and descriptions of levels of performance for these criteria. The genius of rubrics is that they are descriptive and not evaluative. Of course, rubrics can be used to evaluate, but the operating principle is you match the performance to the description rather than "judge" it. Thus rubrics are as good or bad as the criteria selected and the descriptions of the levels of performance under each. Effective rubrics have appropriate criteria and well-written descriptions of performance. Rubrics are important because they clarify for students the qualities their work should have. This use of rubrics can be most important when the students are novices with respect to a particular task or type of expression (Bresciani et al., 2004). The established criteria, including rules, principles, and illustrations, used in scoring responses to individual items and clusters of items

CARLA (Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition) enlisted the purpose and function of rubrics where they have identified the reliability of grading is much higher through rubrics and it eliminates the biasness from grading. Rubrics also help
learners to track record of their learning and they can track their own progress of assessment. One study identified that in Pakistan teachers mostly teach for testing not for learning (Rehmani, 2003). In this case, students learning needs to be evaluated so their self-regulation activates help them to identify the weak areas of their strong and weak areas. That is why rubrics give the learner some kind of freedom and power, because they can critically think about what they are supposed to show and contrast it with that they are actually demonstrating. Feedback on strong and weak areas through rubrics help them to set their own learning targets leading them towards self-directed learners. This way students are able make some important improvements, be responsible about their products and understand the nature of their grades (Santa Cabrera, Castillo & Jimenez, 2017). This study aimed to improve the writing skills of learners by giving feedback on their written assignments by using rubrics in public sector schools of Pakistan. As a study finding showed that the same paper was assigned to three teachers that come up with entirely different grades. This subjective nature of grading is a threat to grading policies and marking criteria (Del Vecchio, 2017).

Objectives
• To investigate the effectiveness of rubric on essay writing
• Exploring the teachers’ perceptions of using rubric for grading

Research Questions
• What is the effect of rubric on student essay writing?
• What are the perceptions of teachers about using rubric for grading?

Methodology
Quantitative method is used in this study by using a mix method research design. Thirty VIII Grade students and five English teachers from a public sector school in Lahore were taken as a sample. Data was collected a through pretest and posttest methods. A rubric was designed to assess the student’s essay. The rubric was developed using informal rubrics used by teachers. Rubric was developed with the consultation of Grade VIII teacher by keeping their marking criteria and the marking criteria that was identified in teacher’s book. The rubric comprised of five features of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary bank in text, Relative competency of words in text, Repetition of words in text, Different words applied in same context in text, Relativity of vocabulary within Pakistani context. Each category was assigned three points. It was first piloted from other English teachers who were not the part of study before data collection procedure. Teachers provided feedback on the review of selected components and the marks assigned in the rubric. Rubric was developed with consultation of teachers and they suggest changes which were made before implementation. Their suggestions included rewrite the categories into easier and understandable language. They administered the reliability of rubric teachers checked an essay with their checking system and then same essay was checked by rubric, and then they compare the results of both grading.
Once changes were incorporated into the revised rubric, it was again evaluated by the teachers who found rewording for descriptors in order to bring clarity to the rubric. After changes were done in rubric it was again revised by teachers and they find it suitable for checking essays. Students were assigned to write a descriptive essay. That was given two treatments. During treatment time they were first introduced to the rubrics and their working. Later on, there were five categories of the rubric. Each category was treated very weakly and they were given marks according to the rubrics by explaining them. After two weeks the posttest was conducted the same as a pretest.

Results and Findings
The results of the study were analyzed using paired t test as shown in figure 1 below.

Analysis of rubric components showed that students have shown mutual improvement in all categories in posttest but the major improvement has been in session and coherence section. As the scores of t test distinctively approved the alternative hypothesis the rubrics are helpful in improving the writing skills of learners.

Teacher’s Interviews
After the posttest, teachers’ interviews were conducted. Interview protocol was designed according to rubric and checking methods. Teachers reviewed this assessment made it easier to identify the weak areas in descriptive writing of students. They said that divisions of marks made it easier to teach the necessary components of paper. Categorization will help them to define them to identify the core parts of descriptive writing. A teacher raised a point of biased marking systems as (Del vecchio, 2007) declares that the same paper was checked by three teachers and they came up with three different grades. On the other hand, they have shown concerns that they are unable to apply this grading system in large size classrooms because it's time consuming. They responded to effectiveness of rubrics is only helpful when educational stake holders are
willing to reduce the large classroom sizes not only for rubrics but also for the learning of students.

Discussion
Assessments have a key role in driving quality in the education system. As such, much is to be gained from spending considerable time and effort in improving assessment systems in general. High quality testing is very likely to have a positive effect on the quality of teaching and learning. Language assessment has always been subjective in public sector schools of Pakistan where students are given the marks without any assigned criteria justification. As CARLA referred the system of descriptive marking as a strategy to learn by keeping the process of learning. Current results of the study showed that after rubric implication students were aware of the contents which were required in the essay. They write all the information in scattered format. Even when teachers are trained in language assessment, keeping abreast of current developments in second language assessment can be a challenge.

The primary purpose of this paper is to discuss the principles of assessment and major language assessment types and Language assessment has been summative in public sector schools of Pakistan. During the collective mark’s student deals have to face the issue of their assigned marks. Sometimes they are not clear about why they have been assigned with these marks. Another thing that was observed during treatment that students have developed a proper essay structure. Because the systematic flow of knowledge helped them to learn the coherent structure of the essay. The categorization of marks into categories made them clear about the objectives of the task. These defined categories in rubric helped them to identify the content of essay which helped them to prepare the essay while having an essay structure in mind. Interview findings revealed that Public sector schools are yet not working to on language assessment criteria instead the traditional teaching method is being used by teachers. Traditional method of checking provided the ease to teachers that they can assign marks according to their own perceptions.

Conclusion
Results of the concluded that implementation of rubric has made learners clear of the objectives and contents of the question. It has removed the subjective perceptions of the questions before attempting and they are aware of the contents in the assessment. Moreover, students are unaware of the essay components because it has been observed that students in public sector schools are only focused on content rather than teaching them the structure for cohesiveness and coherence in the essay. After the implementation of rubrics, they were aware of the divisions in essay’s content and structure that includes all the aspects of language in the essay. Another thing which was observed on the sideline that students were able to develop a proper structure in terms of cohesiveness and coherence. Hence it improves the reliability of scores during language assessment.
Overall study concluded that informed contents of essays in rubric has improved the writing skills of learners because the distributive marking also helped to remove the impartial marking and students were satisfied with their assigned marks. Defined objectives of writings allowed the learners to monitor their progress in writing after using rubric.

Rubric awareness has given teachers a new impartial grading criterion. Teacher’s reviewed the rubric system as a time taking checking procedure than traditional checking. On the other to obtain maximum results rubrics as a method of formative assessment should be implied to obtain optimal results for essay writing. We need to enforce uniform standards for assessment at all levels of schooling. Sooner or later, the secondary and higher secondary examinations will need to follow the standards and established best practices for design and implementation of assessments and the level of standards for primary and elementary level assessments needs to be raised as well. Given that, the governments should attend to the task of reforming assessments with the urgency it deserves in Pakistani public sector schools.

References
ENGLISH LOUNGE”: IS THE FORMAT OF A SPEAKING CLUB ACCEPTABLE IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES?

Daria Bobkova
Altai State University, Barnaul, Russia
dasha_bobkova@yahoo.com

Abstract
The topic of English for academic purposes (EAP) has long been in the spotlight. Such researchers as J. Flowerdew, M. Peacock, L. Hamp-Lyons, K. Hyland internationally, I. Korotkina, S. Bogolepova in Russia devoted their works to its related issues study. It is universally accepted that communication in the academic context encompasses various academic situations and pursues respective, “situation-bound” purposes. In order to succeed, one needs to have general knowledge of English, use specific terms and collocations characteristic of the English language scientific discourse. However, one should not underestimate the importance of “publication conventions”, such as text organization or reference style. In this respect, Russian scientific community faces a dual problem. There is not only the historically conditioned need for mastering general English language skills but also the necessity to study the EAP metalinguistic component. The article discusses a possible solution, which is organizing the EAP study in the form of a speaking club. The format is rather innovative in teaching EAP, so the purpose of the current study is to analyze its efficiency, advantages and disadvantages and to give recommendations regarding its further use. The article shows that though naturally having few drawbacks, the format is quite effective.

Keywords: English for academic purposes, linguistic component, metalinguistic component, speaking club

Introduction
The processes of internationalization and globalization are no longer new. Regardless of our attitude or desire, they have entered almost all spheres of human life. We may consider them good or bad, but there are areas, which already cannot exist in a different reality. One of such areas is science. Nowadays, science has become international; research results are available globally. Science is undoubtedly one of the spheres that benefits from globalization greatly. It is so due to the opportunity to share knowledge, achievements and collaborate internationally. All this speeds up the scientific development and leads to more practical results.

Literature Review
Globalization of scientific research appears to be a positive phenomenon. However, it is closely associated with a number of problems. One of them is the problem of the so-called common linguistic code, which is necessary to make such international communication possible. It is widely accepted that English performs the role of such
common code of the academic discourse. This statement has nothing to do with the idea of the English language dominance. English is by no means better than let us say French or Chinese. Here we mean that for historical reasons, the use of English as lingua franca in science is a given.

One of the leading Russian scientists in the sphere of language learning, Irina Korotkina mentions that, in this respect, the discussion around the English language focuses more on the practical issues (Korotkina, 2018). If we accept English as a universal linguistic code of scientific research, then academic English loses its national affiliation and becomes a separate variant of the language with its own linguistic, organizational and stylistic rules.

Thus, the notion of the English language for academic purposes has long ceased to be something exotic. All the professionals that use English in their studies and research, communicating with peers, discussing problems in the academic contexts or submitting papers realize that this type of English is separate and unique. It has its own characteristic features, peculiarities and rules that differentiate it from the general variant of the language.

There are many different definitions of English for academic purposes (Bogolepova, 2014; Filyuta, 2016; Hamp-Lyons, 2011). However, all of them share some basic features that make it different from other variants of English. Having analyzed these definitions, we formulated the one that combines all the essential ideas.

**English for academic purposes** (herein after EAP) is a type of English for specific purposes that people need to communicate, study and conduct research in the academic English-medium context, i.e. in the international scientific environment. In this respect, teaching EAP focuses primarily on developing the respective skills facilitating the students’ study and research activities.

This article does not dwell much on the concept of EAP itself, as the topic is much wider than the scope of the given paper. Here we will point out one key characteristic essential for further discussion. Any language manifests itself and functions only in the process of oral or written communication, which is always purposeful. Communication in the academic context encompasses various academic situations and pursues respective, “situation-bound” purposes. In order to achieve such goals and make the communication successful, one needs to have the general knowledge of English as well as use specific terms and collocations characteristic of the English language scientific discourse. Accordingly, communication becomes more successful, but that is not enough. Irina Korotkina emphasizes the importance of the so-called “publication conventions”, such as text organization or reference style described by Flowerdew (Flowerdew, 2013; Korotkina, 2018).

Thus, EAP does not encompass only a linguistic component. Its acquisition requires the development of metalinguistic skills. Such skills are necessary not for communication while conducting the research or discussing its results, but when organizing these results and submitting them to the scientific community further. We may conclude that EAP
generally comprises two main components: pure linguistic one and metalinguistic one. Therefore, successful acquisition of this variant of the language requires the concurrent acquisition of both components.

To sum up, globalization and internationalization have had a great impact on the world of science and academic practice. English has fully acquired the status of the language of international scientific and academic communication. It was a positive phenomenon, as it made international scientific collaboration possible. At the same time, it was a great challenge for non-English speaking communities that called for many changes.

In this respect, the Russian Federation was not an exception. Currently, the use of English in international events and as a working language of international scientific projects is actively promoted. Many international conferences within the country are held in English, scientists are encouraged to publish in English, a lot of universities open educational English-based programs. In addition, both central and regional universities include the English-medium activities of staff members and students in their strategic plans. Altai State University is an example. According to its development strategy for 2017-2021, the mission of the university is to train highly-qualified specialists having the world-class professional competences. They should be able to compete globally and present the results of their research internationally. They should be able to actively participate in the processes of interregional and international integration. The most talented students and staff should be supported. Such academics should be encouraged to participate in various international conferences and internships, the university providing them with all kind of support. In general, the strategy stresses the importance of the introduction of specific educational modules aimed at the formation of “over-professional” universal competences. One of such competences is the ability to use EAP fluently and adequately (Program).

The idea of the administration is understandable and should be appreciated. However, the Russian academic world comes across a great problem making the above-mentioned strategic goals quite difficult to achieve. Here arises a question if Russian scientists are ready to integrate into the global English-speaking scientific community or not. Many researchers state that about 40 years ago, Russian science did not even have the idea of academic English as such. General English was taught at universities, but hardly any scientist had a chance to practice it even in a simple every day communication. Although, at that time it did not seem to be a great problem, as no language was considered to be an international scientific one and most of the research was performed in the native language.

As it has been already mentioned before, a lot has changed since then. Nowadays, successful young students usually have a good command of English and try to develop academic English skills while studying. On the contrary, the older generation is not that flexible. The most prominent scientists and researchers whose work and achievements are worth sharing cannot do it due to poor language skills. Moreover, as Korotkina emphasizes, the problem is not just in the language itself, or in the linguistic component of EAP. The papers of Russian authors are often rejected due to the style of writing (Korotkina, 2018). So partially, the problem is the ignorance of international publication
conventions, which do not coincide with those of the Russian academic tradition. In this respect, the metalinguistic component of EAP becomes an issue worth considering. Thus, the described problem, being the heritage of the past, should be urgently addressed at present.

Materials and Methods
The study of the problem of the academic sphere internationalization in Russia allowed us to understand the current situation and the challenges that the Russian academic community has to deal with. In order to address the problem, an innovative platform for mastering EAP skills was created and the corresponding project started its work. To understand the possibility of the format application, we pointed out its characteristic features that can potentially enhance the EAP skills. To understand the effectiveness of a speaking club format in teaching EAP, we analyzed the 2-year practical experience and the practical results of the speaking club educational format application in 2018-2019.

Results and Discussion
As it was mentioned before, a group of activists in Altai State University came up with an idea to create a platform where staff members having trouble writing or presenting in English could develop and master their skills. As a result, a project “English Lounge” was initiated. In general, the purpose of the project is to develop the language skills that will help to communicate and present oneself and one’s research results successfully in the academic environment.

While developing the program of the project, the authors concentrated on both components of EAP as both linguistic and metalinguistic skills needed developing. Basic grammar rules, basic and academic vocabulary, spoken and academic clichés are to be studied during the classes. At the same time, oral discussions (speaking practice) focus not only on general topics. They also focus on so-called “by-academic” topics, such as active listening, paying and receiving relevant compliments, establishing collaborations, etc., and purely academic topics, such as creating a presentation or organizing a scientific paper, etc.

The format of the “English Lounge” project is basically an English speaking club. The main participants of the speaking club are professors, lecturers, research associates and post-graduates of the university. There is no obvious prevalence of any science or even the scientific area as soon as the audience is highly heterogeneous in terms of their scientific interests. The project works during the academic year from October to April. Classes are weekly.

It is worth stressing that the rating or any other evaluation systems are not applicable. The project is voluntary and presumes the learning awareness and independence. Thus, it is open for everybody. A new participant just has to register online and can attend classes any time. There are no obligations for the participants: they are free to join any time and can attend as many classes as they wish. Moreover, they can choose the classes that they want to take, as the topics are pre-announced.
As it was mentioned before, the class has a format of a speaking club, which distinguishes the above-described project and makes it stand out among the similar ones. When initiating the project, we received a lot of comments questioning the idea. Some teachers argued that the format of a speaking club could not be applied to teaching/studying EAP.

Here, before answering our opponents’ question, let us dwell on the concept of a “speaking club” in general. Speaking club is a format of English class organization, which implies gathering a group of students that join the class primarily in order to practice their speaking skills, aimed at imitating language immersion. Scenarios of a speaking club can vary greatly, ranging from acute discussions to quizzes or book reviews.

The format has certain features listed below:

1. The class is characterized by informal atmosphere. Regardless of their status, participants are posed as peers.
2. Participants come voluntarily, they are not graded, which helps to eliminate any stress caused by failure expectation.
3. Any speaking club is organized by a moderator. A moderator should be amiable, communicative and initiative. He or she should be able to lead the conversation, trying to get all the participants involved.
4. Though the role of a teacher is a conversation moderator, it does not exclude a possibility to make any corrective comment. However, these comments should not be obtrusive and should be brief, exact, practical, following the main scenario of the class.
5. It helps students to overcome a language barrier. Participants are encouraged to talk and communicate their ideas regardless of their speaking skills level.
6. It assists students in mastering their pronunciation. Participants listen to other people speaking, imitate their pronunciation and intonation patterns.
7. It helps in building the vocabulary. In the process of communication, participants come across some unknown words or word collocations and can start using them themselves.
8. It allows putting into practice and mastering grammar skills learnt before.

So, a speaking club format is a very effective and practical type of English class organization that has a lot of advantages. However, returning to the question of our opponents, we need to decide if such format is applicable to teaching EAP. Our answer is definitely positive, which is based on our two-year experience of practical work. Certainly, organizing EAP class in the format of a speaking club is a challenge. It has some peculiarities distinguishing it from a regular speaking club. Mostly, they are connected to the topic choice. Participants of a regular speaking club discuss a wide range of general topics, whereas the ones chosen for discussion in an EAP speaking club are associated with the academic sphere. Along with weather or free time activities, participants discuss rules of paper writing or creating a presentation. Therefore, they practice their speaking skills and learn the information essential for them as academics. Thus, this format addresses both problems of Russian scientific community mentioned
above: the lack of communicative practice and the lack of knowledge in the EAP metalinguistic component.

**Conclusion**
In conclusion, we would once more emphasize that a speaking club format is a very effective form of learning English. Is it possible to use this format in teaching EAP? It absolutely is. The efficiency was proved by our practical experience: the participants that regularly took part in the classes, were able both to correct the style of their papers, submit them internationally and to overcome a language barrier and develop their speaking skills which led to their participation in international conferences and internships.

**References**
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A COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS APPROACH TO TEACHING ENGLISH SYNTAX TO RUSSIAN EFL LEARNERS
Svetlana Rakhmankulova
Linguistics University of Nizhniy Novgorod, Russia
tsvet.sveta@yandex.ru

Abstract
Learning grammar in Russia is typically associated with great effort and time costs. To supplement traditional structural and communicative approaches this paper offers a cognitive linguistics approach to teaching English syntax to Russian EFL learners. The novelty of the proposed approach lies in handling a simple sentence as a representer of a propositional concept assigned to this sentence type in native speakers' minds. Teaching syntax in this approach is aimed at helping students assimilate propositional schemes of structuring reality represented by English sentence patterns and then develop skills of employing them in speaking. Implementation of the approach required a combination of methods. Structural and conceptual analyses were employed to define propositions represented by the English sentence; a system of exercises was designed to develop students’ sentence patterns usage skills within the approach; psychological methods – interviews and use of a questionnaire helped determine students’ evaluation of the proposed way of learning syntax and changes in their attitude to learning English syntax. 60 EFL students of a state university took part in the study. The results suggest that the use of the proposed approach makes students feel more confident when making up an utterance in English and enhances interest for the English language and the way it structures reality. Further long-term experiments and language skills tests will show to what extent exactly the approach helps diminish native language interference in syntax and acquire better grammar skills.

Keywords: learning syntax; cognitive linguistics; sentence pattern; proposition; language transfer

Introduction
The demand for specialists with expertise in a foreign language and, as a consequence, the importance of effective foreign language teaching in secondary and higher school, evoke urgent need to develop new models of teaching a foreign language and its grammar in particular. In the field of foreign language teaching, different approaches have prevailed at different times (for a summary and critical reviews, see: Larsen-Freeman, 1985; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Kim, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards & Rogers, 2014; Deelip, Faruk, Gadilohar, Baviskar 2016).

The dominant approaches to language teaching and learning obviously correlate with the current state of language theory development and with the prevailing view of science and society on language and its functions. At present, when the pragmatic attitude to language as a means of immediate intercultural communication has become natural, the communicative approach to foreign language teaching (communicative language teaching) is universally recognized. Language acquisition is believed to occur in the process of communication involving real-life situations (Canale, Swain, 1980;

Still, in real language teaching practice in Russia (where structuralism has always been particularly strong), traditional structural methods are still widely used. Alongside with encouraging students’ ability to engage in dialogue, many teachers employ grammar translation and audio-lingual methods. Mastering foreign language grammar in Russia is traditionally associated with great effort, time, and intellectual costs. Grammar is often viewed as a separate part of language, a system of grammar forms, a long list of grammar phenomena and rules of using them to be learnt and then practiced in restatement, substitution, fill-in-the gaps, correction exercises first and then in translation to a target language and communication exercises. This is the principle that is used in well-known grammar reference books and exercise books made by Russian experts (see, for instance, Golitsinsky, 2011) as well as, for example, in the grammar reference series Grammar in Use by Cambridge University Press that is exceptionally popular in Russia.

Here is a paradox: on the one hand, specialists in teaching methods and linguists have repeatedly pointed out certain shortcomings of the communicative approach, in particular, a tendency to focus learning mainly on communication needs with less care for grammatical correctness of speech and learners’ understanding of grammar meanings. This is thought to bring about a lot of native language interference manifestations and insufficient learners’ grammar competence (Swan, 1985; Ridge, 1992; Littlemore, 2009; Belyaevskaya, 2013; Kravchenko, 2013). On the other hand, there are obvious downsides to structural methods that draw great attention to grammar, but often use special terms to catalogue grammar units and design language exercises that do not help learners to use their grammar skills when speaking in a real-life situation (Newby, 1998; Grundy, 2004; Achar, 2008; Kravchenko, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2015; and others).

The challenge is to find a proper balance between the two extremes, which is the teacher’s art, and to seek new ways of handling grammar that would supplement the advantages of the existing approaches. In recent decades, due to the unflagging interest for cognitive sciences in the professional communities and society in general, a solution has been seen in using modern cognitive linguistics (CL) data (see: Langacker, 2008a, 2008b; Boers, de Rycker, de Knop, 2010; Belyaevskaya, 2013; Kravchenko, 2013; Llopis-Garcia, 2016). Integration of linguistic knowledge, in particular CL data, into methods of foreign language instruction is in line with current trends towards interdisciplinary research.

R. Langacker, the founder of cognitive grammar, was one of the first to point out the possibility of CL integration in teaching methods. In his opinion, the cognitive theory of grammar offers a more complete and adequate explanation of language structures, shows their relationship with thought structures and reveals the peculiarities of perception, conceptualization and categorization of the world by a native speaker reflected in the language (Langacker, 1987, 1988, 2008a, 2008b). R. Langacker argues
that involving the principles of CL in teaching a foreign language gives students a tool for constructing speech without memorizing lists of grammar forms and their possible meanings (as they are presented in traditional grammar), with an understanding of how knowledge is structured by the language itself. These ideas were further discussed in a number of papers (Littlemore, 2009; Boers, de Rycker, de Knop, 2010; Giovanelli, 2013; Llopis-Garcia, 2016). The possibilities of applying CL principles in foreign language teaching have also been repeatedly discussed in collections of papers (Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition, 2008, Cognitive Approaches to Second / Foreign Language Processing: Theory and Pedagogy, 2008, Cognitive Approaches to Pedagogical Grammar, 2008, Fostering Language Teaching Efficiency through Cognitive Linguistics, 2010).

Papers on CL integration in language instruction describe some general principles of applying CL to teaching grammar: viewing grammar as a set of templates for structuring reality employed by native speakers rather than a subsystem of language or a system of rules; revealing the prototypical meaning of a grammatical unit that reflects primary physical experience of a native speaker and deducing its other meanings (arising through metonymy and metaphor) from the contexts of its use; understanding the role of the speaker in choosing the way to structure the conceived situation for communicative purposes; using simple metalinguistic description of grammar which is free of linguistic terms, allows to expose the conceptual structures underlying grammar forms and helps a learner to choose the right form to represent the implied meaning.

These principles have been used for teaching learners to use certain grammar phenomena: articles (Achard, 2008; Tyler, 2012), prepositions (Tyler, Mueller, Ho, 2011), tense-aspect forms of verbs (Kravchenko, 2013; Llopis-Garcia, 2016), etc. Some scholars argue that the CL approach has been found effective in learning foreign phrasal verbs and modal verbs; the findings have been experimentally confirmed (Yasuda, 2010; Tyler, Mueller, Ho, 2011; Chang, 2016). Certain constructions (such as the possessive construction, the ditransitive construction) and ways to explain them to foreign language learners have been viewed from the CL perspective (see, for instance, Goldberg, Casenhiser, 2008). However, a comprehensive model of teaching foreign language syntax that considers the inventory of the sentence patterns of a foreign language and the conceptual structures they represent has not yet been offered. This might be partially explained by the papers being focused on deep study of specific phenomena in the field of grammar, specific constructions as combinations of a structure and lexical units fitting into it, rather than on considering the totality of sentence schemas (see the concept of construction in Goldberg, 1995; Wuff & Ellis, 2018). Moreover, the issue of syntax instruction specifically for Russian EFL learners, that would be aimed at preventing Russian language negative transfer, has not been addressed.

Without diminishing the importance of the existing approaches to teaching grammar, syntax in particular, but taking into account the data of CL on grammatical conceptualization and representation, this paper offers a cognitive linguistics approach (a CL approach) to teaching English syntax to Russian EFL learners.
As opposed to the current theories of teaching grammar, on the whole, and syntax, in particular, teaching syntax in the proposed approach is viewed not in terms of learners’ acquiring the knowledge of the foreign language syntax and of its difference from the system of one’s mother tongue, but rather in terms of learners’ adopting the propositional models of the foreign language that would naturally be used by native speakers, the ones that are fixed in sentence patterns in the foreign language and serve as cognitive models for structuring fragments of reality. The approach developed from the thesis that the main difficulties in teaching syntax are born not of learners’ lack of knowledge of the foreign language syntax and its peculiarities as opposed to those of one’s mother tongue, but are the result of the negative role language transfer plays, of ignoring the differences between the sentence patterns the foreign language and the mother tongue employ to reflect a fragment of reality – the differences actually explained by the different ways of conceptualizing the same fragment of reality by speakers of different languages.

Another idea was based on the hypothesis that a native speaker views various sentence models and their meaning (function) not as terms but as an assembly of simple universal notions (of an animated subject, of an inanimate object, an action, a state, a location or movement in space, etc.). The content of that assembly can be laid out in a form that will be understandable for learners, with the help of simple units of their mother tongue: WHO; WHAT; WHAT KIND; WHERE; BE; GO; and such. Thereby, the propositions that are reflected in sentence patterns can be expressed in a metalanguage with the words of the learners’ mother tongue and reflecting the number, type and sequence of the propositional elements, e.g.: WHO/WHAT IS WHO/WHAT; WHO/WHAT IS WHERE; WHO GOES WHERE, etc. What learners need to understand is that in order to reflect one and the same fragment of reality different models can be employed, and a certain sentence pattern is chosen in accordance with the propositional content of the planned utterance, that is with the sense the speaker wants to convey.

The next hypothesis centres around the thesis that the propositions that appeared as a result of conceptualizing the basic situations of human activity are projected onto various fragments of new experience, including transcendental, or ideal, experience, with the aid of conceptual metaphors; the idea that a conceptual metaphor gets realized on the level of propositional situational models and in the structure of a simple sentence was developed in previous works of the author, see (Kuzmina (Rakhmankulova) 2013). For instance, the propositional model WHO / WHAT IS WHERE is the basis not only of utterances stating the location of an object in space, as in I am here; The book is on the table, but also of utterances reflecting ideal situations describing someone or something in a certain state, involved in a process or a scope of activity, having or not having something anymore, etc.: John was in a nasty situation; You are out of your mind; They are at war; Her father was in publishing; The restaurant is out of fish; We may be in or out of money; etc. The mechanism of conceptual metaphor makes it possible to employ but a few basic prototypic models of a simple sentence to form an utterance (albeit a simple one) about any fragment of reality or an imaginary scene. Helping learners to comprehend this fact will apparently lead to reducing the fear or tension they might feel when they need to speak a foreign language.
On the other hand, when a speaker uses some model to talk of a new fact or situation, language transfer is inevitable: the speaker tends to use the type of sentence pattern that is used when talking of this situation in their mother tongue, to apply the same metaphoric model of conceptualising the world that is native to their own culture of language, without taking into consideration the foreign profile of the syntactic representation of the world. To prevent language transfer, it is necessary to study cross-language and cross-cultural differences. However, applying the tutorial guideline of considering the differences between the native and foreign languages in the proposed approach differs from the traditional realization to a significant extent.

We suggest making a comparison not between the systems of the two languages but between the peculiarities of their functioning. In order to demonstrate the differences in using sentence patterns in the native and foreign languages, we suggest comparing the different patterns the languages employ to talk about one and the same type of situation. We state that these differences arise as a result of the different approaches to conceptualising the world and to presenting it in metaphors taken in the two cultures respectively. E.g., EFL learners need to get to know that to give information about someone’s engagement or habit native speakers would use the structure WHO IS WHO, as opposed to the Russian structure WHO LIKES WHAT: Он любит поесть verbatim “He likes to eat” vs. He is a hearty eater. To describe the state of the environment in English, they would use the structure WHAT IS WHAT (WHERE): It’s dark; The house was empty; whereas the corresponding Russian structure is (WHERE) (IS) HOW: Темно verbatim “Dark”; В доме было пусто verbatim “In the house was empty”, etc. The author has tentatively addressed the problem of systematizing such differences (Rakhmankulova 2018); further functional research of English and Russian usage is necessary to single out all the basic syntactically relevant differences; it is essential to work out ways of presenting these differences to EFL learners, to develop a system of exercises to assimilate the structures and to overcome language transfer, and to orchestrate modalities of controlling the established skills.

Considering that specific differences in the usage of syntax patterns of one’s mother tongue and of the foreign language are numerous and cannot be acquired quickly, though a consistent system of exercises is certain to help learners to acquire these skills, we suggest teaching not only to understand some specific differences, but also to comprehend the more general patterns of conceptualizing the world and its representation in the foreign language syntax, as it is the general patterns that shape the usage of various syntactic models. The preliminary data we have collected makes it possible to name a few of such peculiarities: the figure-ground perception of same-type events is different with Russian and English speakers (there’s a difference as to which elements or aspects of a situation Russian and English native speakers concentrate on): cf. Он умер verbatim “He has died” vs. He’s dead; Я вернусь verbatim “I will return” vs. I’ll be back; Прогремел взрыв verbatim “Thundered an explosion” vs. There was an explosion; and such. There are differences in perceiving the relative significance of certain elements speakers concentrate on; differences in conceptualizing certain elements of same-type events in metaphors, etc.: cf. У них разбило окно verbatim “At / by them a window is broken” vs. They got a window broken; Она его поцеловала verbatim “She kissed him” vs. She gave him a kiss; and such. Studying the usage with
the help of the comparative linguistics apparatus (methods of conceptual analysis) will make it possible to summarize the conceptual differences.

Concurrently, while teaching learners to construct an utterance in accordance with the correct sentence pattern, it is suggested to explain to them the social and cultural and pragmatic factors that give rise to the choice of a particular model, the specific peculiarities of the conceptual content of a unit, especially of idiomatic expressions that fill the sentence pattern. It is essential to have learners understand the restrictions of using some units within certain constructions or in specific grammar forms, that are linked, on the one hand, to the distinctness of the mental images that native speakers associate with the unit, that is to the peculiarities of the metaphoric conceptualization of the world, and on the other hand, to the logic of reality itself. For instance, in order to learn to use a syntactic model with two objects, students need to remember that the model WHO GIVES WHOM WHAT (She gave him a kiss) in its metaphoric projection is used in situations of informal communication in utterances about an action aimed at an animated object, because in reality things can be GIVEN only to such an object.

Therefore, the proposed approach, as opposed to the traditional methods of teaching grammar, is based on a new model of teaching syntax that implies simulating the process of conceptualizing the world by learners and aims at learners’ forming syntactically represented concepts, including metaphoric concepts, and the idea of the way the concepts get represented in speech before actually using them in speech. Establishing stable links, with the help of a system of language and speech exercises, between the type of situation and the corresponding cognitive model, the propositional model and the syntactic model of a foreign language, will apparently help to neutralize language transfer and have a FL student code the sense of their future utterance using the syntactic means of the FL as directly based on the universal objective code. Through this process, language transfer can be done away with, as it manifests itself not only in bad speech mistakes but also in poor authenticity of non-native speech; this will make learners’ non-native speech more natural in general.

This approach has been tentatively applied in 2019 and 2020 to EFL teaching at the Linguistics University of Nizhniy Novgorod with the total of 60 EFL students involved. Some positive feedback has been gathered which implies potential for developing it in the future, its wider implementation and thorough assessment.

**Methodology**

**Methods Used to Design the Approach**

We first offered a description of the main propositional schemas represented by the English simple sentence. The sentence patterns were singled out, on the one hand, on the basis of analysing the valence models of English verbs that denominate basic, prototypic relationships (taking into account their etymologic characteristics), and on the other hand, by consecutive elimination of both informatively and grammatically irrelevant elements of an utterance.

The described procedure presupposes analysing a sampling of utterances. With the help of the continuous sampling method, we selected simple, nonelliptical, autonomous
utterances with neutral word order, independent of the context or situation, from fiction books, journalistic texts, texts of different genres published on the Internet, the illustrative material of English dictionaries and the English language corpuses (British National Corpus (BNC), Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)).

The selected utterances were gradually reduced to simpler structures: parenthetic words and constructions, interjections, direct addresses, detached secondary parts of a sentence, and qualifying parts of a sentence, i.e. parts of a sentence that are detached with the help of punctuation marks, were omitted. Homogeneous secondary parts of a sentence were viewed as a means of expressing one and the same syntactic position, and attributes within simple sentences were viewed as one nominative group with the attributed word, a group that takes one syntactic position.

The analysis of utterances based on one sentence pattern and having different lexical scopes, lexico-grammatical and grammatical layouts but informing of one and the same type of situation makes it possible to unravel the web of concepts that are conveyed by the components of the structural model, and to formulate the type of proposition formed by these concepts. For every sentence model the proposition is formulated, in its broadest expression, on the basis of the distinctive features that remain unchanged in every realization of this proposition in different contexts. Elements of the proposition are detailed when this given proposition gets realized in an utterance; cf.: WHO GOES WHERE. – He walked to the door; The river flows into the sea; etc.

Only elements reflecting the necessary participants of a situation (i.e. the minimum of participants that are absolutely necessary for an extralinguistic situation of a certain type to exist) were included into the structure of a proposition, and its metalinguistic representation. To wit, for a situation describing the location of an object, the necessary participants are an object and some spatial reference (WHAT IS WHERE); a situation of passing an object imminently requires a subject who passes an object, the object itself and the addressee who receives the object (WHO GIVES WHOM WHAT).

Optional participants of a situation (participants whose presence is unnecessary to refer the situation to a certain type) are not reflected in elements of a proposition. E.g., in any situation of physical impact, the necessary participants are a subject (the one who makes the action) and an object that the subject works on. An optional participant can be a tool or a means of performing the action, but the presence of such a tool is not obligatory for any situation of making an impact, and the presence of such a participant is not obligatory to identify the given piece of reality as a situation of making an impact. This is why a tool is not reflected as an element of the modular proposition structure and its metalinguistic schema.

Further, types of situations that get structured in accordance with every English proposition schema were analysed; and we performed a comparative study of syntactic representations of same-type situations under same social and cultural, pragmatic and other terms in Russian and English.
Utterances about same-type situations built according to different sentence models underwent concept analysis for revealing the differences in interpreting and structuring reality by native speakers of different languages, the differences that had led to the dissimilarities in using sentence models. To reveal the similarities and dissimilarities in linguistic-cultural, social and cultural, and pragmatic aspects of picking the sentence model, the methods of comparative and contrastive analysis, the method of contextual analysis, and the method of conceptual modelling were employed.

Methods Used to Implement the Approach and Collect Feedback
The system of nine propositional schemas represented by sentence patterns was described in simple terms in a book of reference materials and exercises in building an English utterance that was then used in class and for students’ homework. 60 third-year students of Nizhny Novgorod Linguistics University, School of Translation and Interpreting (about 30 students in 2019 and about 30 students in 2020) aged 19–20 received a CL grammar instruction. The participants had been learning English as a second foreign language at the University for at least three semesters by that time (by September 2019 and by September 2020). Some of them had had high school training in English. The students majored in French and German and were supposed to be in pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of English. Naturally, the students’ individual strengths and limitations varied. All the students tended to make mistakes in structuring the utterance, i.e. in choosing the correct sentence pattern to speak about certain types of situations. The mistakes did not necessarily manifest themselves in breaking grammar rules of the English language or in communicative failures though occasionally they did. By the moment the approach was administered, the students had acquired certain grammar competence. Yet, the students tended to deviate from or ignore the speech patterns commonly used by English speakers. In other words, to make a statement in English they tended to choose the wrong sentence patterns and to avoid certain patterns under the influence of the native language usage. As a result, their speech lacked authenticity. Besides, the students found it difficult to pick a pattern to speak about some situations that had been obviously less frequently addressed in their speech practice. For example, they didn’t know how to structure a statement referring to a source of written information like *It says on my CV; The sign reads ‘No smoking’, etc. (The suggested variants were *It is said in my CV; *It is written on the sign).

The FonF (focus on form) principle (see Robinson and Ellis, 2008, p. 7) and elements of the traditional PPP (presentation-practice-production) lesson format were used for class and self-study materials but the PPP structure was applied not to a grammar unit but to a certain content (function) – a certain propositional schema structuring reality for speakers of English non-metaphorically and metaphorically (cf.: (“WHO IS WHERE”) He is in the garden. – He is in panic). The exercises were aimed at both deductive and inductive ways of understanding the functions of propositions. In the latter case, students were, for example, asked to single out the propositions of the utterance and explain what type of situation the utterance
reflects, to explain the differences between utterances about the same piece of reality that contain different propositions and therefore are syntactically different, etc.

The aim of the book as well as of the teaching approach it relied on was not only to give students a tool for building an utterance but also to prevent the negative effects of the Russian language transfer. Therefore, the students were also supplied with a description of major differences in the usage of Russian and English simple sentence patterns – a description of major types of situations and the differences in sentence patterns (proposition schemas) employed to structure utterances about a certain situation in Russian and in English. The differences in patterns used to represent the basic types of situations were summarized in a detailed table with examples from Russian and English. For a sample of this material, refer to table 1. Note that in the original table all the explanations were given in Russian.

Table 1. Differences in structuring the same type of situation (fragment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Russian Pattern</th>
<th>English Sentence Pattern</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Someone does a job, a hobby, typically acts in a certain way or performs an action in a certain manner</td>
<td>НЕКТО ДЕЛАЕТ ЧТО-ТО (КАК-ТО)</td>
<td>WHO IS WHAT</td>
<td>The adverb in the Russian pattern corresponds to the adjective or the English pronoun such, some, no preceding the predicate noun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Я преподаю в университете.</td>
<td>I am a university professor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Она часто ходит в театр.</td>
<td>She is a real theatre goer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Она много курит.</td>
<td>He is a bad smoker.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Она все время опаздывает!</td>
<td>She is such a latecomer!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Мы любим спать в обнимку.</td>
<td>We are cuddly sleepers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Я очень люблю волейбол.</td>
<td>I am a big fan of volleyball.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Она хорошо танцует.</td>
<td>She was a good / some dancer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Он очень плохо поет.</td>
<td>He is no singer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

The table was followed by a set of exercises aimed at developing the students’ ability to overcome the effects of their native language. There were several major types of exercises: “Say which pattern is used in these English statements”, “Use pattern N to say these statements in English”, “Use the appropriate pattern to say these statements in English”, “Compare the kinds of patterns used in these Russian and English statements,” etc.

The differences between the languages were constantly referred to in class, brought into focus when analysing authentic texts, audio and video content used in class, samples of students’ speech, etc. These differences were explained by the differences in the way Russian and English speakers perceive and conceptualize reality. Differences in conceptual metaphors underlying language signs were also considered.
To facilitate students’ interest, the material of the exercises referred to current issues, popular memes, songs, etc. Only authentic examples were offered in the book. The syntactic authenticity or inauthenticity of an utterance in English (a language foreign to the researcher) was defined with the help of the following test: the online search was employed to check whether utterances of the given structure, with identical or differing lexical scope but necessarily linked to same-type situations and belonging to the same type of discourse, were present in the English language corpuses and texts found on the Internet. Only texts by native speakers were taken into account. In addition, native speakers (both British and American) were interrogated in interpersonal communication and with the help of language message boards on the Internet (such as the message board of WordReference.com, the question-and-answer website Quora.com); the definition was also based on the author’s subjective long-term experience of mastering the English language.

Several groups of students (with 12-18 students in each) were trained by the author of the approach for 2 months during their university English classes two times a week. Each class lasted for 1.5 hours but was supposed to include many other activities according to the curriculum, though learning grammar was invariably one of them and took at least half of the time. Besides, whenever there was need to correct mistakes and explain usage of English syntax, we applied the approach. Throughout the instruction period we collected feedback (students’ comments) to reveal the students’ subjective evaluation of learning English syntax under the proposed approach. We also used informal oral interviews asking the students to express their attitude to the way of learning English syntax they were using at the moment, to compare it with the way they had employed to study English previously, to point out the advantages and disadvantages if any) of the current way of learning, to give their ideas on how to improve the learning process, etc. The answers served to express individual general evaluation of the teaching model being implemented and the reasons for this evaluation, on the one hand, and to reveal sensitive issues and issues to be further investigated, on the other hand.

A reassuring result was that the feedback appeared to be almost unanimously positive.

Findings and Preliminary Results
The linguistic results of the study have been summarized in a doctoral thesis (Kuzmina 2015) where a description of nine basic propositions and thus nine English simple sentence patterns having certain meanings was proposed. The study also revealed the metaphoric extensions of these patterns (Kuzmina 2013; 2015). A survey of differences in structuring the same types of situations in Russian and English was offered in Rakhmankulova 2018.

A CL approach to teaching syntax has been proposed. The approach relies on the ability of syntactic units to represent propositional concepts and on the mechanisms of reality representation in the syntax of a language, in particular the conceptual metaphor mechanism. Mastering syntax is viewed as understanding the propositional models of a foreign language fixed in the sentence patterns of this language and employed as models of structuring fragments of reality. The following major principles of using the obtained
linguistic data in teaching syntax have been worked out: use of a simple metalanguage based on the learners’ native language (the propositions to be studied are put in non-terminological Russian words); learning models of basic situations (prototypical situations) as a primary need and then understanding the ways of their metaphoric transfer onto various other types of situations; relying on conceptual similarities between the languages (welcoming positive language transfer) and keeping in mind the differences in Russian and English syntax; considering syntax differences across the languages as differences in the “on-line” choice of patterns for utterances about the same fragment of reality; finding the explanation for cross-language structural differences in the difference of concepts of reality; use of the knowledge of sentence models in both production and comprehension of speech and in both oral and written practice. A book relying on these principles and containing the reference material and a set of exercises (Rakhmankulova 2018) helped to start implementing the approach in an EFL classroom.

**Discussion**

According to the students’ comments the large majority of the participants felt positive about learning within the approach. The students seemed to have become more motivated to learn English. We received several comments from students of each group implying the interest that a CL explanation of language phenomena arouses: “This way of learning English grammar is more interesting to me than the traditional grammar book instruction”, “It is more interesting to learn English grammar this way than the way I used to do it” and the like. One of the students stated that she was surprised at the relative simplicity of tackling language phenomena in class and that she “definitely liked this”. Moreover, some participants stated that their interest started growing when they came to realise why the sentence patterns employed in Russian and in English to structure utterances about the same situation type were different. The participants remarked that it was new for them to see the differences in viewing reality between Russian and English language speakers; they had been unaware of such differences before the approach was implemented. One of the students said she “now understood English better”.

Thus, the approach seems to have increased the students’ motivation, or, we might say, the students’ cognitive empathy level, for they gained a better understanding of how an utterance is built, what mechanisms are employed, why a certain pattern is used. These findings are in line with the ones described in papers on the use of cognitive linguistics in an EFL classroom while teaching grammar, i.e. the use of the article, the tenses, modal and phrasal verbs (see Yasuda, 2010; Tyler, Mueller, Ho, 2011; Kravchenko, 2013; Chang, 2016). They also square well with the many claims that explicit grammar instruction appears to be indispensable for developing students’ competences (see, for example: Llopis-Garsia, 2016).

Furthermore, several participants reported having less difficulty following the right word order in their English utterances (especially in statements about object motion (WHO GOES WHERE), object transfer (WHO GIVES WHOM WHAT)). A participant also mentioned having less difficulty in starting an utterance – finding the element of the situation to be represented by the subject of the sentence. Another participant mentioned that he had started using the construction *There is / are* ... (whose semantic
counterpart in Russian has a strikingly different structure) properly and more frequently than he used to. A participant, whose language skills and overall performance in language classes is above the group, claimed that she had managed “to make her English speech a little more authentic, somewhat less Russian-like”. In her opinion, this was accounted for by explicit attention to differences in structuring the same type of situation in Russian and in English.

Yet some of the participants indicated certain challenges of this mode of learning syntax. A participant pointed out lack of graphical representations of the material studied, which would have been helpful. Two participants mentioned difficulties in understanding the differences between Russian and English patterns for the same fragment of reality. According to them, understanding conceptual differences required abstract, higher-order thinking and thus quite a lot of effort.

Thus, there are certain sensitive issues in using the proposed CL approach in classrooms. And an obvious one is how well the implemented CL approach deals with students’ individual learning preferences or cognitive styles (global, “gestalt” type or analytical one; visual or auditory one; etc.). The feedback suggests that the students felt quite comfortable with the grammar instruction offered. However, the difficulties they reported might have been caused by the characteristics of their learning patterns. We presume the CL approach to syntax aligns better with analytical thinking but this has yet to be studied; further studies may reveal a correlation between a student’s cognitive style and effects of using the approach in the classroom. We will also need to carry out experiments to objectively assess the effects of the CL approach on students’ foreign language competence.

One might assume that doing such an experiment in class will be linked to a number of problems. In particular, if one bases one’s experiment on one’s classes in a higher educational establishment, it’s problematic to select the experimental and the control groups equal as to the basic parameters, first of all, the grammar skills in FL speech, the individual capacity to master a FL, the motivation, the attitude to studying at the higher educational establishment, the attitude to the teacher who’s doing the experiment, etc. It is indispensable to have a large sampling. In the event that the entry assessment of the examinees, with the help of specifically designed tests aimed at evaluating the skills of using English syntax, testify to the fact that the grammar skills in FL speech are not equal, and in the event that observance and interviews reveal significant psychological dissimilarities of certain examinees, it is suggested that large groups of students are involved in the experiment to make it representative so that one can disregard individual differences. Simultaneously, a series of point-of-care experiments is planned in order to evaluate the effectiveness of learning certain syntactic phenomena that are absolutely unknown to the examinees, as interviews and tests have revealed, in accordance with the offered approach.

**Conclusions**
The tentative implementation of the proposed CL approach to teaching syntax seems to have been positively received by students. The preliminary results suggest that it might have a number of positive effects on motivation and students’ performance, some
sensitive issues notwithstanding, which makes it possible to continue the research. An experiment needs to be designed to find out to what extent exactly the approach helps diminish native language interference in syntax and acquire better grammar skills. If the experimental results prove to be fruitful, this will hopefully eventually allow to develop the principles and techniques of teaching foreign syntax effectively by integrating achievements of both didactics and modern theoretical linguistics and supply basis for a new approach to EFL grammar instruction in a Russian classroom.

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REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON COHERENCE AND COHESION IN TEXT QUALITY AMONG ESL STUDENTS
Ivy Jones-Mensah
University of Professional Studies, Acra & University of Education, Winneba, Ghana
ivyjones2009@yahoo.com

Michael Owusu Tabiri
Ghana Communication Technology University & University of Education, Winneba, Ghana
mtabiri@gtuc.edu.gh

Abstract
Coherence in written text is a complex concept; it involves a multitude of readers and text-based features. Thus, in language acquisition, testing and discourse competence requires communicative competence. The objective of this article is to explore coherence and cohesion in academic writing, with a particular emphasis on the use of cohesive devices, especially among ESL students. Thus, the emphasis is on the levels of skills relevant for using cohesive devices and the skills needed for using the devices in creating consistency in the text. Therefore, the article reviews current literature on coherence, defines coherence and cohesion in broad terms, and presents a three-lesson revision unit based on modern coherence principles. Conclusions are drawn about the success of this revision technique and the necessity for providing sequential exercises to improve communicative competence among ESL students. Finally, the relationship between the terms revealed that these are the connection and organisation of ideas in the sentences of the text to create a sense of unity between the topics discussed in the text.

Keywords: Coherence, Cohesive, Language Skills, Language Acquisition, Text Linguistics

Introduction
Language acquisition and testing, discourse competence could be defined within theoretical models of communicative competence in areas of second language (Bachman 1990; Jasone, Hufeisen, and Jessner 2001). Notwithstanding evident definitional and terminological differences, coherence and cohesion, which has significant influence on overall quality of writing has been the subject of research (Dastjerdi and Talebinezhad 2006; Chang 2003; Palmer 1999). The term cohesion could be defined as one of the properties of a text and it is also the appropriateness of selecting and using cohesive devices in a coherent manner to enforce the requirements under which writing is done. It is also the text connectedness in writing patterns (Senoz, 2005). According to Karadeniz (2017) citing Senoz (2005), “while other disciplines are primarily interested in the content of the texts, information provided by the texts, the delivery style of the text and the impact of the text, text linguists are interested in the
rules influencing the production of the text itself, production of the texts and their communicative functions” in which the connectedness is achieved. This achievement of connectedness is in terms of the use of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and even lexical words (Onursal (2003) and Balci (2009). Thus, connectedness holds relations among words sentences and paragraphs in a text.

**Literature Review**

According to Diliduzgun (2013), authoring a text based on text structure, separation of text structures, identification of the elements of cohesion in the test structure and finding the elements of coherence in the text, provide better understanding and interpretation of the text. Further, Diliduzgun (2013), posits that the purpose of reading a text, taking note of the text structure should not be limited to the reading and understanding or identifying how the text is written but the text should be read and explained by analyzing it in terms of purpose, viewpoint, plan, integrity and its consistency.

Diliduzgun (2013) and Karadeniz, (2017) continued that in writing, how the elements of cohesion and coherence affect the writing quality and how the students are able to demonstrate the ability to use the tools of cohesion to improve the qualities of a good text are the important issues. They revealed that Students must know where to start the writing process, what to do at each stage of the writing process and what is expected of them when writing texts (Diliduzgun, 2013, Karadeniz, 2017).

To another pair of scholars, writing starts as structured information in the mind even before the writer starts the process of writing, so, it is necessary for students to understand what they hear and read, so as to structure the information in their minds before writing begins (Akdal and Sahin, 2014). The debate of writing in the mind before the writing process arose the text linguists interest to begin text linguistics. Text linguistics arises as a new qualitative method being used in designing both what is written and what is read. It is designed in such a way that the texts present a structural integrity that can be systematized in minds.

Thus, academic or writing at the tertiary level aim at providing the ability to express emotions and ideas properly (Yildirim and Simsek, 2013). With applied studies, writing usually involve grammatical errors in ESL student essays; ambiguities in their written expressions and problems in their structural qualities. Thus, problems with intra-textual qualities are their concern. Applied studies rarely focus on intra-textual connections, transitions, formation of text elements. Topic flow within the text and the text structures that form the basis of text composition is also a problem identified by scholars in ESL writing.

Other researchers, Yang and Sun (2012) have taken this into account and have focused on studying the structural elements that form the text in the light of text linguistics. Yang and Sun (2012) investigated the correlation between students’ use of “tools of cohesion” in their writing and in how they form a coherent text (Can, 2012; Karatay, 2010; Coskun, 2005; Ramadan, 2003; Bae, 2001). It was evident from the searches
that students do consider how the writing tools form a coherent text. They are only interested in selecting the writing tool; cohesive devices, whether it makes the text coherent or not is not much attended to Kuzu (2016) emphasises different theories and methods for analyzing the correlation between different kinds of texts. One of these methods is the new approach, text linguistics; this new approach evaluates a text based on its structural and semantic integrity and tries to understand the basic elements of the text based on evaluation. Further, the new approach reveals the connection and relationship between the semantic groups within the text of the ESL students (Aytaş, 2008; Dornyei, and Ryan 2010; Herschensohn and Young-Scholten 2013).

Research Question
The research Questions that underpin this article are
- to explores coherence and cohesion in academic writing, with a particular emphasis on the use of cohesive devices, especially among ESL students.
- to identify skills that literature has stipulated as relevant for using cohesive devices in creating consistency in the text.

Article Structure
The structure of this article includes examining cohesion as text property, organising types of cohesion, distinguishing between cohesive and coherence and investigating literature for the disparity in the meaning of the two terms.

Cohesion as Text Property
One of the text properties is cohesion (Berzlánovich 2008) which contributes to the organisation of a text. It is the degree to which parts of sentences are put together. It is the suitability and appropriateness of selecting and using words in a coherent manner to enforce the requirements under which one must write (Hyland 2004). While Halliday and Hassan (1976) mentioned that the interconnectedness of elements in a text is cohesion, Sanders and Matt (2006) defined cohesion as the semantic relations between the components in the text. These components are very crucial to the interpretation of that text.

Cohesion is the text connectedness in writing patterns in terms of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical word (Halliday and Hasan 1976). Sanders and Sander and Matt (2006: 72) also defined cohesion as linguistics work on “the discourse patterns (writing) to characterize connectedness”. While Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify cohesion to be elements of the text Sanders and Matt (2006) characterised cohesion as a random set of utterances that are patterned in the negotiation process to make a complete thought. Bowker (2007) also defined cohesion as the reliance of part of one element to another. From all these definitions, cohesion is the general focus of binding items in the overall structure of an essay such that there will be a link between words, sentences and paragraphs.

Types of Cohesion
The categories of cohesion some scholars identified are reference pronominal, demonstratives, comparatives, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctives additives, temporal
elements, synonyms and homonyms (Adika and Borti 2015; Bowker 2007; Cooper 1988). Each of these categories of cohesion can be sub-categorised. For example, conjunctive additive can be sub-categorised into adverbs of condition, minimal links and relations. They explained that “the interpretation of these categories among the ESL students depend on some elements in the discourse which are dependent on that of another” (13). These types of elements are the cohesive devices such as reference pronominal, demonstratives, comparatives, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctives additives. These are the devices the writer selects and uses to create cohesion in a text (Bowker, 2007). It means that cohesion is a system of textual cues placed in the short-term memory which activates the relation between text during the writing process.

Adika and Borti (2015) in another dimension discussed the types of cohesion used among undergraduate ESL students in the University of Ghana. It is the range and frequency of conjunctive adjuncts in the writing of ESL writers. They mention that in terms of using the range of frequency of conjunctive adjuncts among University students in Ghana, the teaching of cohesion and coherence in English deserves more attention” because the ESL students use limited cohesive devices (Adika and Borti 2015) and limit their understanding of cohesion and coherence to using cohesive devices. They identified further that some conjunctives, such as the usage of “conversely” and “whereas” have limited occurrences in the ESL students’ essays. They also mentioned that there are cases of misuse of other cohesive devices such as ‘this’ and ‘that’ among the ESL students. For example, they mention that the students limit cohesive devices to conjunctives only, neglecting other forms.

Cohesive
The use of cohesive in linking sentences within paragraphs has been thoroughly explored in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, starting with the standard text by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Flower and Hays (1981) also studied the use of cohesive devices in students writing and mentioned that the ESL student puts cohesive ties into his writing as cues but not to create cohesion. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggested that the reader uses the cohesive cues to build coherent thoughts in the text. However, insufficient attention has been given, in my view, to the use of cohesive features between paragraphs, specifically to determine paragraph boundaries among ESL undergraduate students in Ghana.

Coherence
In Cooper’s work ‘Enhancing Coherence through Cohesiveness”, he stipulated that the new notion of coherence integrates earlier text-centred notions and more recent process-centred notions of discourse by including both the reader’s cognitive processes and the writer’s cuing system (Phelps · 1985, Cooper 1988, Lorch 2089, Deane et. al. 2008 and Wang 2014). Coherence is the connection and organisation of ideas in a text to create unity. If the reader and the writer’s cognitive process and cuing system break, then there would not be any interconnectedness between elements in the texts.

This interconnectedness is what (Cooper 1988) referred to as the sense of unity between thesis statements and topic sentences. In Cooper (1988), for a text to be coherent, then
the definition of coherence is more reader based. Coherence is a mental relation; it is ultimately the cognitive relation the writer demonstrates in his work. For a text to show coherence, cognitive relation must be demonstrated in the writing. This mental relation is shown in two linguistic properties such as the content of the text and the relations that exist between the discourse of the text (Sanders, Spooren, and Noordman, 1992).

**Relationship between Cohesion, Coherence, and Cohesive**

Halliday and Hasan (1976:4), and Patterson & Weideman (2013:7) stipulated the text connectedness in writing patterns as the use of techniques in terms of making terms reference, substitution, ellipsis, use of conjunctions, and the use of lexical items. They explained further that “the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another” (13). The reliance of one part of element to another in discourse is cohesion (Bowker, 2007). While cohesion is the process of achieving connectedness in a text cohesive is the techniques employed by the writer to achieve the connectedness. Though cohesion and coherence share the same morpheme “cohe”, these (cohesion and coherence) are two different linguistic terms in discourse analysis (Amari 2015). From the definitions above one would realise that the two terms are defined and classified from various aspects. For example, Halliday and Hasan (1976) mention that the primary determinant of whether sets of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between these sentences (Wang and Guo 2014:3-6). Further that “a text has texture, and this texture is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. The text “derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment.” (Hallday and Hasan, 1976). Also, according to Halliday and Hasan, “The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text.” (Hasan, 1984: 4) Cohesion can hold segments of a text together, making it a semantic edifice. Cohesion is very important in text quality because it generates continuity between one part of the text and another.

Cohesion has an important role to play in the text. When there is cohesive relation between two elements thus between words and sentences, the two elements are thereby integrated into a text. This means that cohesion is one component of textual function, and it is realised by lexical and the grammatical units in a piece of writing. By its role, cohesion provides texture for creating a text and expressing the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another (Lui and Brane 2005). In principle, a text of any length will employ cohesive ties. However, it is not the sufficient condition for a text (Wang and Guo 2014). There are times, sentences are written with well-connected devices, but the text may not be coherent at all. An example of such text is;

Ansah was reading *Daily Graphic*. *Newspapers* published in Ghana usually contain *several* pages. The first page of *this* book was lost. The lost child had been found by a policeman.

Though the piece carries cohesive devices, such as ‘several’, ‘this’ and ‘newspaper’, the structure is not coherent, it only gives the reader information but also presents false impression of a coherent text. This, (Brown and Yule, 1983) referred to as pseudo-
coherence. This points out the fact that a text could be coherent without cohesion. Adam (1997) opined that, though, ESL students use cohesive devices their essays lack cohesion and therefore their essays lack clarity of expression. He explains further that to achieve cohesion words and phrases should guide the reader along, helping the reader to see how one detail leads to the other in the paragraph. This will cause the reader to follow the argument in an orderly manner.

Furthermore, Widdowson (1996) defines cohesion in his analysis of coherence, describing it as “the overt relationship between propositions expressed in sentences”, (28) and then he perceives the text coherency as “the relationship between the illocutionary acts and its propositions. That is, cohesion is not always overtly linked, (Widdowson, 1996:28). “In the case of cohesion, the illocutionary acts from the propositional connections inferred are overtly indicated, but in the case of coherence, we infer the covert propositional connections from an interpretation of the illocutionary acts in the text,” (Widdowson 1996). In the Speech Act Theory, the illocutionary act is succinct such that it provides an interpretation of how some seemingly unconnected utterances are put together in an informal text to as if the text were coherent.

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) show the differences cohesion and coherence and stated in their opinion, that cohesion is the ways in which the components of the surface text are put together, thus the actual words are mutually connected within a sequence”, (De Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:3). Thus, the surface components depend upon each other according to the grammatical forms and conventions. This is the reason De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) consider cohesion as grammatical dependency. But they declare coherence as that which “concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, thus, the configuration of concepts and relations which underline the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant” (De Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 4).

Methodology
The method adopted for investigating this review is the text linguistics. Text linguistics tries to reveal the text’s structure by evaluating the text in terms of what are probably the two most important criteria. The two important criteria in this study are cohesion and coherence. In this method, texts are considered as structures; comprising words, prefixes and suffixes and sentences. These elements come together and complete each other, forming meaningful text, revealing the connection between these prefixes and suffixes, words and phrases as important in order to make a sound interpretation of the text (Karadeniz, 2017).

The connection between the prefixes, suffixes, words, phrases, clauses and sentences is what will be considered as cohesion. In this method, cohesion in a text uses other elements to explain or interpret an element within the text and to make explanations based on these elements. This is what caused Karadeniz (2017) cited Gutwinski (1976) to use the term cohesion to refer to the relationships that exists between the sentences and clauses within the text. Thus, for the purpose of this article, the relations will be considered on the grammatical layers, and point to certain grammatical and lexical qualities, that reflect semiotic discourse structure.
Sampling and Participants
Text sample are randomly selected from the University of Professional Studies, first year students. These students are purposively sampled because during the cause of teaching, we have observed that the students’ writing reveal that they do not distinguish between the terms. More so, these students represent the ESL students in Ghana.

Research Instrument
The study identifies two tools for the classification, relationship between text elements and coherence. First, the tools observed for the study are identifying the semantic relationships between an element and another element that plays an important role in the comprehension of the first element within the text. Witte and Faigley (1981) state two elements that are semantically connected within the same text or from outside of the same text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the tool of cohesion is a concept that is referred to by the semantic relationship within a text and arises when the interpretation of an element in a discourse is dependent on another element. In the literature, there are different opinions on the classification of the tools of cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976); Uzun (1995); Gunay (2001); Onursal (2003) and Balci (2009) classify the tools of cohesion differently. Some articles look at the classification of the tools of cohesion as based on “Cohesion in English” with the tools evaluated under the headings reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion (Hasan 1984; Uzun 1995; Gunay 2001; Onursal 2003 and Balci 2009).

Another element that text linguistics focuses on and accepts as a criterion of a text is coherence. It is what is sought-after in a text rather than cohesion, if the text is found to be incoherent, it is considered inadequate and incomplete text (Aytas, 2008). In a well-prepared text, besides the formal tools of cohesion, semantic coherence should be found. Hence, coherence of the text comprises the comprehensive realization of what is discussed in the text, the text having succeeding statements which are supportive of those preceding, and the text not contradicting itself. A qualitative study, as well as information on the ranges of expert opinions that exists on this topic is included.

Data Collection Procedure
Information is gathered from first-year students’ texts and available literature on the topic to answer the research questions. These were purposively and randomly done. The main aim behind the randomly and purposive sampling of this nature is to ensure sharper and insightful outcome of this study.

Data Analysis
A descriptive analysis is drawn on the texts collected and a thorough search in literature dating from the early time to the 21st century was compared with the findings in the students’ texts. The participants were asked to write an essay as part of their end of semester examination. This essay is an academic essay which forms part of the students’ assessment. The researchers engaged text analysis from the literature gathered to discover the main concerns of scholars about the use of cohesive devices especially among ESL students.
Results
The results indicate that though cohesion is very relevant in texts because it is “the key quality of an effective paragraph” (Wang and Guo 2014), the ESL student frustration is in many cases in his writing to maintain the text relevance. The results also show that a unified paragraph sticks to one topic from the beginning to the end where every sentence in the paragraph contributes to the fundamental purpose and main idea of the paragraph. But most of these first-year students starts with a much unified paragraph from the beginning and only distorts the paragraphing as at when and where they remember new information. They insert new information haphazardly into parts of the paragraphs.

Literature revealed that an effective paragraph is more than just putting loose sentences together in a text. The sentences in every paragraph must be coherent and each paragraph must be attached to the other. Cohesion occurs in a good paragraph when sentences are clearly connected. The clearest connection enables the readers to trail along with understanding, recognising how one detail leads to the next idea. A paragraph with clearly connected sentences is said to be in cohesion, (Wang and Guo 2014). The ESL student lacks the detailing trail due to the habit of inserting information at all times.

There is clear indication that cohesion holds relations among paragraphs in a text. A good paragraph usually in English essays is about one important idea or one main idea. Usually, there should be one sentence in a paragraph that carries the main idea of that paragraph. This sentence is called the topic sentence. Often this topic sentence occurs as the first or the second sentence in the paragraph, but not always. All the other sentences in the paragraph should explain the topic in the paragraph if the rules of cohesion have been observed during the writing and if the appropriate cohesive device has been used (Hassan 1984). In the students’ texts it is obvious that they are aware of the topic sentences but this is only as a result of the Communication Skills courses they took to remind them of the theoretical assumption that a paragraph contains one main topic and that this main topic occurs as initial sentence. They all place the topic as the first sentence but begin to lose control of the paragraph by the time the five sentences in the paragraph are generated.

A close reading of the scripts revealed that out of the 40 scripts 38 scripts indicate that the concept that the paragraph contains a topic sentence which is joined to the major support and minor support sentences were violated. Though these other sentences give details, explain or give examples that support the topic sentences (Jones and Kalbach, 2008: 20), the ESL student forgets to create especially the minor supporting details. Literature implies that a coherent paragraph should be about ‘one idea.’ When a new idea starts, a new paragraph begins.

For example; Dueraman, (2007), Haugnes and Maher (2009) mention that “academic writing is organized into paragraphs – groups of sentences with one main idea. This means that there is cohesion in a paragraph if the paragraph begins with a topic sentence: A sentence that gives the main idea for the writing, followed by sentences which support and give more information about the main idea.
In furtherance, cohesion is the indicator of discourse segmentation and nothing more. Rodgers (1966) refers to cohesion as a situation where paragraphs are marked off for special consideration as stadia of the paragraph, in preference to other stadia, and or other patterns in the same boundary (Rodgers 1966:54). Said (1988:257) similarly concluded that “The rules and formulas that govern cohesion is the paragraphing practices of the professional writers”. He declares the tendency to focus on cohesion in content, rather than the discourse features of the text. He posits that giving attention to a discourse feature rather than content gives rise to texts which are clumsily paragraphed and show poor preparation for the very type of writing they claim to focus on. Lee (2002) observes that for the ESL writers, they do not focus on the issues of cohesion in content unless explicitly instructed.

Discussion
To avoid any confusion about cohesion in text and discourse, Mann and Thompson (1987), reveal, “the idea that text and discourse are two different expressions” (Wang and Guo 2014:1). Again Wang and Guo (2014) reveal that discourse in a text is a coherent combination of sentences or sentence fragments that becomes the result of communication while a text according to Mann and Thompson (1987), the discourse in a text is composed of several functional chunks (cohesive devices) at various levels. Each of the functional chunk may be divided into smaller ones so as to form the basic functional structure of the text. For the ESL student to identify and acquire the skill of writing coherently, constant practice and instructor feedback on the essays is very crucial for developing the skill.

It is also important to create the awareness in the ESL student to identify the distinction between discourse from a text. Wang and Guo (2014) posit that what distinguishes a discourse from text becomes that of quantity, in that, discourse is much more complex than text because, text is heavily reliant on cohesion. Therefore, the focus of attention in discourse analysis has shifted from its grammaticality to cohesion in text called ‘textuality’, a term proposed by (Halliday and Hasan 1976). Hence, the call for the specification of various types of cohesive devices, which are the most important sources for a piece of a text.

According to Mann and Thompson (1987), and Wang and Guo (2014) a text is composed of several useful portions; each of the various portions can be divided into smaller units so as to form the basic functional structure of a bigger text. Moreover, “each functional chunk has its own special function” Wang and Guo (2014: 2-6), each functional chunk is represented in different linguistic relations. It is obvious that each chunk reflects the inner functional structure of the whole text and shows the subjective linguistic arrangement of the author. It very important to help the ESL student to identify that the linguistic structure forms a unity in the text. The unity is realized by the structure of the text. If smaller chunks at lower level cannot form a united structure, the text is thus incoherent.
Conclusion
In conclusion, there are different schools of thought on the terms. The term cohesion, coherence and cohesive are not the same, something that the ESL student has not paid much attention to. Cohesion is a broader term which means the verbal relatedness of a text which enable one to hold segments of the text together semantically, such that there will be the continuity of expression between parts of the text. But the connection and organisation of ideas in the sentences of the text to create a sense of unity between the topics discussed in the text is coherence. Cohesive is the features between the paragraphs and the sentences to mark the boundaries of the text. For cohesion to be achieved, cohesive must be used in a coherent manner. It is clear that cohesion is relevant to a text while coherence is relevant to discourse.

Acknowledgements
We are most grateful to Dr. Charlotte Fofo Lomotey of the University of Education, Winneba, who initiated the idea of writing this review.

References


CONTEMPORARY EFL IMPLEMENTATIONS IN TURKEY
İsmail Hakki Mirici
Hacettepe University, Turkey
hakkimirici@gmail.com

Abstract
Due to socio-economic reasons as well as developments in transportation and technology, importance of being competent in English, as the most commonly used lingua franca, has become a natural requirement. English language proficiency is now perquisite in most of the area in our social life, from career planning to pursuing post graduate education. Consequently, private sector in education, aim at offering the best English language facilities at their capacity in order to attract more students. Some of these institutions are schools some are higher education institutions. Especially, schools are in serious and multidimensional-multinational search for the best educational practices in teaching English as an additional language. Among FLES, FLEX and IMMERSON models, they prefer to offer DUAL IMMERSION (BILINGUAL) English language program in their system. In addition, the language education policy in Europe has been adopted and the related documents are utilized. This study, which is based on the critical reflection research methodology focuses on common EFL practices in public and private schools in Turkey.

Keywords: Teaching English, contemporary education, foreign language education models, European policy, EFL implementations in Turkey.

Introduction
English language has a global power of as a means of communication since it is the most commonly used lingua franca, and the only international language, globally. In many national and international contexts English language proficiency is a perquisite in many areas of social life; from career planning to pursuing post graduate education. Especially for those who are from developing countries, English language competence opens doors to better job opportunities, international networking, accessing variety of sources and information, a feeling of global citizenship and self-confidence in international contexts, opportunities to make search about anything someone needs to find out, etc.

Neoliberal Economy and English Language Education in Turkey
In many areas of socio-economic life, Neoliberal policies have considerable influence on individuals’ decisions, plans, and practices (Connell and Dados, 201). Likewise, governments may feel the need of introducing some incentives, such as tax reductions or presenting alternative educational solutions to parents about selecting public or private schools for their children. Consequently, harsh competition in the education sector and in the free market economy has forced school owners to reconsider the requirements for a successful foreign language education in their schools (Beckert, 2020).
Both in state schools and in private sector in Turkey, English language education has been actualized based on the principles of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages-CEFR (CoE, 2001; Mirici, 2015). The study aimed to find out the answer to the research question “What are the contemporary EFL implementations in Turkey?”

**Method of the study**
The study adopted the critical reflection research methodology, which is based on the process of learning from experience to be able to improve practice (Morley, 2008; Fook and Gardner, 2007). Critical reflection is utilized in order to better understand a main issue (Hickson, 2013). The results of the study comprised the opinions of the researcher as the reflections of findings based on some documents and personal observations.

**Results and Discussion**
Both state and private systems of education in Turkey adopts EFL procedures that utilize the CEFR as the reference document. Accordingly, learner autonomy, self-assessment, and learner autonomy are the main EFL principles implemented via an Action Oriented Approach both inside and outside of the classroom setting in a lifelong and life-wide perspective (Mirici, 2015).

The EFL programs are designed in accordance with FLEX, FLES, or IMMERSION models depending on the schooling model. FLEX and FLES are used mainly in public schools whereas private sector prefers the IMMERSION model of foreign language education. In state schools FLEX model is utilized for young learners, and FLES is adopted in lower and upper secondary education. Most private schools implement DUAL IMMERSION (BILINGUAL) English language program in their system.

**Immersion Programs**
Students are provided with opportunities and facilities to use the target language in the school premises. In this system the target language is not a lesson but a vehicle for communication. Meanwhile their target language is not neglected (Lipton, 1999). In the private schools in Turkey, in immersion programs all courses other than their native language are taught either bilingually (mother tongue plus target language) or only in the target language. The purpose is to provide an effective language education, fostering both acquisition and learning at the same time without disturbing their native language education and their competences in L1.

**The System Adopted**
The system is based on the CEFR and the use of the European Language Portfolio (ELP) is required as a self-assessment tool. In many schools, due to teachers’ lack of information or their resistance to change some other self-assessment tools are generated without any ground of educational sciences or EFL theories.

The ELP, as a self-assessment, recording and reporting tool, comprises 3 components. They are Language Biography, Language Passport and the Dossier, each of which aims to promote learner autonomy, self-assessment, and cultural diversity as the CEFR principles (CoE, 2020).
Since the foreign language education policy in Turkey is aligned to the European policy, in the foreign language teacher education it is expected to use the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages- EPOSTL. The EPOSTL covers 3 main parts, namely; Personal Statement, Self- assessment and dossier, and is composed of 193 descriptors in 7 categories as follows (Newby, 2007):

- Context
- Methodology
- Resources
- Lesson Planning
- Conducting a Lesson
- Independent Learning
- Assessment of Learning

Likewise, it is expected that the European Profile for Language Teachers Education-EPFLTE is considered in planning and designing the curricula in a Foreign Language Teacher Education Department in any university in Turkey. The EPFLTE is made up of 4 sections; Structure, Knowledge and Understanding, Strategies and Skills, and Values covering 4 items of description (Kelly and Grendfel, 2004).

In addition, the document, “the European Profiling Grid” as the main source of the related documents, provides some valuable input to the descriptors in the self-assessment for teachers in service and covers 4 key areas as follows (European Commission, 2011):

- Qualifications, teacher training, and experience
- Core competences:
  - methodology – knowledge & skills
  - lesson and course planning
  - interaction with and monitoring of learners
  - assessment
- ‘Enabling skills’, such as language awareness, intercultural competence and the ability to use digital media.
- Professionalism

The Europass, as the common document that serves to confirm and report personal professional and language competences through European standards, is composed of mainly 3 parts; Europass CV, Europass language Passport, Certificates & Diplomas and the supplements (European Union, 2020). However, when the implementations are analyzed, it is seen that in the public schools governed by the Ministry of Education, Turkey, the CEFR is adopted only as a descriptive tool utilized to grade language proficiency levels and to label the course books only. None of the CEFR principles is put in to practice in any EFL setting. In the majority of private schools, the CEFR is adopted both as a descriptive and as an educational document. In those schools, learner autonomy, self-assessment and cultural diversity are implemented but without the use of the ELP. In teacher education programs, neither the EPOSTL nor the EPFLTE is in use, or the European Profiling Grid is made use of for determining teacher’s qualification levels.
Conclusion and Suggestions
In Turkey, contemporary EFL practices are implemented in the private schools due to demanding school administration influenced by Neoliberal policy and free market economy, only with some missing documents due to teachers’ resistance to change. In the public schools, it is not possible to see the traces of contemporary EFL implementations.

The Ministry of Education, Turkey urgently needs to take necessary precautions for a true contemporary foreign language education. The system requires the use of all documents and practices in every dimension of foreign language education, from teaching-learning-assessment to pre-service and in-service teacher education. There is no need to discover America again, all the documents are there and every essential academic support is in the academia of our universities.

References
EXPLANATORY ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION: STUDY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ PERSPECTIVES ON TUTORS PROGRAM IN MAURITANIA

Mohamed Leghdaf Abdellahi, Francis Stonier, & Endale Tadesse
Faculty of Education, Southwest University, China
leghdafmohamed@yahoo.com

Abstract
The study aimed to assess pre-service teachers’ perspectives regarding the student-teachers tutoring program. The study was conducted based on data explicates the situation of education in Mauritania. The data shows that students are performing low in school-based secondary national exams (BEC & NBC). Several studies indicated that teachers’ practices have a significant influence on students' academic performance. Therefore, Explanatory assessment was employed to study perspectives of pre-service teachers on their tutoring program. Data collected from 102 participants through a survey questionnaire and structured interviews. The findings of the study indicated that participants consider theoretical courses and practicum training are both adorable. However, the study found that participants' notion of practicum training was much favorable than the theoretical course of the training program. Also, the study found that participants have a fair perception of mentors and administration support. Yet, teacher education colleges need to adjust levels of the tutoring program to ensure the quality of the training for the development of student-teachers skills and teaching competencies.

Keywords: assessment, teacher education, tutoring program, per-service teachers.

Introduction
Enhancing pre-service education becomes a central aspect of education quality in the twenty-first century. Since education is an energetic process, teacher education is also dynamic and impacted by the needs and changes of the community (Momanyi, 2016). Maintaining Education quality is an essential element to improve students’ learning and their academic achievement while teachers are in charge to elaborate teaching methodology to fulfill students’ needs (Cawelti, 2006). Because teachers are the mainstay of any education system, investments in teacher training programs are imperative to supply qualified teachers in terms of knowledge and skills (Freeman et. al, 2013). Literature has already demonstrated that teachers are precious resources that can be trusted to evolve Children and make a difference in their life (Kafu, 2003). Based on data provided by UNESCO (2016), the global community needs about 69 million teachers for the sake of sustainable development goals of 2030. Africa requires alone more than 17 million teachers to be enrolled at institutions to receive teacher education training before they are allocated to schools for the teaching profession.

As part of North African countries, Mauritania has secured a significant achievement regarding child access to primary education. World Bank (2018) reported that education access crossed over 79% in primary schools of Mauritanian. Though this access rate shows that the country has not yet achieved universal standards, it is still a significant
achievement on the national and regional level where Mauritania has tabulated chronologically ahead of Mali, Senegal, and Burkina Faso regarding students accessing to primary education. The growing access to the primary education level made the government think about finding teacher colleges that would be able to accommodate teachers to serve at public schools. Studies of (Lewin, 2007 & Cheng, 2015) have indicated that primary education bridges the way to secondary level, the more access to primary is more students expected to transit to secondary schools. In this case, It becomes a pressing matter for initiatives of education in Mauritania to set out rules regulating teacher education in the country. Although the introduction of teacher education begins just in 1970 in Mauritania, the government has launched several packages to improve the quality of pre-service teacher training programs. The 2004 amendment is a policy reform regarding teacher education in Mauritania. In this reform, it has been mentioned that a university degree (DUG) is the minimum education level for secondary teacher applicants to enroll at higher institutions of teacher education, and student teachers have to spend two years of training for secondary teachers and three years are from primary school teachers (MoHE, 2018). In general, teacher education in Mauritania is introduced through four colleges. These teachers' training institutions are namely; Aioun Teacher College, Khoujate Teacher Collge, Nouakchott Teacher College, and Teachers High Institute Colleges. All three teacher colleges are introducing pre-service tutoring programs for pre-service teachers who would be assigned as classroom teachers at elementary schools, while high institute colleges are in charge to formulate teachers who would be allocated as teachers of secondary schools after the completion of their tutoring program.

Statement of Problem
Abundant studies have explained that the purpose of teacher education is to make pre-service teachers experience the teaching process and its complicated tasks before teachers are placed in a real classroom environment (Strong, 2007; Strong & Ward 2011). In Mauritania, institutions of teacher education have been established for the reason to form pre-service teachers and prepare them to enhance students learning and academic achievement. In his research, Kafu (2003) has expressed that pre-service training programs are supposedly constructed in the curriculum of teacher education to develop the knowledge and skills of student teachers. Also, Loughran (2006) believed that a teacher education training program is a process to mature the competency of student teachers and enhance their understanding of the profession of teaching and its practices. According to Loughran, the process of teacher education starts from the pre-service period, but it extends to include in-service teachers too because teaching is a dynamic task, and teachers need to update their knowledge and development based on the changes and demands of society. While (Stronge et., al 2011; Gest & Gest, 2005) have emphasized the importance of pre-service tutoring programs in terms to enable teachers to get enough teaching skills to enhance and improve students’ learning( Chesly & Jordan, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Begeny & Martins, 2006) claimed that most of the fresh teachers seem to have less teaching skills when they are placed to real classrooms. According to (Chesley & Jordan 2012), the shortness of teaching skills is attributed to the low quality and insufficient tutoring program during pre-service training.
In the context of Mauritania, teacher education was introduced to promote teachers’ development of skills and teaching practices where teachers are the main factors that can have an impact on students learning and academic achievement. However, it was notified that students' academic performance in national exams is still low and under the average. Based on data collected by (World Bank, 2018) students' success in national exams (Brevet and Baccalaureate) is alarming the risk of low education quality in the entire country. Only 29 percent was the total rate of students who passed BREVET exam in 2016 while 15 percent was the rate of students passed Baccalaureate. In regards to the alarming situation of students’ performance in national exams, the study aimed to explore pre-service teachers tutoring program to see whether this program is good enough to empower pre-service teachers with the knowledge and teaching skills, so they can transform their skills into practice in the daily life classroom teaching.

Objectives of the Study
The main objective of this paper is to reveal pre-service teachers’ perspectives regarding their tutoring program to identify whether student teachers are satisfied in terms of skills and knowledge they get during two –bounded years of training at teacher education colleges.

Specific objectives are:
• To identify perspectives of pre-service and in-service teachers toward the tutoring training program,
• To reveal factors hamper the development of pre-service teachers’ skills and competency,
• To find out how does the tutoring program influence teachers classroom performance and teaching competency.

Significance of the Study
The government of Mauritania has mobilized resources to prompt the quality of teachers' training programs since the introduction of teacher education in 1970. Because education quality is primarily depending on the quality of teachers and their teaching performance, the foundation of teacher education institutions was subjecting to construct academic centers able to graduate competent teachers to boost students learning and their academic achievement. Henceforth, the paper would be significant in terms of theoretical and practice perspectives. Through the findings, the study can define whether teacher education pieces of training are viable for the development of preservice teachers' skills and teaching practices in Mauritania.

Theoretical Framework
The current study adopted the teachers’ practicum model as a framework to guide the construction of this paper. This practicum model was developed by Zichner (2010). The framework mainly consists of four elements that are all together supposed to influence the development of pre-service teacher competency and skills. The bellow figure describes the aspects of teachers’ practicum model;
Instructional Design
In this context, the researcher introduced the factor instructional design to refer to training plans, coursework, and academic activities arranged by the administration of teacher education college for enriching the development of trainee teachers in terms of both knowledge and practices. According to Molenda (2003), instruction design in teacher education contains a comprehensive analysis of means of training and the implementation and evaluation of a lesson introduced to candidate teachers. In this way, the administration of teacher college sets up standard principles for scrutinizing candidate characteristics to select them for the specific tutoring program. Also, the instruction design meant to look for ways to identify the objective of the intended program and evaluating its suitability for learners. Additionally, all academic training, whether organized for trainees or their mentors, remains administration support to the development of training quality to impact the expansion of trainees' knowledge and skills. Therefore, the instructional design here refers to all training measures taken to add values for the progress of pre-service teachers before they face the in-service job challenges.

School-based Courses and Internship Training
School-based course work and practicum training are the basic components of a tutoring program that the practicum model has. Elements of school-based and internship training appear on the same level of significance to impact the development of pre-service teachers based on the practicum model that was developed by Zichner in
That is, school-based courses may help beginner teachers to broaden their knowledge about the philosophy of teaching while internship training helps the trainees to express and embody the theory of teaching into practice. For this, school-based coursework is supposed to be covering different teaching strategies that would help pre-service teachers to have a concrete theoretical basis for teaching. Therefore, pre-service teachers are mostly organized to take the coursework sessions before the practicum training though some teacher education colleges integrated where trainees enhanced in the internship training while they still attending course basic sessions (Smith and Lev-Ari, 2005).

**School Mentors Support**

Mentors are considered to be the closest person to trainee teachers during their preparation time and mainly when trainees are upfield for the internship practices. Therefore, mentors support for candidate teachers is an essential factor that could impact the development of preservice teachers during the length of the tutoring program. That is, mentors are daily overseeing the training routine which trainee teachers engaged in to advance their knowledge and teaching competency through the internship training, which likely to be conducted in a real school environment. According to some studies such as (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; & Izadinia, 2016), mentors are the most sensitive issue in teacher education programs. If the teaching organization owns professional and well-trained mentors, that organization has a great chance to graduate capable teachers who can contribute to have hands in quality education and increase the achievement of students at their respective schools. Therefore, the mentoring issue is an influential factor to impact the development of preservice teachers.

**Pre-service Teachers Teaching Competency**

As the figure number 2 describes, the aspect of pre-service teaching competency represented through the figure as an outcome of the tutoring process in which pre-service teachers go through during the preparation period. Teaching is a reciprocating action in which one needs to have knowledge and skills for expressing experience professionally. A teacher requires to have the ability to handle classroom procedures and monitoring pupil behavior to keep their students on the pace of learning (Sanford, Emmer, and Clements, 1983). Also, literature emphasized that exposing trainee teachers to internship training and seminars to improve teaching skills needed for managing learning activity in classrooms is one of the essential training strategies for the development of pre-service teachers. Besides that, containing training is a significant factor in reducing the retention in which teachers may think about ones they feel unprepared well to handle the teaching profession (Buchanan et al., 2013; Beck & Kosnik, 2002). Therefore, teachers' competency is primarily considered an outcome of the tutoring program pre-service teachers engaged in during the preparation duration for the demonstration of their skill to be able to fulfill students' needs for increasing their academic achievement.
Methodology
The term research methodology, as described by Burgess (1984), is a broad aspect that overlapping terms like design, data collection, data analysis as well as ethical considerations (Burgess, 1984). Based on this structure, qualitative and quantitative are the most known methodologies designed to collect data for research. Literature has not yet generated a unique term to describe mixed-method studies but, “third methodological method term” is a common expression always used to indicate mixed method design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008). (Creswell et., al 2011) have traced the main features that distinguish mixed-method design from other research designs. According to Creswell and Clark, mixed-method research collects data through separate phases; quantitative and qualitative data is collected and analyzed independently. When the analysis is done, researchers can merge data sequentially or coincidently to tackle the research problem. Though scholars like Smith & Heshusius (1986) have argued the merge of quantitative and qualitative in unique research. Literature shows some studies support the incorporation two methods in individual research. the argument in these studies avowed that combining mixed method to collect data may help the researcher to benefit from each technique to explain the data from more than perspective (Mason, 1993; Salomon, 1991; Goodwin & Goodwin, 1984 ). Similarly, (Creswell, 1994; Strauss & et al,1990) have emphasized the importance of using mixed method design where researcher can get multiple data from various source of data collection. Therefore, this study employed explanatory mixed method to deeply investigate and understand pre-service teachers’ opinions regarding their induction program at teachers’ college in Mauritania.

Samplings of the Study
This study has subjected 400 pre-service teachers attending teacher education programs at teachers’ colleges. From the targeted group, a sample of 100 pre-service teachers and in-service teachers were chosen randomly to participate in the study. Pre-service teachers were 80, while in-service teachers were 20 teachers who recently have completed the tutoring program and being in school as classroom teachers. All student teachers were about to graduate and in their last three (3) months of the training program. Besides this, two mentors were also selected randomly for the interview phase, while two (2) in-service teachers were selected purposely based on the data gained from the survey. So, the total sampling of this study was 102 participants.

Validity and Reliability
Scholars like (Johnson & Christensen 2012, p.143) have defined the term validity with “accuracy of the inferences, interpretations, and actions made on the basis of test scores”. Based on this definition, the author summarizes that the validity of the tool is likely to happen when the instrument gages accurately the elements provided on the survey. Though it is hard to find an instrument or a research with hundred percent validity, the role of the researcher is to minimize research risk and to maximize the validity issue. This is possible to happen when the researcher follows sizeable steps (Cohen et al, 2007). When it comes to the issue of validity, the researcher has to pay attention to various aspects such as; face and content construct. To ensure the reliability of the study, the researcher tried to consider the mentioned types of validity during the process of preparing survey items.
Data Collection Procedures
To collect data for this study, the researcher used a survey instrument and one on one semi-structured interviews to gather the information from participants. Firstly, Quantitative data was collected through the survey. Questions of the instrument were dispatched to participants. Participants were asked to put their answers next to each item listed on the survey respectively. Survey items were evaluated by using Liker-scale techniques which were ranged from 1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree. Then, qualitative data was obtained through one on one structured interviews. Interviews were conducted separately and were held in various settings. Open-ended questions were used too to make sure that the author understands interviewees' ideas. Audio recording and typing notes were used to be a reference where the author can refer to during the transcription process.

Data Analysis
For quantitative data, descriptive and inferential analysis were employed to get numerical findings that could lead to constructing qualitative design. The researcher applied procedures of coddling as a method to organize data obtained from the survey questionnaire. According to (Marshall & Rossman 2006, p.160), coding data is "the formal representation of analytic thinking". Then, data was analyzed to define statistically the mean and standard deviations. SPSS software was used to help in calculating the mean and standard deviations. Also, T-test and one-way ANOVA analysis were applied to outline differences and the level of significance among participants’ opinion regarding their tutoring program. On the other hand, qualitative procedures such as transcription and interviews description were utilized to summarize and identify emergent themes from the form interviews.

Results of the Study
Based on the structure of this paper, major results were collected through survey questionnaire and presented as follows.

Descriptive Analysis
Descriptive analysis was employed on the four components of the tutoring program to depict participants’ perspectives of the four variables (theoretical course, practicum training, mentors and administration support) that consist pre-service teachers tutoring program. Each constituent of pre-service teacher training program.

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Our study had an aim to shed light on teachers’ perspectives towards tutoring program comprised of theoretical and practical curriculum given by the teachers’ training colleges in Mauritania. For that reason, we have conducted a survey that involved In- and On-service teachers who were involved in/on the teaching about internship program content, mentors, and management support at teachers’ colleges. Hence, Table 1 result indicates that teachers suppose both theoretical and practical training are somehow adored, however, their notion of practical training was much favored than theoretical content of the course in enhancing their teaching skill. Moreover, the result demonstrates that In- and On-service teacher perceive fair feeling regarding mentors and administration staff support in promoting student-teachers teaching skills.

Table 2: Effect of individual trait on pre-service teachers’ perspectives of training program (MANOVA)

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Table 2 shows achieving objective of our study to examine the influence of teachers’ personal characteristics on their perspectives towards teachers’ college. Thus, we conducted the two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) since we had multiple dependent variables. So, the result from Table 2 illuminate that there is significant effect of current teacher’s professional status on their perception about the theoretical course content and mentor support, 54% and 34% of the variation of the result was predicted by the participants. Likewise, the result illustrates that the mentor support perceived significantly different between social and natural science disciplines participants study.
Table 3: Effect of individual trait on teachers’ perceptions on training program

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</table>

Furthermore, Table 3 results demonstrate that teacher's age has a significant effect on teachers’ perception towards the theoretical course given by the teacher colleges with a predicted variation of 64% of the respondents. Additionally, the two-way MANOVA analysis indicated that the educational level of our participants has a significant influence on their belief about the practicum course and mentors' support in fostering their teaching skills.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to explore pre-service teachers’ perspectives regarding the tutoring program student teachers are required to participate in before they begin in-service teaching responsibilities in classrooms. The pre-service training program is provided at teachers’ colleges for the reason to mature and increase pre-service teachers teaching skills and competency. Hence, the study was conducted to find out whether student teachers perceive that the training program involving theoretical courses, practicum training, mentors support, and the supplement of teacher college management is decently enough to improve pre-service teachers’ skills and teaching competency.

**Perspectives regarding Theoretical Course**

Based on the findings from the descriptive analysis, the study found participants have a passable perspective regarding theoretical courses introduced at teacher college
institutions. The \( x \) score across participants\((n=100)\) is \( x= 3.56 \). This indicates perspectives of theoretical curriculum is positive though some participants doubted the benefit of theoretical sessions. Participants believe that theoretical course is relevant in terms of knowing about teaching methodologies and theories. The current finding agrees with findings of (Kattia, 2015; GENEC, 2016 & Freman et., al 2013 ). Cited scholars have concluded that a theoretical course in teacher education is a bridge to practicum training where student-teachers learn about teaching philosophies and procedures. The finding explains that the theoretical course has positive effect on student- teachers knowledge but teacher colleges are required to adjust their curriculum of theoretical course to respond to fulfill pre-service teachers needs.

Qualitative findings regarding the theoretical course were somehow consisted with quantitative results. Interview participants expressed that learning teaching pedagogy is germane to the maturation of pre-service –teachers, but credit hours given to attend theoretical courses should not affect pre-service teachers going for practicum sessions. This finding entails that participants are suggesting alteration regarding credit hours of theoretical courses. Participants deemed that they consume much time attending course work sessions, while participants think that having overload courses get them to have less time for practicum training.

From the analysis in (table1), the study found that there is a significant difference among participants’ perspectives regarding theoretical courses. This finding interprets trainees of teachers education colleges are not similarly perceiving the benefit of theoretical course to their teaching development This finding is consistent with (GENEG 2016). In his study that entitled “More Practice for Pre-Service Teachers and More Theory for In-service Teachers”, GENEC found that pre-service teachers have a less perception of theoretical course than in-service teachers. In addition, the study found that there is a significant difference in perspectives of theoretical courses between participants from social science and natural science departments. This finding could be explained in the term that natural science trainee teachers have more need for lab laboratories work than social since trainee teachers. So, the study suggests initiatives of teacher education to provide more training laboratories for natural science teachers. Also, findings from MANOVA in (table2) displayed there is significant effect among participants' views of theoretical courses based on participants’ gender, and profession status. The variation of difference predicted by participants was 34\%,54% and 64% as exerted in (table3) respectively. Based on this finding, the study recommends teacher education colleges to look at their training settings and make sure that training environment permits all teacher trainees to have equal participation in the tutoring program.

**Perspectives regarding Practicum Training**

From the qualitative analysis, the study found that participants are more optimistic towards practicum training sessions. Based on explanations from table1, the study found that participants’ notion of practicum training was high. This explains that participants believe that their engagement in practicum training significantly influences their teaching performance and competencies. Though participants had a common response regarding the short-term of practicum sessions, they admitted the benefit of
practicum sessions on their teaching performance and practices. Similarly, findings from the interviews complied with qualitative results. The study found that participants had a strong belief that the more they engaged in practicum sessions is the more they feel competent and familiar with the profession of teaching. The finding was comparable with (Musset, 2010; Koca & Sen, 2006; Baron, 2015). Quoted studies have concluded that field training is helping student teachers to absorb teaching skills and experience the environment of teaching before the transformation to the in-service profession.

On the other hand, the study found there is a significant difference among participants’ perspectives on practicum sessions. About (table2), the study found there is a significant difference among participants’ perspectives of practicum training based on their gender and professional status. Likewise, GENC (2016) was reported similar results. Therefore, the study proposes for the decision-makers in the country to take their responsibilities regarding teacher education and the teaching profession to attract young people to join teacher education schools. This is possible by sponsoring professional development programs and increasing teachers’ salaries. Based on MANOVA analysis, the study found that there is a significant variation difference among participants’ views of practicum training based on their level of education where the predict variation was identified with 59%.

**Perspectives regarding Mentors Support**
Based on the analysis, the study found that participants were quite satisfied with mentoring services. The overall score was identified with (X=3.27, S=.56) respectively. This finding contradicts (Pawer et., al 2012). Though quantitative results describe that participants have rational feelings towards mentors’ support, qualitative findings contradict with quantitative results regarding participants’ perspectives of mentors’ support.

While quantitative results showed a fair perspective on mentors’ support, interview findings displayed participants with a weak perception towards mentors’ support. The literature argues that mentoring is a paramount facet in teacher education and mentors play a major role to enhance and lead the development of pre-service teachers (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010; & Ambrosetti, 2014). Then, this study exhorts administrators of teacher education to endorse policies to monitor the mentoring process in teacher education colleges in Mauritania.

**Participants Perspective of Administration Support**
Based on the descriptive analysis, the study found that participants have a fair feeling regarding administration support. The x across participants’ responses was (X=3.28, S=.60). This finding intimates that participants are just fine with facilities provided by their administrators to enhance the development of their skills and teaching competency. However, findings from interviews confuted quantitative results. Interview participants claimed that aspects of micro-teaching seminars, teaching workshops, and inviting expert mentors to their teaching colleges are among other facilities that needed to be incorporated into the training agenda and implemented significantly. Furthermore, the study found the level of education has a significant
effect on participants’ perspectives towards administration support. Predict variation was 73% of the respondents. Also, the study found that the age factor affects participant perception of administration support but not that significant. This contradicts the findings of (Pawer & his colleagues, 2012) who strongly confirmed that age is a significant factor influencing employees’ perception of their organization.

Conclusion
Based on the findings of this study, the author has summarized the following conclusion:

In general, the pre-service teachers' tutoring program is strongly affecting pre-service teachers to learn the theory of teaching. So, the program is a basic theory content-oriented and student teachers do not have enough time for practicum training. Theoretical coursework is not matching with schools’ syllables. So, trainee teachers find themselves in a situation they have to adapt themselves to the school’s curriculum after the completion of the pre-service teachers' tutoring program. On the other hand, practicum training has a significant impact on pre-service teachers' teaching competency. However, if the short-term of the tutoring program is not restructured, the current tutoring program is not possible to grant student-teachers with adequate teaching skills and competencies.

There is a mismatching between theoretical courses and practicum training session. According to the policy of teacher training centers candidate teachers are required to complete the tutoring program within two years, but student teachers have less time for practicum sessions during these two years. So, teachers training centers in Mauritania are required to look at the structure of their theoretical course and make it suitable for the development of student teachers' competency and teaching practices. Lack of measures to evaluate and observe mentors' support to the trainee teachers during the up field training sessions. The absenteeism of administration support in terms of academic activities: organizing training sessions, workshops on teaching and mentoring tasks.

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ANALYSING THE USE OF SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GHANA

Michael Owusu Tabiri
Ghana Communication Technology University & University of Education, Winneba, Ghana
mtabiri@gtuc.edu.gh

Ivy Jones-Mensah
University of Professional Studies, Acra & University of Education, Winneba, Ghana
ivyjones2009@yahoo.com

Abstract
This is a qualitative study that analysed the problem of subjunctive mood in English among Level 400 students in two Ghanaian universities. The data used for the analysis comprised students’ written exercises. This study adopted the contrastive analysis to analyse common errors or learners’ difficulties in using subjunctive mood in English (L2). From this, a total of 1020 wrong use of subjunctive mood were identified. Four categories of wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing; a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive), wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity, wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing suggestions and wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations were identified. The results show that the subjunctive mood expressing suggestions recorded the highest form of error with 360 out of 1020 representing 35% out of the total number followed by the subjunctive expressing a requirement or necessity which recorded 300 errors representing 29% while wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive) and subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations recorded 180 errors for each of them depicting 18% respectively. The work seeks to uncover the difficulties students of English usually encounter in the use of subjunctive mood. The study revealed that students face difficulties of identifying and writing all the types of the subjunctive mood such as formulaic subjunctive, mandative subjunctive, were-subjunctive and words that express hypothetical situations or improbable condition (type 2) in English (L2). Based on the findings of the study, three main causes of students’ wrong use of subjunctive mood were found to be language interference, ignorance of rule restrictions and unlearning on the part of teachers and learners.

Keywords: Mandative, formulaic, were-subjunctive, hypothetical situations.

Introduction
The objectives of the study were to identify types of difficulties university students face in the use of the subjunctive mood and to analyse the causes of the errors or difficulties found in the study.
In grammar, mood refers to a verb form that shows the writer's attitude toward the content of his or her words. There are three different kinds of mood in English grammar. Subjunctive mood expresses a desire, a requirement, a suggestion, or a hypothetical (Nordquist, 2018). The other two types of mood are indicative and imperative. Indicative mood asks a question or expresses a fact or opinion, while imperative mood is used to issue a command. According to Nordquist (2018), in English grammar, the *subjunctive is* the mood of a verb expressing wishes, stipulating demands, or making statements contrary to fact. Etymologically, the word subjunctive is from the Latin, "subjoin, bind, subordinate".

According to Sabin (1996) sentences that express necessity, demand, strong request, urging or resolution in the main clause require a subjunctive verb in the dependent clause that follows. For instance, if the verb in the dependent clause requires the use of the verb “to be”, the form “be” must be used for the all the three persons, and not “am”, ‘is” or “are”. Also, if the verb in the dependent clause is a verb other than “be’, one has to use the ordinary present tense form for all three persons without adding the morpheme, “s” to the third person singular (Nordquist, 2019, Sabin, 1996). It is in this light that the current study seeks to identify and analyse the subjunctive mood difficulties university students in Ghana face.

The difficulties students or learners of English in Ghana face cannot be overemphasised. The difficulties in the use of the subjunctive mood in English are evident in the academia, even at the tertiary levels and in the mass media in Ghana. Since my appointment as English and French lecturer at the Ghana Technology University in 2013, I have realised that students are not usually familiar with the use of the subjunctive mood or cannot even identify the constructions of the subjunctive mood in English in spite of the fact that they have been using some of the fixed types of the subjunctive mood like “God have mercy on us”, “Long live Ghana”. I once taught my students the topic, *wishes and greetings* in French and English simultaneously and asked the class to mention the grammatical name given to the following sentences in either English or French and nobody was able to answer the question correctly. The sentences are as follows:

1. Vive le roi! – Long live the king!
2. Que Dieu soit avec toi– God be with you.
3. Que Dieu te/vous bénisse- God bless you.

Furthermore, we recently read an article in the Junior Graphic where someone was trying to answer a question which has a bearing on the subjunctive mood but unfortunately, the author could not mention or pinpoint that the question has some bearing on the subjunctive in English. What appeared in the Junior Graphic edition of Wednesday, January 8 – 14, 2020 is as follows:

“A very good friend of mine faced the challenge of his life during the Christmas festivities when, out of the blue, his JHS two niece asked him why we say or write GOD BLESS YOU, even though God is singular and so, going by the principle of a
singular subject agreeing with a singular verb, the expression should be GOD BLESSES YOU….” Asomaning (2020) explains the above situation as follows,

“ The expression God bless you is actually a shorter or concise form of “May God bless you”, just as we say or write “Happy to see you” for “I’m happy to see you; welcome for you’re welcome; see you later for I’ll see you later... Both the longer and the shorter versions of the expression - May God bless you and God bless you- are grammatically correct because in English when a verb is preceded by the words we refer to as modal verbs (one of which is may), that verb does not as far as subject verb agreement is concerned.” (p.13)

One can deduce from the explanation given that nothing is said about the formulaic subjunctive mood in English which is the fulcrum of the problem. The problem of the use of subjunctive mood is a general concern at the basic and tertiary levels as well as in the mass media in Ghana. We can therefore agree with Mireku-Gyimah (2014) that poor teaching and learning of the language at the Junior and Senior High Schools has been identified as a primary cause of poor English at the tertiary level even though several interventions have been made to uplift the language at those levels. In spite of numerous pedagogical interventions such as the introduction of new English textbooks and adoption of new methods of teaching in our schools, the poor standard of English persists among pre-tertiary and tertiary students as has been shown by studies conducted by Hyde (1988), Bawa (1992), Tettey (1996), Yankyera (1996), and Edu-Boandoh et al (2008).

**Literature Review**

Through the work of Deshors and Gries(2019), it has been stressed that in English, the mandative subjunctive serves the specific function of conveying directives including, for example, commands, orders or requests (Hoffmann 1997), as illustrated in the following construction.

(1) I demand that this *be* made available to the public again.

As we can see in the above example, similarly to the imperative, the mandative subjunctive, appearing in italics, is formed by using the base form of a verb (e.g. *be* in our example), and therefore can only be distinguished in the third person singular. Syntactically, it tends to occur in object complement clauses (e.g. *that this be made available to the public again*) following a suasive verb such as *demand, order, request* or *ask* among others (Deshors and Gries, 2019). Although the mandative subjunctive can also be used after adjectives and nouns expressing an emotion (Deshors and Gries, 2019). Also, Hoffmann (1997) and Hundt (2018), among others, have shown that considerable differences exist between how much different main-clause suasive verbs attract mandative subjunctive mood in English.
According to Hoffmann (1997), demand, order, and request prefer the mandative subjunctive (some, such as demand, strongly), particularly with a non-inflected subjunctive, whereas propose prefers the modal variant; thus Hoffmann (1997: 26) concludes that “analysing mandative sentences as a unified grammatical phenomenon makes little sense [as the] differences between the individual suasive items are simply too large for such an undertaking”.

Dehors and Gries (2019) stressed that beyond suasive verbs, Algeo (1992: 600) explains that the choice of a superordinate governing expression may be involved in the choice of option in mandative constructions. Again, Dehors and Gries (2019) said that, the presence/absence of subordination and particularly the presence/absence of a that complementizer introducing the mandative subjunctive or should constructions are important factors in understanding the alternation (Johansson 1979, Hoffmann 1997, Kastronic & Poplack 2014, Hundt 2018). According to Kastronic & Poplack (2014: 72), “the subjunctive variant is only admissible under specific subjunctive triggers when these occur in a legal subjunctive-selective context (introducing a subordinate clause headed by that)” However, our present study will add to the existing knowledge that some mandative subjunctive moods such as expressing a desire or a wish (e.g.I wish I were at your wedding ceremony) as well as expressing hypothetical situations (e.g. If I got 20 million pounds, I would build a house in London) may not attract the use of “that”. In furtherance, our contribution in this study is to classify and analyse wrong use of subjunctive mood into four, namely formulaic subjunctive mood, mandative subjunctive, were-subjunctive and subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations in English (L2).

Research Questions
The study sought to find answers to the following questions:
- What kind of difficulties do participants face in using the subjunctive mood in English?
- What are the causes of the various language difficulties in the writing of the participants?

Article Structure
The structure of this article includes examining four categories of wrong use of subjunctive mood namely, expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive), wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity, wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing suggestions and wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations.

Method
This study adopted a qualitative case study to analyse the responses that some final year level 400 students in Ghana provided with a specific reference to the aspect of the test on subjunctive mood in English to enable the authors to arrive at the answers to the research questions in the study (Tabiri, 2019). In addition, the purposive sampling
strategy was used to select the study site and participants. Sixty (60) final year university students in Ghana were selected for the research. These students had studied or had been taught English language from the basic level up to the university level in Ghana. The choice of the researcher is in consistent with Parahoo (1997) as well as Shughenssy and Zechmeister (1990) who also say that a purposive sampling method is usually adopted in the study based on the respondents’ ability to provide the useful data. The main method used to collect data was the results of the Correct Usage Test the researcher conducted in 2018/2019 academic year in two universities in Ghana. In short, the main steps that were adhered to, and followed in this study are as follows: data collection, identification of wrong use of subjunctive, classification of the wrong use of the subjunctive/ types and error or frequency of the wrong use of the subjunctive. The researcher adopted the Error Analysis approach by Richards and Schmidt (2002), James (1998), Dulay et al (1982) and Richards (1971) to analyse and classify students’ wrong use of subjunctive in their written test.

Sample and Participants
The population of this study comprised both female and male final year or level 400 students from two private universities, namely, Pentecost University College and the Regent University College of Science and Technology in Ghana. The study involved a total of sixty (60) students from two private universities in Accra (Tabiri 2019).

Instrument(s)
The respondents from the two private universities in Ghana were numbered sixty (60) students, comprising male and female students. The Correct Usage Test that was administered at the two private universities was the major instrument of the study and the analysis of the 60 students’ written deviations or errors constituted the main focus of this work. All the 60 students were supposed to write the Correct Usage Test. The students were assured that the results for the test were not going to be used to determine their exam grades, but purely for research purposes. The researchers sought permission from the management of the two universities, establishing a rapport among students as well as ensuring that the respondents would give their consent before the test was administered.

Data Collection and Analysis
The four main steps that were adhered to and followed religiously and chronologically are as follows: data collection, identification of wrong use of subjunctive mood, classification of the subjunctive use and error frequency. The researchers adopted the Error Analysis approach by Richards and Schmidt (2002), James (1998), Dulay et al (1982) and Richards (1971) to analyse and classify students’ errors in using the subjunctive mood that were identified in the Correct Usage Test scripts.
Results and Discussions

This section of our work presents the results of analysis of data obtained from all the sixty (60) level 400 students from the two universities who took active participation in the study. The results emphasised that students face countless difficulties when it comes to the use of the mandative subjunctive in English, and hence stressing their learning difficulties in English language as second language learners in Ghana. According to Nordquist (2018), the subjunctive was formerly used in English for situations that were improbable or that expressed a wish. It is only rarely used in modern British English. It is, however, found in certain set phrases and in very formal forms of speech and writing. Examples are as follows:

- *God save us!*
- *God bless you!*
- *God help us!*
- *Heaven help us!*
- *Heaven forbid*

Their difficulties were found to be their inability to identify and use subjunctive mood to express a desire/wish, a requirement, a suggestion and to express hypothetical situations in English. Consequently, the analysis of our findings here focuses on subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish, subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity, subjunctive mood expressing suggestions and subjunctive mood that express hypothetical situations. Some of the wrong constructions of the subjunctive mood that were found in the data are as follows:

**A. Subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive)**

1. I wish I was at your wedding ceremony. (were)

2. I wish he was there. (were)

3. They wish she was in Church (were)

**Mandative subjunctive**

Mandative subjunctive expresses a requirement or necessity as well as suggestions (Nordquist, 2018). Examples of the subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity that were wrongly constructed by the students are as follows:

**B. Subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity**

1. It is necessary that he marries this year. (marry)

2. It is essential that a student goes to school early. (go)

3. It is necessary that the participant arrives on time. (arrive)
4. It is crucial that these questions are answered without delay (be answered)

5. It is necessary that the candidate arrives on time (arrive).

C. Subjunctive mood expressing suggestions

1. I suggest that the Director transfers him without delay. (transfer)
2. I suggest that he comes without delay (come)
3. I suggest that she renders an apology to the leadership (render)
4. The Director General urged that she writes and accepts the post. (write, accept)
5. I insist that I am allowed to take part in the discussion (I insist that I be allowed to take part in the discussion).
6. We have resolved that Daniel represents the class. (represent)

It can be realized from the mandative subjunctive that each of the constructions is usually introduced by the that clause. The findings of the present study are in consistent with earlier studies like that of Hundt (2018) and Hoffman (1997).

D. Subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations

1. If I get 20 million dollars, I would build a house in Accra. (got)
2. If he goes abroad, he would see my friend. (went)
3. If she wins an American lottery, she would travel to the US. (won).

The subjunctive mood that expresses hypothetical situations is synonymous with the improbable condition which is also known as type II (if clauses). In short, all the above constructions cannot be accepted in formal contexts without the use of the mandative subjunctive mood in English. In other words, considering context communication, the most appropriate structures should be subjunctive mood and not the indicative in English. The above use of the subjunctive mood or case relates to one of the problems which students of English find it extremely difficult (Sekyi-Baidoo, 2000; Thomson et al, 1960).

Also, in the Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar (1994), Chalker and Weiner note that the subjunctive mood has made a considerable comeback in British English in recent years, probably under American influence. The wrong use of the subjunctive mood can be grouped and summarized as follows:
Table 1: Wrong use of subjunctive mood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of wrong use of subjunctive</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive)</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive mood expressing suggestions</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1020</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 represents the groupings of the wrong use of subjunctive mood, namely wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive), wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a requirement or necessity, wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing suggestions and wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations. The table depicts that the subjunctive mood expressing suggestions recorded the highest form of error with 360 out of 1020 representing 35% out of the total number followed by the subjunctive expressing a requirement or necessity which recorded 300 errors representing 29% while wrong use of subjunctive mood expressing a desire or a wish (were-subjunctive) and subjunctive mood expressing hypothetical situations recorded 180 deviations each depicting 18% for each of them concurrently. All the various types of the wrong use of the subjunctive that were found in the data were classified and analysed accordingly.

Figure 1: Frequency of wrong use of the subjunctive mood
It was also realised through the data that students could not use formulaic subjunctive correctly. Formulaic subjunctive mood constitutes fixed expressions that Thomson et al (1960) and Nordquist (2018) described as expressions of faith and hope in English. As it has already been demonstrated, the present subjunctive mood of all other verbs has the same form as their simple present tense except that “s” is not added for the third person singular as follows:

1. God forgive you.
2. God have mercy.
3. God bless you.
4. God forbid.
5. God bless Ghana!
6. God help us!
7. God save Ghana!
8. Long live Ghana!
9. Long live the king!
10. Long live Africa!

**Causes of students’ wrong use of subjunctive mood**

In this study, three main causes of students’ wrong use of subjunctive mood were found to be language interference, ignorance of rule restrictions and unlearning on the part of teachers and learners (Richards, 2015). The three causes of learners’ wrong use of subjunctive mood or constructions can be exemplified as follows:

**Language interference (L1 on L2)**

It is clear from the available evidence that the present subjunctive particularly the formulaic subjunctive is not marked or used overtly. In other words, once subjunctive mood is not common in Ghanaian languages, it will become extremely difficult for learners to use the present subjunctive mood correctly. In other words, through the study we have realized that students committed a lot of errors in their Correct Usage Test in English due to their background as Ghanaian students who study English as Second language learners (Owu-Ewie and Lomotey, 2016, Tabiri, 2019).

**Ignorance of rule restrictions**

This is an application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. The following errors or deviations might have occurred due to ignorance of rule restrictions on the part of the students:

1. If I was the President, I would sack him.
2. If I was you, I would repent of my sin.
3. He talks as if he is a Professor of Applied Linguistics.
4. It is necessary that he marries this year.
5. God blesses you.
7. If he goes abroad, he would see my friend.
8. I suggest that she renders an apology to the leadership

**Unlearning**
From the foregoing analysis, we can also ascribe the various wrong constructions of the subjunctive mood to unlearning on the part of the students as Souriyvongs et al (2013) also emphasised. That is to say, as second language learners of English, students need to pay attention to language rules and learn them religiously in context and not out of context (Tabiri, 2019). The motto of the Ghana Technology University College is, “Knowledge comes from learning” in other words, students can only know or master second language, particularly the use of subjunctive mood when they learn and practice the correct structures accordingly (Tabiri, 2019). In a related study, Rod (1999) asserts that deviations or errors, according to behaviourist theory, were the result of non learning, rather than wrong learning. In short, this study is emphasising that all the wrong constructions of the subjunctive mood that were found and analysed depict unlearning on the part of the learners in two Ghanaian universities.

**Pedagogical implications of the Study**
Pedagogically and didactically, it is an undeniable fact that subjunctive mood does not exist in Ghanaian languages, and this might have led to the difficulties learners of English encounter when it comes to the use of the subjunctive mood. Understanding the essence of contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) as teachers will therefore assist us tremendously to find minimise errors committed by learners in using the subjunctive mood in English. This hypothesis consisted of the assertion that L1 interference is what constitutes the main obstacle to L2 learning.

Also, in teaching subjunctive mood, it would be extremely necessary to let learners be abreast of the different usage of *wish* and *hope* simultaneously. In other words, although the words *hope* and *wish* seem to be similar, we do not use the subjunctive with *hope*. One must therefore say,

1. I hope that this machine works.
2. I hope that this machine is working.
3. I hope you are doing well.
4. I hope he is doing well.
But

5. I wish this machine work.
6. I wish this machine were working.
7. I wish you were doing well
8. I wish he were doing well.

Again, the following words necessitate the use of the subjunctive mood in English: *if*, *as if*, *wish* and *suppose*. Some of the examples are as follows;

1. If I were the President, I would sack him.
2. If I were you, I would repent of my sin.
3. He talks as if he were a Professor of Applied Linguistics.
4. She acts as if she were a journalist par excellence.
5. I wish I were you.
6. I wish my father were here.
7. Suppose your pastor were here. What would you do?
8. Suppose you were a billionaire. How would you spend your money?

If systematic-cum-conscious pedagogical steps/measures are adopted or adapted to teach students in Ghana, their difficulties in the use of subjunctive will definitely be minimized.

Furthermore, committing errors in teaching/learning English as Second Language (L2) is inevitable. The findings of the present study have shown that one of the topics in English that teachers of English might have ignored is the subjunctive mood. This is because it was discovered through the learners’ responses of the test on the subjunctive that they were all completely naïve or ignorant of the correct usage of the mandative subjunctive, formulaic subjunctive and were-subjunctive in English. It is therefore pedagogically expedient that studies were carried out in both present and past subjunctive in English (L2) so as to help learners become abreast of its usage.

Moreover, it would be advisable for the adoption of proper approaches in teaching and learning in English as a Second language in Ghana. In other words, communicative language teaching approach should be used from basic to tertiary levels in Ghana. It is an undeniable fact that when it comes to the current communicative language approach, the teaching of grammar is not overlooked but it is rather enhanced and incorporated pragmatically in contexts and not teaching grammatical structures in isolation.

Finally, due to limited studies on the subjunctive mood in Africa, particularly, in Ghana, the researcher was compelled to study all the types of subjunctive in English in order
to create awareness of the existence of the topic in teaching and learning of English (L2). The researcher would like to suggest that future research could focus on each of the types of the subjunctive separately so as to attain comprehensive work on all the types discussed in the current study.

Conclusions
Through the adoption of the contrastive analysis coupled with qualitative study, we have been able to identify and analyse common errors or learners’ difficulties in using subjunctive mood in English (L2).

Moreover, the study has discussed one of the areas of difficulties when it comes to the teaching and learning of English as a Second language in Ghana. The area of difficulty has been identified through the test the researcher conducted that students are completely ignorant of the correct use of subjunctive mood in English. From the foregoing discussions, one can deduce that students have really been facing difficulties of identifying and writing all the types of the subjunctive mood such as formulaic subjunctive, mandative subjunctive, were-subjunctive and words that express hypothetical situations or improbable condition (type 2) in English (L2). Based on the findings of the study, three main causes of students’ wrong use of subjunctive mood were found to be language interference, ignorance of rule restrictions and unlearning on the part of teachers and learners.

It is therefore pedagogically crucial for teachers of English in Ghana to adopt or adapt proper approaches in teaching and learning English (L2).

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References


DOES L1 TRANSFER PERSIST IN END-STATE L2 ENGLISH?
Vasfiye Geçkin
Izmir Democracy University, Faculty of Education,
Department of Foreign Language Education, Izmir, Turkey
vgeckin@gmail.com

Abstract
Empirical research has attributed the inability to attain native-like proficiency in a second language (L2) to the complexity of linguistic properties which sit at the domains of syntax, semantics, morphology or phonology interface. Grammatical domains at the syntax/phonology interface such as the production of the definite article may lead to variability in the learner interlanguage. L2 learners, for example, are reported to stress the definite article, which, in fact, is treated as a non-stressed element in English. That is, when the definite article is assigned a long(er) duration (>120 ms.) followed or preceded by a pitch fall, then, it is considered to be stressed. This case study aims to explore the role of first language (L1) prosody in the morpho-phonological productions of the English definite article, the, in the interlanguage of two end-state grammars: one coming from an articled first language, Spanish and the other from a non-articled first language, Turkish. The prediction is that the Turkish-English end-state speaker is expected to stress the definite article by having longer article durations than the Spanish-English and the Australian-English control speaker due to the differences in the way(s) definiteness is encoded and prosodified in Turkish, Spanish and English. No such difference is expected between the article durations of the Spanish-English and the Australian English speakers thanks to the similarities in the way(s) definiteness is encoded and prosodified in Spanish and English. The participants were given a language exposure and dominance questionnaire (LEAP-Q) and a vocabulary test (PPVT IV) prior to the main task: a self-paced reading task. The speech samples containing the definite article, the, were extracted, coded and their durations were calculated using the software PRAAT. A Factorial ANOVA analysis was conducted to compare the main effect of the first language (Turkish vs. Spanish vs. English) on L2 definite article durations. The results yielded a main effect of first language with an F ratio of F (2, 132) = 20.68, p<.001, indicating a significant difference between the definite article durations of the three speakers coming from three different first language backgrounds. Although the article durations of none of the speakers exceeded 120ms., two explanations can be offered to account for the significantly longer productions of the definite article in the interlanguage of the L2 speakers. First, the absence of the voiced interdental fricative in Turkish and Spanish might have led to difficulty and delay in speech production, and second, the second language speakers might have lengthened the vowel sound in the definite article. In conclusion, the study offers evidence that L1 transfer persists among end-state L2 speakers of English.

Keywords: end state speakers, language transfer, English articles.
Introduction
In the field of second language (L2) acquisition, learners of different ages and levels of proficiency are cited to experience variability in expressing definiteness (e.g., Chondrogianni et al., 2015; Lardiere, 2009; Robertson, 2000; Snape, 2008; Snape & Kupisch, 2010; White et al., 2012; Zdorenko & Paradis, 2011), a domain which sits at the syntax/semantics/phonology interface. The observed variability in the learner interlanguage partly arises from the interaction between the languages which resort to different means to express definiteness. English, for example, realizes definiteness by the overt use of articles which are morpho-phonologically encoded as *the* and *a(n)* in obligatory singular contexts (Lyons, 1999). In the examples below (see 1, 2 and 3), there is an already established common ground between the hearer and the speaker as to the identity of the winner, so the context is definite. Similar to English, Spanish, encodes definiteness through its articles that are specified for gender and number (Stockwell et al., 1965). In singular definite contexts, feminine nouns receive *la* and muscular nouns receive *el* as the morphological realizations of the definite article in Spanish (see 2). Turkish, on the other hand, does not mark definiteness in the same way as English or Spanish, but resorts to some other means such as the use of the accusative case marker –(y)I (see 3), changes in word order or the syntactic position of the noun (Erguvanlı, 1984). The examples below list how English, Spanish and Turkish morphologically encode the definite article:

1. Brad met the winner of the race.
2. Brad conoció el ganador de la carrera.
3. Brad yarışın galibiyyle tanıtı.

To mark definiteness, English and Spanish use free morphemes (i.e., *the*, *el*) which precede the noun. Turkish, on the other hand, uses a bound morpheme, the accusative case marker, also known as the specificity marker (Enç, 1990), that is attached to the end of the noun. If cross-linguistic influence persisted in the L2 interlanguage, then, it is no surprise to expect variability in definite article productions in the interlanguage of the so-called ‘end-state’ speakers. The term ‘end-state’ was first coined by Selinker (1972), and for the purposes of this study, it is defined as a point at which the L2 learner whose linguistic system has reached a static or ultimate attainment and seems to stop progressing (Van Patten & Benati, 2010: 162). The main aim of this case study is to explore whether variability in the interlanguage of the speakers who reached ultimate attainment in an L2 after long years of exposure can be traced to the differences between the L1 and L2 prosodic structures. The grammatical domain under investigation is the morpho-phonological production of the definite article, *the*, which sits at the syntax/phonology interface. First, the prosodification of the definite article (like elements) in English, Spanish and Turkish will be given. Next, previous work on the interlanguage of end-state speakers will be discussed. The methodology of the study will be outlined followed by a thorough discussion of the findings.
Prosodification of definiteness in English, Spanish and Turkish

For the purposes of this study, the presentation of the prosodification of definiteness will be limited to how the definite article is prosodified in English, Spanish and Turkish. To have an understanding of the prosodification of definiteness across these three languages, the adopted framework is the prosodic hierarchy as suggested by Selkirk (1978). The prosodic structure for the utterance *I saw the inspector give the boy a dog* is given in the prosodic hierarchy in Figure 1:

![Prosodic hierarchy diagram]

As given in the figure above, the smallest unit in the hierarchy is the mora. The syllable comes next in the hierarchy, followed by the foot, which is comprised of a stressed and unstressed syllable. One step further in the hierarchy, is the prosodic word, which includes only a lexical word. The level of the prosodic hierarchy that this paper is concerned with is the phonological phrase (PP), *the inspector*, which is formed by a function and a lexical word as shown in Figure 1. For the purposes of this paper, the L2 speakers coming from two different first language prosodic structures; Turkish and Spanish were chosen, and their definite article durations were analyzed. Figure 2 presents the prosodification of the definite article (like element)s across these three languages (Selkirk, 1996):

![Figure 2: Prosodification of article (like element)s in English, Spanish and Turkish]
The phonological phrase (PP) *the winner* or *el ganador* is prosodified in the same way both in English and Spanish as given in Figure 2. The articles, as the closed class functional grammatical items, act as free clitics and are prosodified at the level of PP in Spanish and English. The prosodic structure of Turkish, on the other hand, does not correspond to that of English or Spanish. Turkish, prosodifies its accusative case marker –(y)ı, which acts as a bound morpheme, at the level of prosodic word (PWd). What may give rise to the variability in the end-state interlanguage is predicted to be a violation of the prosodic structure in L2 English triggered by the L1 prosodic structure. In this sense, since the prosodic structure of Spanish corresponds to that of English, and the Spanish-English speaker is predicted not to violate the prosodic structure of English and treat the definite article, *the*, as a non-stressed element just like monolingual English speakers do. The Turkish-English speaker on the other hand, is expected to violate the prosodic structure of English by assigning longer article durations to the definite article. In other words, the definite article is assumed to be stressed if transfer from first language prosody still persisted in the end-state L2 grammars.

**Previous research on end-state speakers**

Despite long years of exposure to the target language and a high level of proficiency in the L2, deviance from near-nativeness in the learner interlanguage has been observed and much research has been dedicated to investigating why L2 learners who have reached ultimate attainment in an L2 still experience difficulty with the morphophonological productions of function morphemes (e.g., DeKeyser, 2005; Lardiere, 2005, 2013; Slabakova 2019; Trenkić, 2008; White, 2011). Such deviance is mostly observed in the form of omitting or overusing the functional element (Goad & White, 2004; Snape & Kupisch, 2010), which is, in some cases, followed or preceded by pauses or fillers (Goad & White, 2008; 2019). One end-state Turkish speaker of L2 English, *Serap*, for example, is reported to omit articles in her spontaneous speech recordings (see 4):

4. **ah, little boy is eating some ice cream** (White, 2003: 138)

In (4), *Serap*, omits the definite article in the phrase *little boy*. A Mandarin L2 speaker of English, *Paddy* is also found to omit the functional elements in her interlanguage (Lardiere, 2003). Even after residing in the US for long years, her suppliance rate of the past tense morpheme was quite low (see 5):

5. **went to school and learn** English (Lardiere, 2003: 178)

In (5) *Paddy*, uses the past tense morpheme optionally within the same utterance. Errors of overuse are also observed in end-state L2 grammars. *Serap*, for instance, overuses the definite article as italicized in (6) below:

6. **These days, generally, businesspeople wear...wear the ties** (White, 2003: 136)

Snape & Kupisch (2010) ran a narrow acoustic analysis to see whether the same speaker, *Serap*, who was residing in Canada at the time of data collection, (over)stressed articles.
To decide whether a particular morpheme is stressed or not, three measures can be considered: duration, pitch and intensity (Ladefoged, 2003). Snape & Kupish (2010) took average durations and pitch patterns as indicators that these non-stressed weak elements are (over)stressed. A definite article was considered stressed if its duration exceeded 120 milliseconds (ms.) and if a pitch fall occurred before and after the article and the fall exceeded –15 hertz (Hz) (p. 539). In her spontaneous speech, out of a total of 27 obligatory definite article contexts, Serap overstressed 19 of them with an average duration of 147 ms.

To account for variability in the use of function morphemes such as articles, one account, namely, The Prosodic Transfer Hypothesis (PTH) (Goad & White, 2004; 2006; 2008) focuses on omissions and non-target like prosodic representations of function morphemes in the second language. Omissions or variable morpho-phonological productions of these morphemes in the L2 can arise from a mismatch between the prosodic structures of the first and the second language. In the case of articles, which is the main focus of this paper, in the absence of the corresponding prosodic structures, the second language speakers are expected to omit articles or use compensating strategies such as substituting the article with a demonstrative or a numeral, using pauses and fillers or stressing these non-stressed functional elements. However, if the first language prosodic structure can be adapted onto the second language prosodic structure, at least minimally, then, the second language speakers are expected to have native-like productions of the function morphemes.

Thus, the PTH predicts the Spanish-English speaker to transfer the already existing corresponding prosodic structure from her first language. However, the Turkish-English speaker is expected to deviate from near-nativeness since there is no existing compatible prosodic structure to transfer from the first language. In the absence of a compatible L1 prosodic structure, the Turkish-English speaker is expected to have difficulty in forming the new prosodic structure in her L2 English. The PTH predicts that articles may not be acquirable by Turkish-English speakers even by those with an advanced level of proficiency in L2 English. These end-state speakers may end up as fossilized learners of L2 English in that specific grammatical domain. The Spanish-English speaker, on the other hand, is expected not to have any problems with native-like article productions. Thus, this study aims to test the role of first language prosody on definite article durations of three speakers coming from three different first language backgrounds in a self-paced reading task. The two adult learners who have reached an ultimate attainment in L2 English, are expected to show different stress patterns in their definite article productions.

Materials and Methods

Research Question and Predictions

The research question addressed in this case study is the following:

- Does first language prosody shape definite article durations in the interlanguage of end-state L2 speakers?
If this is the case, then, the Turkish-English (TE) speaker is expected to have statistically longer definite article durations than the Spanish-English (SE) and the Australian-English (AE) control speaker. No significant difference is expected in the definite article durations between the SE and AE speakers if the SE speaker adapted the existing corresponding L1 prosodic structure onto that of English without violating the English prosodic structure. The AE speaker is expected to have the shortest article durations.

**Procedure**

Ethics clearance for the study was obtained from Macquarie University Board of Ethics (ID: 5201100766D). The participants were recruited through fliers advertised in Sydney, Australia. First, the written consents of the participants were taken. Next, they were asked to complete the Australian version of the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q, Marian, et al., 2007) and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT IV, 4th edition, Dunn & Dunn, 2007) as measures of proficiency in L2 English. The participants were, then, invited into a sound attuned test room equipped with a computer set to capture their speech. Before the recording started, the participants were given a copy of the standardized Australian version of one of Aesop’s fables, *the North Wind and The Sun*¹ and were asked to rehearse it for 3-5 minutes during which they were encouraged to read the fable out loud. Each participant was asked to read the fable three times. The self-paced readings of the participants were recorded using Pro Tools LE at a sampling rate of 44.1 K. The overall procedure did not take more than an hour and the participants were given a gift card each at the end of the session.

**Participants**

Three female Australian residents who earned a college degree in an English-speaking country took part in the study. The TE speaker was 56, the SE speaker was 39 and the AE was 34 years old when the testing took place. There was no statistical difference between the PPVT-IV scores of the participants. At the time of the data collection, all the participants had lived in an English-speaking country for at least 10 years. Based on their responses to the language background questionnaire, the second language speakers rated their level of proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking in English as 9 out of 10. However, they reported to have moderate L1 accent in their L2 English,

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¹ *The North Wind and the Sun*

*The North Wind and the Sun* were disputing, which was *the* stronger, when a traveller came along wrapped in a warm cloak. They agreed that *the* one who first succeeded in making *the* traveller take his cloak off should be considered stronger than *the* other. Then *the* North Wind blew as hard as he could, but *the* more he blew *the* more closely did *the* traveller fold his cloak around him, and at last *the* North Wind gave up *the* attempt. Then *the* Sun shone out warmly, and immediately *the* traveller took off his cloak. And so, *the* North Wind was obliged to confess that *the* Sun was *the* stronger of the two.
rating themselves as 5 and 6 out of 10 as to how native-like they sounded. The L2 speakers reported that they were almost always identified as a non-native speaker of English by the native speakers of English.

Data Analysis
The second self-paced readings of the participants were included in the data analysis. The speech files with the definite article (n=17, see Footnote 1) were extracted and coded by two trained coders using the software PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 2016). The reliability between the coders was .85. The discrepancies between the coders were resolved by a third coder prior to the descriptive and inferential statistical analyses of the durations. A Factorial ANOVA analysis was conducted to analyze the differences between the mean durations of the articles using SPSS (version 25). The mean durations, the factorial ANOVA analysis and post-hoc comparisons will be reported in the next section.

Results
A one-way ANOVA analysis was used to test for mean durational differences between the three speakers to see if the first language prosody had an effect on the mean durations of the definite article productions in the second language. Mean durations for the definite article in the self-paced reading task differed significantly across the three speakers, $F(2, 45) = 5.80, p = .006$).

Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the three speakers indicated that the TE speaker ($m = 77.56, 95\% \text{ CI } [69.80, 85.33]$) had significantly longer durations for the definite article than the AE speaker ($m = 55.25, 95\% \text{ CI } [48.46, 62.04]$), ($p = .006$). The SE speaker ($m = 72.94, 95\% \text{ CI } [58.13, 87.74]$) also had considerably longer durations than the native AE speaker ($p = .036$). The mean durational comparisons between the TE and the SE speakers were not statistically significant ($p = .783$). Note that none of the speakers exceeded 120ms. in their definite article duration assignments. As expected, the AE speaker had the shortest mean durations for the definite articles in the self-paced reading task.

Discussion
This paper investigated whether or not the first language prosodic structure constrained that of the second language. For this purpose, two end-state L2 speakers of English and a monolingual English speaker took part in a self-paced reading task. The aim was to test the persistence of L1 transfer from the first language in end-state grammars of second language speakers coming from first languages which have (mis)matching prosodic structures corresponding to that of English. The Prosodic Transfer Hypothesis predicts deviant production of function morphemes, the definite article in this case, in the interlanguage of second language speakers who come from a first language with a mismatching prosodic structure.
One of the predictions made by the Prosodic Transfer Hypothesis (PTH) regarding (over)stressed articles in L2 English is not fully confirmed in this study. Recall that one indication of whether or not the definite article is treated as a stressed element was determined by measuring its duration. Following Snape and Kupisch (2010), the definite article productions were taken to be stressed in this paper if the durations exceeded 120 ms. First, none of the analyzed definite article durations of the Turkish-English (TE) speaker exceeded 120ms. As predicted, the Spanish-English (SE) speaker also did not stress the definite article by exceeding 120ms. Second, no statistical difference existed between the definite article durations of the SE and the TE speaker even though the speakers came from first languages with different prosodic structures. However, these L2 speakers differed statistically significantly from the Australian English (AE) speaker in terms of the mean article durations. The finding that the TE speaker had the longest durations of articles, followed by the SE and the AE speaker can be interpreted as support for the PTH.

The findings of this study suggest that L1 prosody constrains L2 prosodic structures. Yet, coming from a mismatching first language prosody does not necessarily lead to a violation of the prosodic structure in the second language. Still both L2 speakers, regardless of their L1, treated the definite article statistically more differently than the native control speaker. One explanation for this finding could be that the L2 speakers in this study might have overcome L1 prosodic constraints so that they do not (over)stress articles, but they still do have longer article durations than the native speaker. One other explanation could be that both speakers might have built up their L2 prosodic structures by adapting the existing L1 prosodic structures. That is, the SE speaker could have adapted her L1 prosodic structure and the TE speaker could have built up a new prosodic structure compatible with the English prosody. The difficulty in the definite article production in this study for both L2 speakers might arise from the lack of the voiced interdental fricative /ð/ sound as in this /ðıs/ in Turkish and Spanish. The L2 speakers might have had longer article durations trying to produce the voiced interdental fricative sound or they might have lengthened the vowel in the definite article in the production process. And finally, contrary to the prediction outlined, the lack of a statistically significant difference between the definite article durations of the two L2 end-state speakers can be linked to the age of onset of exposure to the second language. Even though both L2 speakers reported to have similar levels of proficiency in their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills in English, they differed in terms of their ages of onset of L2 acquisition. More specifically, the TE speaker was 12 and the SE speaker was 17 years old when they were first exposed to English. What is more, the reported length of residence in an English-speaking country was 39 years for the TE speaker and 12 years for the SE speaker. The TE speaker reported that her daily exposure to L1 Turkish and L2 English was 50-50% and the SE speaker reported that her exposure to L1 Spanish was 30% and to L2 English was 70% on a daily basis. The lack of statistical difference between the definite article durations in L2 English between the TE and SE speakers can be attributed to the TE speaker’s earlier age of onset of exposure to the L2 and a longer length of residence in Australia, despite the SE speaker’s a higher self-reported daily exposure to the L2.
Conclusion
This is a case study, which concluded that the L1 prosodic structure can pose difficulties for L2 speakers of English. However, earlier exposure to the target language and more than 30 years of residence in the target country can contribute to near-native morpho-phonological productions of the function morphemes. Still, further research on different bilingual populations, testing the other predictions of the PTH, through different tasks, is needed to reach generalizable results about what is (not) acquirable in end-state grammars. The reader needs to be reminded that while running a narrow acoustic speech analysis, in addition to a measure of article durations, variables such as pitch patterns, intensity and vowel quality need to be taken into consideration in measuring definite article durations for future studies.

This study offers implications for foreign language classrooms. First, in order to attain proficiency in the L2 and achieve near-nativeness in L2 morpho-phonological productions, policy makers need to reconsider nationwide policies regarding the age of onset to L2 exposure and the time dedicated to L2 instruction in foreign language classrooms. L2 students studying at (junior) high schools need to be supported to take part in yearly exchange programs to master the prosody of the L2. As presented in this paper, earlier exposure to the first language, that is, possibly before puberty, and long years of residency in the target culture can prevent L2 grammars from fossilization at the very end stages of language acquisition. Second, pre-service and in-service foreign language teachers need to be instructed on L2 prosodic structure(s) and pronunciation strategies so that they could integrate relevant activities into their L2 teaching practices.

References


The North Wind and the Sun: A Fable by Aesop.


Abstract
In studies on the concept of metamorphosis, it has been found that living things transform into other creatures after metamorphosis, and the concept of metamorphosis is confused with process of change (Hürçan & Önder, 2012; Murat et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important to identify the insects that can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis. *Tenebrio molitor* L. insects show larval, pupal and adult development stages (Calıslar, 2017, Ravzanadıi et al., 2012). *Tenebrio molitor* L. used within the scope of the study is thought to be an exemplary material for understanding the potential of being an effective material in teaching the concept of metamorphosis. Within the scope of this study, a permanent teaching material that can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis was prepared by immersing the developmental stages of the *Tenebrio molitor* L. insect in an epoxy environment. The prepared material can be used in primary and secondary education science classes. In addition, students who experience fear or discontent with insects will have the opportunity to know and examine insects with this material. We continue to work on the effect of the teaching material prepared by students on their academic achievement and attitudes towards insects.

Keywords: environmental education, metamorphosis, *Tenebrio molitor*, epoksi

Introduction
The importance of environmental education increases with the increasing intensity of environmental problems (Coyle, 2005). It is very important to provide environmental education effectively in gaining positive attitude, behavior and basic knowledge towards the environment (Legault & Pelletier, 2000, Uzun & Sağlam, 2007). It is stated that the environmental-based acquisitions included in the curriculum are those that can be learned by doing and experiencing and that can be obtained with long observations (Tanrıverdi, 2009). In addition, tools and equipment used in teaching environments enable students to learn permanently and to be more active in activities (Kete & Ensari, 2010). Children often learn in concrete terms and can think hypothetically only when concrete examples are given. Formal thinking generally does not develop until the age of 14 and adulthood (Bybee & Sund, 1990; Kuhn, 1979; Inhelder, 1958). For this reason, the use of tools and equipment comes to the fore in the teaching of environment-based concepts. It is also important to use appropriate tools to teach the biology of invertebrates, which are an important part of environmental education, and their role in the ecosystem.
Insects, which make up a large group of invertebrates, are unconsciously destroyed by fear and discontent (Kellert, 1973). Insects provide benefits in pollination of plants, soil and environmental health, biological control, clarification of forensic events, scientific studies, drug production and in many areas (Uyar et al., 2018). Awareness of insects is essential to prevent them from being destroyed unconsciously. Therefore, in environmental education, it is necessary to introduce insects and teach the benefits of insects in the ecosystem (Weeks & Oseto, 2018).

In environmental education, we can focus on the rich diversity of the world by touching many harmless insects while learning about invertebrates (Bixler, 1990).

The advantages of using insects in environmental education:
- cost-effective or free (provided that they are collected from nature),
- effective and interesting,
- permanent learning,
- encouraging students' natural curiosity about the world (Matthews, 1997).

Insects can be beneficial in teaching some concepts related to environment and living things. One of these concepts is the concept of metamorphosis. Metamorphosis is the situation in which living things become similar to the main creature with some changes after hatching. However, the concept of metamorphosis is considered by some students as the growth of the living creature (Hürcan & Önder, 2012; Murat et al., 2010). While the growth event is a common feature for all living things, metamorphosis does not occur in all living things. Transfiguration is not a growth (Sinanoğlu, 2017). In studies on the concept of metamorphosis, it has been found that living things transform into other creatures after metamorphosis, and the concept of metamorphosis is confused with process change (Murat et al., 2010; Hürcan & Önder, 2012). Therefore, it is important to identify the insects that can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis.

Also known is mealworm, is *Tenebrio molitor* a type of insect produced for human and pet animal nutrition (Huis et al., 2013; Işık & Kırkpınar, 2016). However, *Tenebrio molitor* insects damage up to 15% of flour and grain production worldwide (Ekin & Yeşilayer, 2019). For this reason, mealworm is among the secondary pest species (Coşkuncu, 2004).

*Tenebrio molitor* insects, larval, pupal and adult development stages are seen (Calıslar, 2017; Ravzanadı et al., 2012). Their life span can vary between 9-12 months. The larvae hatch after 10-12 days and become adult larvae at the appropriate temperature (25 ° C) after 3-4 months. The length of the larvae varies between 20-32 mm, and the weight is in the range of 130-160 mg. Adult life span varies between 2-3 months (Calıslar, 2017; Hill, 2002).

It is that the used within the scope of the study has thought *Tenebrio molitor* the potential to be an effective material in the teaching of the concept of metamorphosis, and will be an exemplary material in understanding the role of a species described as "harmful" in
the ecosystem from a different perspective (such as its use in human and animal nutrition).

Synthetic polymers such as epoxy, silicone and polyester replace oils and water in biological tissues, transforming biological materials into a solidified teaching material that is closest to its original appearance, is dry, odourless, durable and does not harm health (Bilge O et al., 2014; Pashaei S, 2010; Singh O et al., 2013). These materials, especially used in medical education, provide a quality examination in examining all anatomical structures and smaller macroscopic structures that can be seen with the naked eye (DeJong and Henry RW, 2007; Steinke H, Rabi et al., 2008; Sargon & Tatar, 2014). Epoxies are a mixture of two starting compounds, resin and hardening agent. Epoxy is a quality resin and it is used for purposes such as adhesives, sealants and coatings to provide a gap-free insulation around components in areas where they are used (Karasyalı, 2009).

Within the scope of this study, of the *Tenebrio molitor* a permanent teaching material that can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis was prepared by embedding the developmental stages in a solidified environment.

**Purpose of the Study**

Within the scope of this study, it is aimed to prepare a permanent teaching material that can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis by embedding the developmental stages of the *Tenebrio molitor* insect in epoxy environmental.

**Methodology**

In the study, *Tenebrio molitor* larvae were placed in containers where wheat bran was used as a food bed to be fed on wheat bran. The water needs of the wolves were provided with potato, carrot and apple slices. Approximately 500 grams of feed is sufficient for 30 mealworms to be fed for 90 days (Calıslar, 2017; Ramos-Elorduy et al., 2002). Holes are made on the lid parts of the containers to allow enough air to enter. At this stage, it is very important that the inside of the container gets enough air. Because environments that do not get enough air create a living space for micro Arthropod creatures called Mite. In addition, as the direct penetration of light disturbs the insects, the insects were kept in dark environments. *Tenebrio molitor* insects in larval, pupal and adult stages of development With 70% ethyl alcohol, it was detected as closest to its vitality. Then embedded in epoxy according to the development order, permanent and useful teaching materials were prepared.

**Materials Required for Preparation of Epoxy Environment:**

- 1000 ml transparent epoxy resin
- 500 ml transparent epoxy hardening agent
- Larva, pupa and adult forms of the *Tenebrio molitor* insect
- 1 container to be used as a mold
- Syringe
- Blower lighter
- Mixing bowl (pet glass, etc.)
- Gloves
- Mask

The *Tenebrio molitor* epoxy material, which reflects the metamorphosis process of the insect, has been optimized through various trials. Below are the preparation stages of the material:

1) Add 5 ml of transparent epoxy hardening agent and 10 ml of resin to the mixing glass by syringe. For the mixture to harden, resin and hardening agent should be used at the rate of ½. To prevent air bubbles, first the epoxy hardening agent and then the resin must be added to the mixing container.

2) The mixture is mixed for 4-5 minutes at medium speed. If the mixture is not mixed sufficiently, the material does not dry for a long time. It should be waited for 10 minutes to remove the air bubbles occurring in the mixture (Figure 1). The drying time of the material is in the range of 12-24 hours. During this period, the material is protected against possible dust by covering the material with a thin cover.

Figure 1. The mixture which prepared using resin and hardener

Mixture poured into a plastic or silicone container. The container in which the mixture is poured should be in depth and width to accommodate the biological material to be placed in it.

3) After the mixture is poured into the container, the newly formed air bubbles can be removed with a jet lighter fired from a certain distance (approximately 10 cm).

4) The *tenebrio molitor* larva, pupa and adult forms of the insect are embedded in the epoxy environment with the aid of a syringe needle (Figure 2).
5) After the process is finished, the mixture is left to dry. The drying process takes place in approximately 12-16 hours. If faster drying is desired at this stage, epoxy drying machines with UV rays can be used.

Security precautions; Since the epoxy substance is a chemical substance, it is necessary to use gloves, masks and goggles during the preparation of the material. After the material dries, it can be used easily as it will become harmless to human health. It can be cleaned from surfaces contaminated with epoxy with the help of acetone.

Findings
Tenebrio molitor larvae were grown in containers where wheat bran was used as a food bed and at different developmental stages (larva, pupa and adult). It made of living material (Figure 3).

Figure 3. The developmental stages of the Tenebrio molitor insect a) Larva b) Pupa c-d) Adult stages

Tenebrio molitor larvae, pupae and adults Permanent and useful teaching materials were prepared by being embedded in epoxy environment as specified in the method according to the developmental stages (Figure 4). Transfiguration tenebrio molitor showing developmental stages materials are prepared in 3 different sizes in epoxy environment. These dimensions are; It can be arranged as 8x8x1.5 cm, 3x2.5x2 cm and 3x2.5x1 cm.
Figure 4. Development stages of *Tenebrio molitor* insect in epoxy materials and dimensions (length x width x width) a) 8 x 8 x 1.5 cm b) 3 x 2.5 x 2 cm c) 3 x 2.5 x 1 cm

**Discussion**

Studies have found that students have misconceptions about metamorphosis (Hürcan & Önder, 2012; Murat et al., 2010). *Tenebrio molitor* larvae, pupae and adults in the permanent and useful teaching materials were prepared by being embedded in epoxy environment according to their developmental stages (Figure 3). Yellowing was observed in the prepared materials after a while. It was found that the normal epoxy resin used in the study is not suitable for forming thick layers at one time. However, epoxy casting resin can be used to create thicker layers in one go. Therefore, in order to prevent yellowing in the material, epoxy casting resin can be preferred instead of normal epoxy, and an educational material that can be used for many years without yellowing can be prepared (Art, 2017).

**Conclusion**

The teaching material prepared in epoxy environment can be used in teaching the concept of metamorphosis in primary school science and secondary school biology lessons, in examining the anatomical structures of insects and in discussions about the roles of insects in the ecosystem. In addition, it is thought that the materials prepared may offer the students the opportunity to recognize and examine insects for students who experience fear or discontent with insects. Providing environmental education to students effectively is very important in terms of gaining positive attitude towards the environment, behavior and basic knowledge (Legault & Pelletier, 2000, Uzun & Sağlam, 2007). It is thought that the prepared material will increase the effect of the subject-oriented education since it enables the subject of metamorphosis to be concretized and taught. We continue to work on the effect of the teaching material prepared by students on their academic achievement and attitudes towards insects.

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