

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF MODERN EDUCATION STUDIES

ISSN: 2618-6209

**JON
MES**

**Volume 4
Number 2**

2020

*International Journal of Modern
Education Studies [IJONMES]*
ISSN: 2618-6209

December, 2020
Volume 4, No 2
<http://www.ijonmes.net>
dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes

The IJONMES is a refereed journal and has a double-blind review. Any manuscript submitted for consideration in publication in the IJONMES is reviewed by at least two international reviewers with expertise in the relevant subject area.

The IJONMES is published twice a year in the June and December months.

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International Journal of Modern Education Studies [IJONMES] is indexed in Ulrichsweb & Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, Worldcat, Proquest Exlibris, Bielefeld Academic Search Engine, MLA International Bibliography and international scientific indexes.

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CONTENTS		Pages
	Inside cover	i
	Generics Page	ii
	Contents	v
Articles:		
1.	Planning and Validating a Curriculum of Global Citizenship Education in Elementary Schools of Iran's Educational System	24
2.	Attitude Towards Research Among Masters Students in Makerere University Business School (MUBS), Uganda	42
3.	Teacher Cognition in Grammar Teaching: A Case Study in a Turkish EFL Context	57
4.	Refugee Education Coordinators in the Greek Educational System: Their Role as Mediators in Refugee Camps	81
5.	EFL Learners' Comprehension of Scalar Emotion Verbs	110

Planning and Validating a Curriculum of Global Citizenship Education in Elementary Schools of Iran's Educational System

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*International Journal of
Modern Education Studies*

December, 2020

Volume 4, No 2

Pages: 24-41

<http://www.ijonmes.net>
<http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes>

Article Info:

Received : 26.08.2020

Revision 1 : 18.09.2020

Revision 2 : 31.10.2020

Accepted : 22.11.2020

DOI:

10.51383/ijonmes.2020.52


Abstract:


The purpose of this study was to explore and delineate the curriculum of global citizenship education in elementary schools of Iran's educational system and to develop an exploratory model. In this exploratory research, based on the grounded theory, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 34 active members in the field of global citizenship. The themes and sub-themes of the curriculum of global citizenship education and their associations were explored within three steps of open, axial, and selective coding. To generalize the results of the qualitative phase and to validate the resulting model, a questionnaire was designed and completed by 387 elementary school teachers in Tehran, Iran. The analysis process in the qualitative phase included twelve themes of attention to necessity, goals, content, teacher's role, teaching-learning methods, evaluation, time, location, materials and resources, organizational factors, implicit learning, and program outcomes. In the quantitative phase, the hypotheses derived from the qualitative analysis were confirmed. Finally, according to the findings and the results, some guidelines are provided for implementing the program.


Keywords: Curriculum; Global Citizenship Education; Elementary Schools; Iran

Citation:

Poursalim, A., Arefi, M., & Fathi Vajargah, K. (2020). Planning and Validating a Curriculum of Global Citizenship Education in Elementary Schools of Iran's Educational System. *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, 4(2), 24-41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2020.52>

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization is on the rise as evidenced by emerging markets through a significant increase in industrialized nations, goods consumption, and the ever-broadening use of technology. Many educators, legislators, business professionals, and citizens around the world agree that primary, secondary, and post-secondary students must be prepared to live, work and thrive in a global community (Belt, 2016).

Therefore, global citizenship education is one of the important topics that can be applied to a lifelong learning perspective (UNESCO, 2014). In fact, global citizen education is the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that nurture informed, critical, active and responsible citizens about local, national and especially global issues (Davies, 2008; UNESCO, 2014). From Nodding's point of view, a global citizen is someone who can live effectively anywhere in the world through a global way of life (Rapoport, 2009).

Accordingly, many studies have shown that national citizenship education is an essential element of many formal education systems and many countries have now incorporated various aspects of global citizenship education into their curricula (Goren & Yemini, 2016). Nevertheless, global citizenship education is a controversial, argumentative and very complex concept. In this regard, not only there are different variances on definitions of global citizenship education, but also some believe that this concept somewhat does not seem legitimate (Mayo, Gaventa & Rooke, 2009; Davies, 2006). Similarly, Himmelfarb (2010) criticized the framework of cosmopolitan issues and global citizenship. The initial response to these criticisms is that global citizenship is not supposed to be a base for the whole world on a homogeneous and universal model of the western modernity (Beck & Grande, 2010); and to seek a general and universal understanding of a wide range of specific ethical issues (Held, 2010). Caney (2000), Beck and Grande (2010) expressed that global citizenship duties and respect for cultural diversity are consistent and necessary truths. Global citizenship education is often associated with an understanding of cultural diversity, and awareness of other cultures and participation in multicultural exchanges are among the main characteristics of a global citizen. Also, global citizenship is defined as the recognition of inter-global connectivity and the common relationship among human beings (and their environment) (Sherman, 2016). In this regard, Karlberg (as cited in Sherman, 2016, p. 3) also explained that global citizenship can play an important role in creating a peace-based society.

Also, according to Oxfam (2015), a global citizen refers to a person who is aware of the contemporary world, responsible for, and familiar with his or her role as a citizen in society. Besides, to respect the principles, values, customs, and culture of other nations, it has an active involvement at the local to the global level. Some see global citizenship as a descriptive term, intended to capture various crossborder identities, relationships and allegiances that have been developing during the current period of intensive globalization

(Jooste & Heleta, 2017). As well as, Global citizenship is defined as awareness, caring, and embracing cultural diversity while promoting social justice and sustainability, coupled with a sense of responsibility to act (Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2013). Accordingly, global citizenship education, seeking to build the knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes, needs learners to be able to contribute to a more inclusive, justice and peaceful world (UNESCO, 2015). What makes global citizenship education unique is to use the intentional protocols that allow students to identify the relationships they intrinsically have with others, regardless of age, gender, and race, as well as cultural or geographic distance (Hancock, 2017). Global citizenship has emerged in recent years as a policy agenda of organizations that are operating at all levels ranging from the local to the supra-national and can increasingly form the programming and curricula of educational institutions around the world (Hammond & Keating, 2017). Davies (2006) expressed that global citizenship education, given its potential for peace education, is particularly useful in conflict-ridden states and multi-cultural contexts.

The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) recently showed global citizenship education as one of the strategic areas of work of the United Education Program (2014–2017), and one of the three priorities of the United Nations Secretary-General's 'Global Education First Initiative' launched in September 2012. Since the turn of the twenty-first century, there has been increasing attention to both the usefulness of global citizenship as an agenda for education and its inherently contested nature. As global citizenship education is taken up around the world as part of United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 4, Target 7, it is vital to be studied (Pashby, Costa, Stein & Andreotti, 2020). Also, Social changes created by globalization in the twenty-first century have caused a paradigm shift in the role that schools play in socializing students. Whereas in the past, schools tried mostly to promote nationalistic values among students, today many schools are adopting a global citizenship perspective, seeking to prepare students for global competition, global problem solving and the changing nature of modern society in general (Goren & Yemini, 2015).

In this regard, in the document of 'Global Citizenship Education: An Emerging Perspective', UNESCO provides the rationale for the implementation of global citizenship education across different countries (Pais & Costa, 2020). In addition, according to the statements and goals, especially constructive and effective interaction with the world, which were mentioned in the existing vision documents inside and outside the country like the Education 2030 Agenda, in the vision document of the Islamic Republic of Iran, in the comprehensive scientific map of the country, and in the fundamental reform document of education in the Islamic Republic of Iran, the importance of global interactions, which in turn requires the existence of global citizens, has been emphasized. For example, some paragraphs of the fundamental reform document of education in the Islamic Republic of Iran (2011), which contain worldview approaches, can be manifestations of the need to pay

attention to the global citizenship education curriculum for this country. These paragraphs are as follows:

- Development and elevation of the human aspects of students' identities to strengthen rights-based, equitable, and loving relationships with all human beings around the world (Declaration of Values)
- Observance of social, health and environmental rights and responsibilities (macro goals)
- Development of education capacities and capabilities for active and constructive presence in international and regional arenas (macro strategies)
- The enjoyment of responsible spirit, excellence, and communication skills in family and social life from local to global levels (operational goals and strategies).

These documents especially those paragraphs which were mentioned as examples, are contrary to the opinion of some Western media believing that Iran is not a place for the democratic global citizen education. These documents, which are among the most important documents of education in Iran, show that the first and fundamental steps related to the global citizenship education have been taken in Iran and the platform has been prepared for the development of a global citizenship education curriculum.

Past studies have contributed to our understanding of the factors associated with global citizenship education. But, in spite of many research on global citizenship education (Tye, 2003; Santos, 2004; Golestani, 2006; Moizumi, 2010; Massey, 2013; Jett, 2013; Galipeau-Konate, 2014; Pugliese, 2015; Sklarwitz, 2015; & Hancock, 2017), variables related to this phenomenon, especially elementary education, have not been explored.

Among the educational levels, this study was conducted at the elementary schools, because this period is accompanied by new developments and conditions that greatly affect children's personality and social adjustment. Elementary level provides children with rapid change in their attitudes, values, and behaviors. In this period, the intellectual and personality configuration of children are formed in relation to others. Also, by providing the necessary education, their social relationships will be developed and their understanding of social and cultural issues will be widened.

Therefore, the final goal of the curriculum of global citizenship education is to transfer the curriculum to the classroom and school environment, and consequently to impact students' learning and development. The present study has attempted to clarify the variables, components, opportunities, and factors that influence the curriculum of global citizenship education for researchers, experts and policymakers.

In order to achieve the above objective, this study was conducted in two stages. In the first stage, the components of the curriculum of global citizenship education were identified in elementary schools. In the second stage, the quantitative study was used to generalize the

findings of the first stage and examine the relationship between the concepts and the obtained components. Thus, this study was conducted to address the following questions:

What are the features of an appropriate curriculum of global citizenship education according to faculty members', experts' and teachers' points of view?

How the sample is validated from the elementary school teachers' point of view in Tehran, Iran?

METHOD

In this mixed-methods study, to explore the structure of curriculum of global citizenship education, the qualitative method was firstly employed; in the next step, to confirm the structure in larger sample size and to improve the generalizability of the derived model, the quantitative stage was performed using teachers' opinions.

The qualitative data was gathered through personal interviews with experienced faculty members (11 persons), experts (5 persons) and teachers (18 persons) in the field of citizenship education. The conceptual model and themes were extracted after analyzing the data. A questionnaire was prepared based on the data obtained from the qualitative phase. The reliability and validity of the questionnaire were confirmed and, in the quantitative phase, given to teachers for validation and evaluation of the model.

A semi-structured interview was carried out by some experts to find out what experience they have about the issues without any orientation and attitude. In addition, to make the interviewees mentally prepared and regulate the interview process, the framework of the subject for the interview was already designed and provided to interviewees.

The purpose of the interview was to select knowledgeable and experienced interviewees so that the researcher forms his/her theoretical model. In this phase, data collection was continued until the classification of data and information reached saturation, and the theory was precisely and completely explained (Creswell, 2012). Since the aim of this study was to explore the dimensions of the curriculum of global citizenship education, the researcher tried to choose the participants who were relevant to the research subject in order for effective and reliable involvement in this project. To develop the study theory, purposive and snowball sampling methods were used to gain a deep understanding of the subject.

To evaluate the subject from different aspects, the participants were classified into three groups of faculty members, experts, and teachers. The guide and framework of the subject were sent to them prior to the interview to let them prepare for the subject and the method of the interview.

The researcher provided further details about the subject, goal, and method of the study at the beginning of the interview for interviewees. Most of the interviews with the members of each group were conducted face-to-face during the working hours in a quiet place, such as classes or offices. Seven interviews were conducted by telephone, and five interviews were conducted via Skype.

After conducting the interviews, the researcher evaluated the recorded interviews and began to identify the themes and sub-themes. Also, following the interview of the tenth member of faculty, the fifth expert, and the fifteenth teacher, theoretical data saturation was achieved and the researcher did not encounter any new ideas, but to promote the credibility of data saturation, the researcher interviewed one more member of faculty, one more expert, and three more teachers. The recorded interviews with the exact words, phrases, and sentences of the participants were transcribed as a valid basis for data analysis.

In order to ensure the validity of the mixed method and to confirm the accuracy of our findings from the perspective of researchers, participants, or readers of the report, the following actions were conducted (Creswell & Miller, 2000):

- Revision by members: three participants (one person from each group) revised the final report of the first stage, the analysis process, and the obtained themes.
- Evaluation by colleagues: two Ph.D. candidates of Curriculum Studies with the experience of working in public schools evaluated the axial coding, and their suggestions were used to develop the model.
- Cooperation of the participants: the participants contributed to data interpretation and analysis, concurrently.

In the quantitative phase, a questionnaire was prepared, items of which were directly derived from the transcribed interviews to have consistency between the items and the results of the qualitative phase. To reduce the risk of bias by the researcher and for the participants' better understanding, the items were extracted by the participants.

The content validity (credit) of the questionnaire was confirmed by the two teachers with Ph.D. degrees in the field of Curriculum Studies, and three members of faculty in the field of Curriculum Studies. The final questionnaire was developed after collecting the ideas of the above-mentioned individuals and applying the suggested revisions. The questionnaire consisted of 95 items rated using a 6-point Likert scale as 1) I strongly disagree, 2) I disagree, 3) I some-what disagree, 4) I somewhat agree, 5) I agree, and 6) I strongly agree.

In order to establish the reliability of the questionnaire and the internal consistency of the items, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. The designed questionnaire was distributed among a group of 29 teachers, who were excluded from the sample but were

included in the statistical population; Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to be 0.942, indicating the reliability of the questionnaire and internal consistency of its items.

The statistical population of this study in the quantitative stage included teachers of public girls' and boys' elementary schools in 19 districts of Tehran education. All schools in the statistical population were public schools, which are the most numerous in Iran. Multi-stage random sampling was used to select the participants. Seven districts out of these 19 districts were randomly selected, and consequently five schools of each district were randomly selected. In total, 387 questionnaires were distributed. Finally, after screening the data, removing the incomplete questionnaires and removing the missing items, the analysis was performed on 327 questionnaires (84% completion rate).

In the qualitative phase, data were analyzed through open, selective, and axial coding according to instructions offered by Strauss and Corbin (Strauss and Corbin, 1994). Data gathered in the quantitative stage were analyzed by using descriptive and multivariate correlation methods. Correlation analysis was performed in three steps of confirmatory factor analysis of the first order, confirmatory factor analysis of the second-order, and structural equation modeling. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS 24, and Lisrel version 8.8.

Lisrel software applies for testing and structural equations, and uses correlation and covariance among the measured variables in order to estimate or infer the load factor values, variances, and the latent variable errors. This software can be used for exploratory factor, second-order factor, confirmatory factor, and path analysis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

RESULTS

Study qualitative analysis is based on 34 interviews with members of faculty, experts, and teachers. Among 11 members of faculty (4 females and 7 males), there were one professor, five associate professors (2 females and 3 males) and five assistant professors (2 females and 3 males).

From the five experts (3 females and 2 males), two females and one male had the Ph.D. degree with more than 15 years of professional experience, and the others had MA degree with less than 15 years of professional experience.

There were 18 teachers (8 females and 10 males), that seven teachers (3 females and 4 male) had less than 15 years, and eleven teachers (5 females and 6 male) had more than 20 years of professional experience. Also, one female and three male teachers had Ph.D. degree. Two female and four male teachers were Ph.D. student, and the rest had MA degree.

Analysis of the results of the qualitative step indicated 12 themes and 24 sub-themes. Curriculum of global citizenship education was formed by necessity (social needs), goals

(aims and objectives), content (content organizing principles, principles of content selection), teaching-learning methods (selective principles of teaching-learning methods, approaches, and methods of teaching-learning), the role of the teacher (teacher characteristics, the executive responsibility of teachers), evaluation (assessment principles, methods of evaluation), time (allocated time for direct education, allocated time for non-direct education), location (location as a source of learning, location as a place of execution), materials and resources (physical or non-virtual resources, virtual resources), organizational factors (empowerment programs, organizational support), implicit learning (outside the school environment, school environment) and outcomes of the program (developing of the components of knowledge, skill, and attitude). Based on the established analyses, the conceptual model which illustrates the relationships between the main categories derived from the qualitative analysis process is plotted in Fig. 1. According to the model, the necessity and goals influence content; content influences strategies of the role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation, which in turn are affected by contextual factors including time, location, materials, and resources, as well as intervening conditions including organizational factors and implicit learning. Finally, these strategies have consequences such as developing the components of knowledge, skill, and attitude of learners.

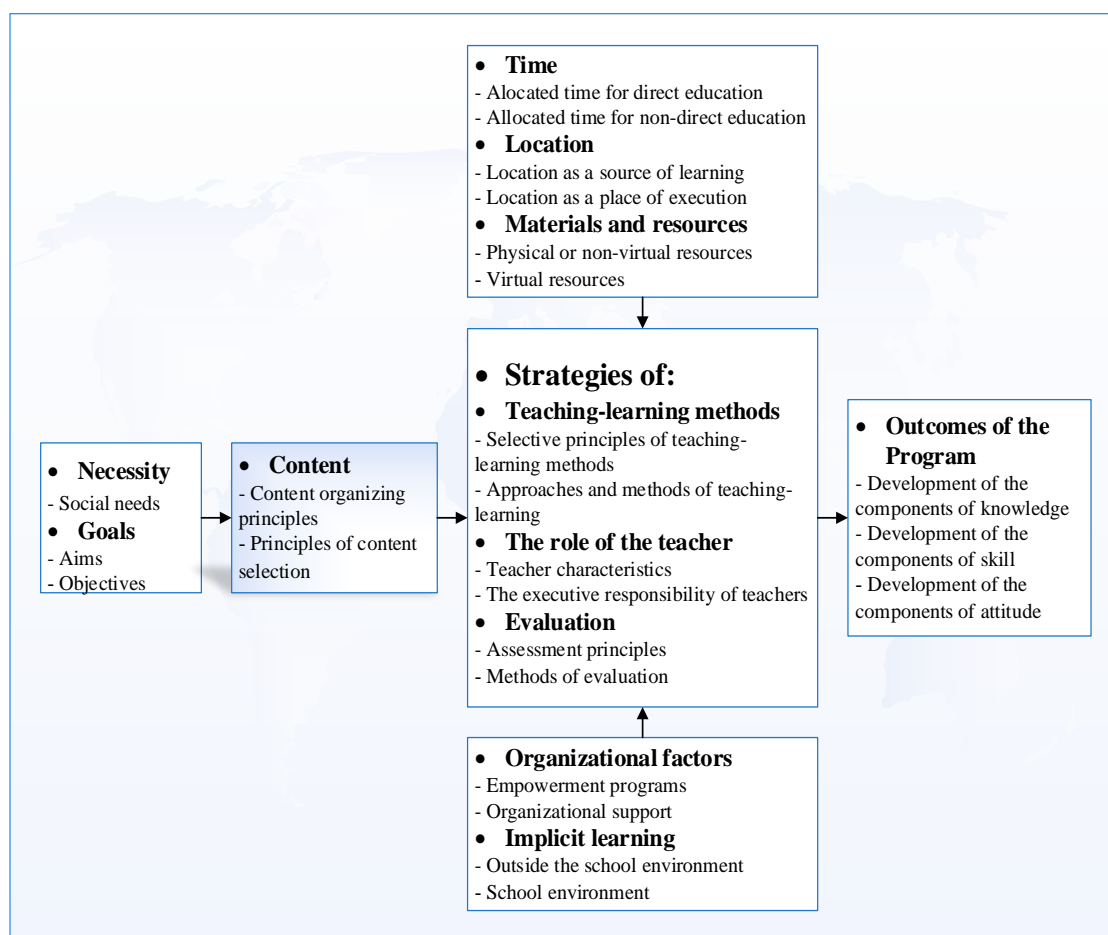


Fig. 1. Conceptual model of the curriculum of global citizenship education in elementary schools of Iran's educational system.

Quantitative analysis was performed on 327 questionnaires, all of which were fully completed. The questionnaire consisted of twelve categories (95 items), including consideration of necessity (8 items), goals (10 items), content (15 items), teaching-learning methods (12 items), the role of the teacher (7 items), evaluation (5 items), time (8 items), location (5 items), materials and resources (4 items), organizational factors (4 items), implicit learning (5 items) and outcomes of the program (12 items).

The frequency distribution of the participants in terms of gender, professional experience, and educational degrees revealed that 60.5% of the participants were males, 20.3% of them had less than 10 years, 60.9% between 20 and 20 years, and 18.8% between 21 and 30 years of professional experience. Also 2.2% of the participants had Diploma, 12.1% Associate degree, 57% BA, 25.5% MA, and 3.2% Ph.D.

Results of the quantitative phase of structural equation modeling, using Lisrel software, shows the structures and good fit of the data with the conceptual model (Table1).

Table 1. Fitting indices of the structural equation modeling of conceptual model

Fit index		Measure
Absolute fit indices	Chi - square (χ^2)	p<0.05 1340.65
	Relative χ^2 (χ^2/df)	between 2 & 3 (acceptable) and less (is better) 2.71(df:493)
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	≤ 0.05 (complete) ≤ 0.08 (acceptable) ≤ 0.10 (weak) 0.065
	Goodness of fit index (GFI)	≥ 0.95 Nearly to 0.95 is acceptable 0.96
	Incremental fit indices	Normed - fit index (NFI)
Comparative fit index (CFI)		≥ 0.95 Nearly to 0.95 is acceptable 0.99

df; the degree of freedom, Criteria for χ^2 , GFI, NFI, and CFI are adopted from Schumacker and Lomax (2010), for relative χ^2 from Kline (2015), and for RMSEA from Brown (2014)

The hypothesis derived from the conceptual model in the qualitative analysis was tested by structural equation modeling. The results confirmed that the necessity and goals influence content; content influences strategies of the role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation; also these strategies are themselves affected by the time, location, materials and resources as well as organizational factors and implicit learning; finally the outcomes of the program is influenced by the strategies (Table 2).

Table 2. Coefficients and meaningfulness of effects of issues on each other based on hypothesis derived from the model

Predictor variable	Criteria variable	Standardized β	t -value	p
Necessity	Content	0.41	6.66	0.001
Goals	Content	0.48	7.51	0.001
Content	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.63	7.73	0.001
Time	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.27	3.87	0.021
Location	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.37	5.54	0.006
Materials & resources	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.46	5.52	0.007
Organizational factors	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.19	2.91	0.041
Implicit learning	Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods and evaluation)	0.33	4.30	0.034
Strategies (role of the teacher, teaching-learning methods & evaluation)	Outcomes of the program	0.25	4.01	0.032

DISCUSSION

In conclusion, it should be noted that the phenomenon of globalization is an inevitable process influencing many areas like education. Therefore, local traditions and values can be promoted with suitable actions particularly by providing a model and designing an appropriate curriculum in this field, especially in the elementary school which is the period of the formation of learners' intellectual and personal framework, while preserving global knowledge and acquiring global citizenship.

Therefore, given the phenomenon of globalization and the necessity for a global view of education in society especially in learners, the emphasis of some national and international perspective documents on effective and constrictive interaction all over the world, attention to the advancement of science in the field of new technologies and the development of human across the globe, the tensions and conflicts between communities, endangering world peace, along with the development of civil and international societies such as UNESCO which has a special emphasis on global citizenship programs, this

curriculum should be considered as one of the most important tasks of any policymaker in education. In this regard, necessity as an important issue can have a special place in the curriculum of global citizenship education. Also, Hancock (2017) and Pugliese (2015) indicated the necessity for a curriculum of global citizenship education. In addition, the prevalence of international crime, terrorism, AIDS, soil degradation, habitat destruction, the extinction of some animal and plant species, desertification, and deforestation can also be added to the necessity for a curriculum of global citizenship education. These issues are beyond of national borders, which in turn create the necessity for global citizenship education. This necessity can be the basis for formulating curriculum goals, and we can extract the goals of the Curriculum of Global Citizenship education based on the necessities. These goals range from understanding human-environment relationships to understanding issues of justice and equality, racial discrimination, peace, human rights and the defense of human beings. Tye (2003) and Santos (2004) have also shown that the goals such as attention to the environment, peace and human rights, health (AIDS), and racial discrimination are the focus of attention. Therefore, concentration on the goals of this curriculum is essential. Because if the curriculum is designed and if there are efforts to continually improve it, specific goals are required. The content of the curriculum is also customizable according to the intended goals. In addition, content as an important element should be given special attention. In organizing content, specific attention should be paid to principles such as the range of concepts and topics, vertical and horizontal communications, and sequence logic. Also, content selection should be included the key components of global citizenship education such as responsibility education, empathy, creativity, lifelong learning, justice and equality and peace. Therefore, coherent planning to develop and design content for the curriculum of global citizenship education is needed.

It should also be noted that content as a core category has an effective role on strategies of the roles of the teacher, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation. The teacher as a curriculum administrator plays a very important role in this process as experts emphasize the role of the teachers in the curriculum of global citizenship education (Goren & Yemini, 2015). Therefore, being competent, skillful, experienced, up-to-date and knowledgeable, open-minded and holistic attitude, responsible and faithful in the teaching profession, having sufficient motivation and creating a favorable field for research and inquiry in learners, communicating appropriately and creating an intimate atmosphere for positive thinking, and enhancing learners' self-esteem, as well as fostering students' reasoning, creativity, and imagination, are qualities that a teacher should have in connection with the curriculum of the global citizenship education. In teaching-learning methods, we also seek to facilitate the transfer of knowledge and information to learners by emphasizing content acquisition methods. Thus, the principles such as enhancing creative and critical thinking skills, developing the ability to provide new solutions, teamwork and participatory learning, and employing methods to give learners freedom of action can be crucial and important in choosing teaching-learning methods. These principles are not easily applicable

and should be applied in the form of approaches and methods. In this regard, the use of new educational approaches and methods such as brainstorming, exploratory learning, storytelling, and role-playing, the judiciary method, as well as the use of collaborative and participatory approaches, and finally extracurricular activities can be very useful. Evaluation is also the centerpiece of any educational decision-making. Because learning is not meaningful and teaching is not properly done without proper evaluation. Therefore, it should be noted that evaluation is one of the most important strategies of the curriculum of global citizenship education. But this curriculum should go beyond the traditional form of evaluation, and different methods of evaluation should be used. In addition to using methods such as portfolio, self-evaluation, and multilevel evaluation, we need to consider the principles of evaluation including variation and combination, reinforcement of learners' divergent thinking, and comprehensiveness.

Elements of time, location, and materials and resources also provide specific contexts for strategies of the role of teacher, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation. The category of time is a time framework, wherein content, teaching-learning methods, materials, and resources are presented to achieve the goals. Based on the framework, the curriculum must provide optimal learning in terms of time. Therefore, the time should be adjusted to the desired extent to cover all of the characteristics, components, and goals of the curriculum of global citizenship education. Location can be seen as the context that processes of teaching-learning, evaluation and the active role of the teacher happens inside it, which in turn affects these processes. In this regard, a proper space for the number of learners, a suitable space for the creation of libraries and laboratories, a meeting room, a number of classrooms proportional to the number of learners, arrangement and suitable space for verbal and non-verbal communication are very important in creating a favorable educational environment. Materials and resources are also very effective in improving above-mentioned strategies especially in the teaching-learning process of learners. Educational resources include a set of materials or situations that facilitate learners' learning. There are many materials and resources including virtual resources such as the Internet, virtual social networks, computers, and other electronic devices. Also, physical resources such as photos, posters, illustrated books, educational videos, and wallpapers can be used.

Meantime, it should be noted that strategies of the role of teacher, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation, can be influenced by the organizational factors and the implicit learning of learners, and the teachers must adjust some of their actions based on these necessities. Organizational factors consists of the supportive atmosphere of the top organizations and institutions, and senior executives at the top. With their support in producing proper content as well as executing programs and fixing shortcomings, senior executives can be a good supporter of the curriculum of global citizenship education. They can also benefit this curriculum from their support by providing empowerment programs such as in-service training, teachers' engagement in producing educational content and teachers' participation in relevant seminars and conferences. Implicit learning refers to a

kind of learning that comes from the learner's mind through personal experience, skill, and knowledge, and there is no explicit planning for it. Thus, a learner can engage in non-formal learning, both in the school atmosphere and outside. In school atmosphere, this learning can take place in the school environment, the interactions between students, the classroom atmosphere, and other interactions in the school. Outside the school atmosphere, this learning occurs mostly in the family and peer groups, through the mass media, and in the cultural-educational environment of the community. This type of learning can sometimes create challenges for explicit curriculum and sometimes serve as a facilitator resource.

The role of the teacher in implicit learning is very vital and important. Because they can make good use of the implicit learning of the learner through an exact planning, and correct and review the implicit learning that is inconsistent with the explicit curriculum. Our results are consistent with the results of Santos's (2004) research. Also, the role of the teacher in dealing with the intervening conditions and, of course, with provided appropriate contexts, will lead to positive outcomes in the program results like developing the components of the knowledge, skill, and attitude. Results of Pugliese's research (2015) also confirm this statement.

Therefore, given the relationships found in our model, necessity can be the basis for formulating curriculum goals, and the curriculum of global citizenship education goals can be extracted based on the necessity. Also, the program content is customizable based on the goals extracted from the necessity. Content is a central category that has an impact on teaching-learning methods, teacher executive responsibility, and evaluation. In this regard, time, location, and materials and resources provide a special context for strategies of the role of teacher, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation where teacher has an influential role in teaching-learning methods and evaluation. It should be also noted that strategies of the role of teacher, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation can be influenced by learners' implicit learning and organizational factors, and the teacher must adjust some of their actions based on these factors. In addition, given the appropriate contexts, these strategies will lead to positive outcomes of the program, which in turn foster knowledge-based components such as political understanding and awareness of government and power and awareness of globalization and interdependencies. Also, developing the skills like critical thinking and criticism, effective communication, creativity and self-awareness, and teamwork and participation are the most important outcomes of this curriculum. As with students' attitudes, nurturing students with high self-esteem, responsibility, and commitment to social issues, committed to national and global values, committed to peace and human rights, concerned about the environment, and committed to social justice and equality are among the results that should be taken into consideration. The results of Jett's (2013) and Sklarwitz's (2015) are consistent with some of the components and features outlined in the category Outcome.

Although the curriculum of global citizenship education is placed between the ideals and the actual practice, a lot of works on this subject have been done all over the world. There has been a lot of supports from international organizations such as the United Nations, UNESCO, and UNICEF; nonprofits organizations like Oxfam have performed a great deal of research and they are the leading institutions in this field. However, there are still challenges associated with establishing this curriculum. In this regard, perhaps the most important prerequisite for establishing the curriculum of global citizenship education in elementary schools is to convince policymakers and planners about the importance of this curriculum and to explain its goals to them in order to refine and change their attitudes about the concept and goals of the Curriculum of Global Citizenship education to provide the funding needed to build primary infrastructure, and to reconsider the existing atmosphere of schools. Having deep knowledge of the curriculum of global citizenship education is one of the requirements for these people.

Since Iran is a multicultural country, with different ethnicities and religions, as well as environmental problems, and regional and international political conflicts; global citizenship education can make students more aware of the following issues:

- Ability to see the issues and how to deal with them as a citizen of the international community
- Ability to work collaboratively with others and accept responsibility for the role or task assigned.
- Ability to understand, accept and tolerate cultural differences.
- Ability to think in a critical and an organized way.
- Willingness to resolve their conflicts with others peacefully.
- Tendency to preserve the environment.
- Greater desire for freedom of expression, peace, human rights.
- Inclination to participate in political, economic and cultural activities at the local, national and international levels.

It is recommended that authorities attend various conferences and seminars on the importance, necessity, and position of global citizenship education. Also, they should use relevant training packages, and study in this area to increase the awareness of the curriculum of global citizenship education. In addition, specialized workgroups related to the elementary curriculum can be formed, and the aims and content of the elementary textbooks to incorporate concepts and components of global citizenship education should be substantially reviewed. In this regard, blended approaches of content organizing, which is a very important tool for curricula design, can be effectively used. Given the important role of teachers in the curriculum implementation, it is suggested that effective in-service training courses for increasing the knowledge, awareness, and understanding of teachers about the concepts, components, and elements of the curriculum should be held, so that they can also improve their existing deficiencies, and their teaching-learning and assessment

skills. Furthermore, teacher education centers and universities should modify their orientations about this curriculum, and share the concepts, principles, and goals of this curriculum with their instructors and learners. Also, considering the influential role of educational materials and resources in educating global citizens, it is recommended that schools can be equipped with virtual and non-virtual resources such as libraries, posters, photos, modules, educational videos, computers, electronic tools and equipment, and other influential materials and resources. Teaching and evaluation methods based on the curriculum of global citizenship education need special attention, because in the success of any approach, the implementation and evaluation have the same values as the goals of that approach. In this regard, it is suggested to utilize cooperative and blended teaching approaches as well as multilateral evaluation skills.

CONCLUSION

Global citizenship education is one of the important issues which needs special attention specifically for third world countries due to the phenomenon of globalization. As we discussed in this study, it is very useful to refer to the educational system of countries and their expert's opinions to formalize this issue. Therefore, since global citizenship education is an educational subject, schools, especially primary schools, can be pioneers in this field. In this regard, it should be noted that although the global citizenship education can be done outside of school, formal education provides better solutions and it is more structured. This study provides several practical guidelines in the curriculum of global citizenship education in elementary schools. First, a model that is used as a conceptual framework for educating global citizens in the elementary curriculum. This model has designed based on the knowledge, understanding, and experience of the majority of participants in global citizenship education inquiry, which is an appropriate criteria for a deeper understanding of the curriculum of global citizenship education. Second, the role of organizational factors especially organizational support is an unequivocal role in policymaking and developing a curriculum which is well addressed in this model. Finally, it can be stated that education must be regarded as an effective, inclusive, and lifelong commitment. In our world that technology changes rapidly, for learners' learning, education should pay attention to the diverse learning potentials and abilities of learners to participate at local, national, and global levels, rather than focusing on a particular cultural or political aspect.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the faculty members, experts and teachers in this study for sharing their valuable opinions. We also appreciate the anonymous reviewers who spent their time and helped us improve the manuscript with their valuable comments.

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Attitude Towards Research Among Masters Students in Makerere University Business School (MUBS), Uganda

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International Journal of Modern Education Studies

December, 2020

Volume 4, No 2

Pages: 42-56

<http://www.ijonmes.net>
<http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes>

Article Info:

Received : 05.04.2020

Revision 1 : 03.05.2020

Revision 2 : 20.09.2020

Accepted : 22.11.2020

DOI:

10.51383/ijonmes.2020.50


Abstract:


This study set out to examine the Masters students' attitudes towards research component of their programme. It was conducted in Makerere University Business School (MUBS) in Uganda. A phenomenological qualitative study approach was employed. The respondents were able to narrate their stories on their own experience when undertaking research. The selection of the 17 respondents who participated in this study was done using purposive technique. To be selected as a respondent in this study, one had to be a student of MUBS pursuing an MBA programme and had to have completed the coursework component of their work but had delayed in the programme due to failure to complete their research component in time. The student had to still being engaged in research without having sought a "dead period", an official period of withdrawal before resumption, or having internally decided to give the course a break. The findings revealed that the students' attitudes towards research was mainly influenced by supervision, the students' own abilities and their new environment at times causing anxiety and discomfort. Considering the results, it is recommended that the Business school be flexible in terms of selection of supervisors and also come up with adequate orientation programme on research.

Keywords: Attitude, MBA, research, and course work component, graduate studies

Citation:

Waweru, I. K., & Kyakuha, M. (2020). Attitude towards research among masters students in Makerere University Business School (MUBS), Uganda. *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, 4(2), 42-56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2020.50>

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INTRODUCTION

People undergo a process of interpreting their encounters with their environment which forms an attitude. In so doing, they form different perspectives which may enhance or reduce their progress. This takes the cognitive, affective and behavioural perspectives, to produce an attitude towards objects, people, or events (Robbins & Guest, 2017). Positive attitudes are an indicator that a person in question, believes that what they are engaged in is worthwhile. Such an attitude thus, serves to emit positive energies and motivation to pursue a given (Pickens, 2005).

A review of completion rates among students in graduate schools, strongly suggests that an inquest on the attitude of students towards research would be vital in informing the possible interventions to better the rates. Notably, worldwide there is concern over a large number of students that fail to complete the research component of their graduate studies in time, leading to delayed graduation or attrition (Rakes, Dunn & Rakes, 2013). Surprisingly, the said delay have been found to affect students from both the developed and developing world. In the developed world, a study conducted in US for instance found that students pursuing a master's spent an average of four years instead of the 2.5 (Anguino, 2010). Another study in Canada also revealed that in one university, by the year 2003 only 54% of the students pursuing a master's programme completed after 10 years.

In sub-Saharan Africa, statistics show that students undertaking a master's programme scheduled for duration of two years take an average of between three to four years, while those pursuing a three year PhD take an average of nine years (Omanga, 2017). In the Ugandan, the context of interest for this study, an earlier study conducted in Makerere University Business School (MUBS) found that the students who had enrolled for MBA between the years 2001-2006, 87% had failed to complete their studies in the minimum expected time of two years (Eyangu, Bagire and Kibrai, 2014). More recent results further showed that in MBA, which is the major programme in MUBS, the students that had not graduated in time were 95% in 2015, 95% in 2016 and 94% in 2017 (Makerere University, 2018). Surprisingly, majority of these students had successfully completed their course work component of their programme and thus the research component which is compulsory, largely explained the delay.

Delayed completion by students in graduate programmes has a serious impact on the effectiveness of African universities. A university like MUBS for example, increases annual intake for students in its master's programme without an equally proportionate increase of resources (Eyangu et al., 2014). With such an increase added to the backlog of students who fail to complete their studies in time, the universities suffer a strain on its service provider personnel like the supervisors and the key infrastructure like libraries and information technology which are vital for research. It is therefore not surprising that, if the situation is not reversed, then the trend would worsen.

Interventions aimed at improving completion among graduate students would partly entail understanding, the students' attitude towards about the whole research component. This is so since the available literature indicates that when students demonstrate negative attitude towards research, they demonstrate negative energies, keep on procrastinating, and eventually fail to complete their studies in time (Ahern & Manathunga, 2004). The interest of this study was therefore to conduct a scholarly work through an in-depth study to assess the attitude of students undertaking graduate studies in the Ugandan context with a view to shedding more light to the key stakeholders since it may help them initiate strategies that may improve performance.

Students' Attitude towards research

Attitude is a terminology that has been defined as judgmental phrases that a person has over an object, person or event under review (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Overall, a person may have a positive or negative attitude towards something. Students undertaking research as part of an examinable course unit may have positive attitude which implies that they judge the process as exciting, energising, and rewarding affair (Choy, Cheung & Li, 2006). The motivation to undertake the current study however, arose from the concern of a large number of graduate students who delay in their research work suggesting that their attitude tends towards negative.

Given the fact that attitude is build, it is worthwhile to identify its building blocks since interventions to positively influence attitude would largely rely on the same. Notably, a number of studies have consistently shown that students' attitude towards research has been instrumental in determining their success. In one of earlier studies for instance, Rothblum, Solomon and Murakami (1986) observed many graduate students that had delayed their studies demonstrated strange behaviours that involved anxiety which led to academic procrastination. Similarly, Bills (2004) found that the graduate students from University of Southern Australia, who either delayed or dropped out of their studies, advanced issues relating to supervision and conceptualisation of the topic as areas of concern. In respect to supervisors, it emerged that the students who easily progressed in their research indicated that they had a positive relationship with the earlier. However, most of the students who failed to complete their work in time had a challenge with the supervisors to the extent that, some had irreconcilable differences which necessitated a change of a supervisor a situation that took some more time. In terms of the conceptualisation of a topic, the students that who had delayed to complete their studies, had a hard time making several changes, a situation that led to giving up by some of them. In general, the said victims ended up demonstrating a generally negative attitude towards research process.

Equally, students' personal competences have also been found to influence their attitude towards research. In this respect, students who lack previous exposure in research are likely to experience challenges on conceptualisations and also articulating researchable

issues (Segawa & Rwelamila, 2009). This was for instance to be so in a review of the delayed completion of graduate studies in Sub Saharan Africa that found that academic writing skills was a major limitation of students' progress (Omanga, 2017). Given the fact that such students have to constantly revise their work, some of them may end up having a negative attitude towards research.

Further, the research environment has been found to influence the student's attitude where positive results have been registered. For instance, in a study on students pursuing post graduate studies in the University of Oxford, over 70% of students agreed they were satisfied with the quality of their research experience (Trigwell & Dunbar-Goddet, 2006). In particular, supervision was viewed as being supportive and the department as having an intellectual climate which entailed the adequacy of reference material and supportive staff. This was in support of an earlier study that had advanced the view that the supervision style, the perceived competence of supervisors and the intellectual climate of an environment affected the students' attitude towards research (Buttery, Richter & Filho, 2005). Again, in a related study conducted in the US, positive social environment under which a student operates during the research period yielded positive attitude (Gardner, 2008). In the study, it was revealed that where the students interacted with each other and a strong bond with the faculty community, positive affect and also positive energy outcomes were realised. On the contrary the students, who were working on their own, reportedly experienced social isolation which at times negatively impacted on their vigour to complete research.

It has also been found that the potential benefit associated with research, other than academic grade, have a share in influencing students attitude. In a study conducted in US, a group of undergraduate students were enthusiastic about research since they believed that they stood a better chance to add to their experience that would enhance their chances of getting jobs and also working with a mentor (Tykot et al., 2014).

In the university that formed the context of this study, a recent study suggests that there exists a high level of negative energy among the graduate students explaining a condition that majority of students in the school fail to complete their study in time and the main reason is their failure to complete the research component (Eyangu et al., 2014). The study examined completion rates of students pursuing MBA programme between 2001 and 2006, 82.6% of the student were found to have failed to complete their studies within time. Among the issues that were raised to explain the aforementioned state of affairs, was the dissatisfaction with supervision and inadequate support from the institution and also their work places which indicate a negative experience of the whole process. Unfortunately, despite the said observation, the performance has not improved in the subsequent years. Particularly, a review of the available data showed that in 2015, MBA students that had not graduated in time were 95%, 95% in 2016 and 94% in 2017 (Makerere University, 2018). While the said study had not taken the attitude as a tool of evaluation, there is an indication

that some students appear resigned and have posted negative attitude which would require to be changed if positive results are to be expected.

Conclusively, there have been a world-wide concern over the delay in completion of graduate studies. In many studies, students have been found to have had spent more than the minimum time in the research component of their programme. As a result, scholars have attempted to understand why the students delay in research and the possible interventions. A critical assessment of the widely shared factors suggest in accumulation, the factors build an attitude which then influence the success rates. However, not many studies specifically examined the graduate students' attitude towards research. More so, this scarcity is well pronounced African continent and Uganda in particular hence the need to undertake this study.

METHOD

In this study, qualitative phenomenological approach was deemed appropriate and was thus adopted. Such an approach helps to understand a phenomenon in question from the respondent's perspective. It also provides an in-depth account of life experiences and gives meaning (Burns & Grove, 2009). This approach was suitable for this study since the aim was to understand the students' lived experiences, feelings, and judgement about their research journey which is a compulsory component of their graduate studies.

The data was collected using a semi-structured interviews. This entailed some common shared open ended questions that was posed to all participants, and at the same time providing an allowance pose other questions where clarity was needed (Creswell, 2014). The method also gave the respondents a chance to add more information that they deemed appropriate. In order to enhance the validity of the questions in the interview guide, three experts who are members of National Council for Higher Education in Uganda were provided with the initial protocol for review. Their major proposal to frame the questions a way that avoids possible feelings of guilt since the respondents to this study were students who had taken longer than the set period for completion of their studies. Their observations were incorporated and the final interview guide was as follows.

Interview protocol

In this interview, we request you to share your experiences in your research journey this far.

May you please share with me your research experience so far.....

What are some of the key issues that you feel have had a significant impact on your progress so far?....

What are some experiences that your friends may have shared with you about their experiences in research?.....

What other important thing would you want to share about your research so far?.....

Participants

This study focused on the students taking MBA graduate programme at MUBS Uganda who had successfully completed their course work component of their study but had delayed in the research component which is compulsory in the institution. In total, 17 respondents participated who were selected using purposive technique. Purposive technique involves choosing a particular group of people that satisfy a given criteria (Creswell, 2014). An inclusion criteria was employed to ensure that the each participant was a student enrolled on an MBA, had successfully completed the coursework component of their study, but had delayed on their research component. Again the student had to have commenced their research component and was thus not on the official and unofficial academic deferral. The principle of point of data saturation was employed to determine the actual number of the participants. This was achieved after the 17th respondent given that no new information gained.

Instruments

An interview guide was prepared to help in data collection. The guide contained a set of predetermined questions that mainly aimed at assessing the students' experiences and their judgements towards the same. It also provided room for further probing.

Procedure

The study involved conducting face to face interview with each respondent at their specific time. All the interviews were conducted within the university MUBS. The average time spent with each interviewee was one and a half hours. Upon request, all the respondents accepted to have the interviews recorded was done using smart phones. One of the two interviewers would take short notes mainly on the respondents' non-verbal cues that could not be captured by the smart phone.

Ethical considerations

Research ethics principles demand that a researcher upholds values and moral standards, act in a professional manner, protect and respect the participants' welfare (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In a qualitative research, the respondents share their experience, which may sometimes include sensitive information and thus an extra care, is required (Creswell, 2014). In this study, the respondents were to share some critical information that needed to be treated with utmost confidentiality.

To ensure that the said principles are followed the researchers clearly introduced themselves to the respondents. Official invitation was made to potential respondents. All the respondents that agreed to participate were requested to sign an informed consent forms. They were informed that participation was voluntary. During the interviews time, a verbal introduction was also made to explain the purpose of the study. They were also informed of their right to withdraw at any time of the study without necessarily giving

reason. A requested to have an audio record of the interviews was made. Again a promise and commitment to keep their identities anonymous was made and kept.

Data Analysis

A content analysis (Hseih & Shannon, 2005) for this study. This analysis was very popular for analysing hymns, newspaper and magazine articles, advertisements and political speeches in the 19th century (Harwood & Garry, 2003) but its use has now been expanded to cover research areas in communication, journalism, sociology, psychology and business.

The recorded work was transcribed verbatim. This formed the content that was then reviewed and analysed according to emerging themes. A theme that was advanced over 7 respondents was highlighted.

Researchers' Role

When conducting a qualitative study, a researcher is part of the instrument and actively participates in attempting to understand what the respondents mean (Creswell, 2012). Such participation is therefore likely to introduce bias, and therefore a deliberate effort to reduce such bias is called for (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The researchers for this study had prior knowledge of the challenges that the students undertaking graduate research in MUBS were going through. In order not to seek to confirm such views, a commitment to remain neutral and avoid any sort of guiding questions was made and followed through. The respondents to narrate their own story and avoided making comparison of the previous narratives that the researchers had come across.

Trustworthiness of the Results

It is expected that trustworthiness in a qualitative study, which is equivalent to validity and reliability in a quantitative study, is obtained if the results are to be reliable (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). To ensure this was achieved, the guidelines advanced by Guba and Lincoln(1994) were followed. This included ensuring a prolonged engagement with the respondents, keeping an audit trail of all the information collected including notes, asking probing questions, and comparing the data with the available written records in the MUBS library.

RESULTS

A number of issues were advanced as important factors that influenced the students' attitude as elaborated under the following subheadings:

Generating a Research Topic

According to the respondents, nervousness dominates the period of coming up with a topic. Majority of the respondents argued that they barely had an idea of an appropriate research topic. Indeed, many of them had over three research topic ideas but upon scrutiny they later learnt that few would pass for a researchable topic. At a certain point some students would get frustrated after all the topics they had in mind were rejected by their supervisors. To some this took them over a period of two months.

In one narration a student said, "..... in the beginning, I had about five topics in mind. However, upon sharing each of them with my supervisor, none of the ideas would translate into a researchable topic that would fit within my scheduled time. Therefore I had to start all over again. After this I took two months before my topic was accepted. I have some colleagues who faced a similar challenge...."

Another student narrated, "..... I selected my topic but when I shared it with my supervisor, he flatly rejected my topic without giving an explanation. Instead he told me that if I wanted to research on the topic, I would have to request for another supervisor. I felt discouraged because the supervisor forced a research topic on me which was not my choice. However, I had to do it since I had limited options....."

Another one had this to say " , There are students from Netherlands who visit our university annually to undertake research in Uganda...When these students visit our country, students from MUBS are selected to act as interpreters when need be.. I was among the MUBS students that were selected to help them. As part of the package, we were encouraged to develop our research proposals and we conduct the research together which we would then use for our research component. I thus prepared my topic and joined them. This was done before our official research component course commenced. However, when I later presented the same topic to my official supervisor, he rubbished the whole work and I had to start afresh. This took me over a month....."

In yet another response a participant narrated. ".....I developed a topic which my supervisor agreed. However, after I had worked a great deal on my literature review, the lead supervisor suggestively said, 'can you examine this topic..... It sounds good and not many people have researched on it'. Since our supervisors' suggestions are like a command, this amounted to an indirectly imposed topic and I had to start afresh after three months."

Supervision

Relationship with Supervisors

Majority of the respondents indicated that dealing with supervisors was a delicate and one needs to be careful not to fall into problems. They elaborated that to a large extent, supervisors expects a patriarch treatment and any deviation from this norm would be detrimental to the students' progress. Again, availability of the supervisors, mode of

supervision and the time that the supervisors would be available was an issue of concern to many students.

In responding to this one student said, *“....We respect our supervisors very much and this is necessary if you are to make progress... However, some of them go overboard. I in particular fell into trouble, when my supervisor had approved a section of my work and went ahead with another chapter. However, in my next meeting with the supervisor after two weeks, he re-read my work and completely altered the part he had previously approved. When I brought this to his attention and attempted to protest, he became angry and arrogant and then told me that he can still rubbish the same work next time.....I apologised but then I decided to rest for a month after that before I met him again...”*

Another respondent pointed out that, *“..... It is just simple. Understand your supervisor and treat them accordingly. I learnt this late after I had lost too much time. At times I meet my supervisor in a hotel and buy refreshments. I have now made progress. He now helps me align my work. Although it may sound unethical, I need to complete my studies and leave ”*

Being Assigned Two Supervisors

Each student is assigned two supervisors and majority of students felt this was a source of stress. Majority of the respondents argued that two supervisors appear to create more confusion rather than add value. This is so since each supervisor needs to be regarded for who they are and also want to have their impact felt. They sometimes contradict each other making it hard for a student to decide what to do or even to strike a balance. The student also at times fails to know whether the supervisor should guide and advice or command the student.

One respondent narrated, *“I have these two supervisors and both are PhD holders. It is rare to be assigned two supervisors who are at the same academic level but it sometimes happens....In a normal occasion, the lead supervisor has a bigger say and the junior supervisor normally helps to identify a few flaws in students work. Whichever the case, you have to adhere to each supervisor’s requirement. .. the challenge I face now is that both of my supervisors always appear to contradict each other.... I have so far failed to reconcile each the supervisor’s requirement. For instance, I am stuck with my background and the statement of problem. While the first one was okay with what I did in my background, after about three weeks, my second supervisor recommended I completely change the background and restate the problem statement. At this point I got stuck.....I mean, students get stuck when they have two irreconcilable demand from two supervisors who hold similar qualifications because each want you to follow what they say.....”*

Another one noted, *“.....I believe having two supervisors wastes a lot of my time. While my first supervisor is accessible and good, my second supervisor doesn’t have time for me and keeps on changing the appointment time. I have tried to reach her on several occasions but it appears she is too busy. If it was within my choice, I wouldn’t wish to have two supervisors.”*

Further, another respondent noted, “.... It appears that I got a combination of supervisors who do not work together harmoniously. Whenever I meet one supervisor first, the other one tries to identify errors and instead of helping me she just wonders how the other supervisor would allow me does that. This is what has been happening to me....”.

The Faculty of Graduate Studies and Rresearch (GRC) Choosing the Supervisors on Behalf of Students

The respondents raised an issue of the faculty choosing the supervisors on behalf of the students. This at times leads to students being assigned supervisors that they don't get along with leading to a stressful relationship.

On this, one respondent felt that the supervisors were imposed on them and they did not like the way GRC accords supervisors. “..... I unofficially had approached a supervisor and shared with her my topic. I expected that she would be subsequently be assigned to me. I had selected her as my first choice since we propose up to four supervisors. However, she was not among the supervisors that I was assigned. My lead supervisor was not among the one that I had selected....I tried to protest but the response I received from the office is that for as long as the supervisors I was assigned were competent, there was no way they would be changed. I was disappointed with this..”

Another one noted, “.....In this campus, there are some lecturers whom students fear and given a choice, majority of the students would not select them. There are many reasons for that..... so when one is assigned them as their supervisors and since there is no option of appeal, one has to suffer.....”.

Research as a Lonely Journey

Majority of the respondents viewed the whole process as one dominated by loneliness and that requires commitment and sacrifice. Although they agreed that the presence of supervisors make the journey more bearable, the sudden break from the life they have been used to of working in groups and teams during the course work component of their study leaves them isolated. The respondents argued that it takes time to get used to the new reality. Thus, given the fact that students break away from their usual study methods and now embark on a largely individual struggle, they find it difficult to get used.

One respondents observed, “ ... When you are working as a group, you have a chance to brain storm and build up ideas. .. In research, you are alone... It makes the whole exercise challenging...”

Another one said, “I used to be with my friends but after some time we parted ways. I now no longer call them also.....It's a lonely affair.”

In yet another response a participant said, “ ...Since the moment I started my research, I have had little time for my family, religious services, friends....”

DISCUSSION

Generating a Research Topic

The students admitted that due to lack of previous exposure of research, they found it difficult to come up with a researchable topic and challenging. The findings indicate that the students normally have general ideas of topics without knowing whether they researchable or not. Students' own weaknesses in academic writing was also found to frustrate their effort when undertaking research leading to numerous rejection of their piece of work. The findings support what Segawa and Rwelamila (2009) had identified as a key cause of negative attitude towards research by Makerere University students. Many of the students experience difficulties in key conceptualisation which makes them fail to progress fast a fact that leads to demoralisation. Challenges with academic writing has widely been recorded as a major challenge among graduate students especially when they use a language other than their mother tongue. Numerous studies have found international students pursuing graduate studies in countries like USA (Cennetkuşu, 2014; Holmes et al., 2018), Pakistan (Yasmin, Saeed & Ahmad, 2018) and Malaysia (Sigh, 2014), among others experienced difficulties in academic writing using a second language which delayed their progress. In Africa, academic writing is a challenge to many since students normally use a second language for instruction and writing and are rarely involved in a rigorous academic writing until they enrol for graduate studies. It is thus not a surprise that students would develop a negative attitude when their weakness is continuously exposed and are thus forced to make changes in their work.

Supervision

The issue of supervision was found to be a serious one. The students appear to squarely lay their progress or lack of it on their supervisors. This finding suggests that supervisors are key players to the students' research and are thus instrumental in determining the latters' progress. The respondents in particular cited a more of top-bottom relationship that exist in their relationship with their supervisors and an aspect of submissiveness. This offers a more context-specific result which unsurprisingly can be said to apply in Uganda where traditional norms and patriarch form of custom exist. There is a presumed norm that as long as one is in a position of authority, they expect and deserve unqualified submission (Quinn, 2014). Regardless of the context differences however, the findings support previous scholarly works that have found student-supervisor relationship is vital for progress in research among graduate students. For instance, Trigwell and Dunbar-Goddet (2006) observed that the students who reported satisfaction with their research experience mentioned the quality, competence and ability to work along well with their supervisors as being important to their experience. Similarly, Bills (2004) found that

the students who had a challenge with the supervisors were among the category of students who took long to finish their studies.

Further, the findings indicate that the students felt burdened to have more than one supervisor some of who contradict each other making the students research experience challenging. The student felt that balancing the demands of two supervisors whose ideas are contrasting complicates their research experience. Such findings were observed by Enyangu et al. (2014) who observed that students felt pressurised by the demand to have two supervisors. Further, given the findings that suggests that students in the context under review are under the top-bottom relationship, the supervisors appear to be supervisors in the conventional work then, the principle of unit of command ought to have been observed. Unity of command requires that a subordinate reports to only one supervisor (Marume & Jubenkanda, 2016). It is thus not surprising that the students reported dissatisfaction with two supervisors who seem to wield substantial amount of power and some have conflicting expectations.

Again, the findings indicated that the Faculty's decision to choose supervisors on behalf of students is sometimes confusing. Imposing supervisors on students was identified as stressing and the attempt to change has been rejected. When the students discover that some of the supervisors they were given is not committed and their attempt to have them changed rejected, such students gets confused. The findings support the observations made by Bills (2004) that the failure to work well with supervisors contributed largely to negative evaluations of research experience by students.

Research Being a Lonely Journey

It also emerged that the respondents felt lonely in the process of carrying their research component. This was so since as it emerged, the students have to adjust from the immediate former study style that largely demanded them to work as teams and in groups. This finding were also noted to provide a contrast in the work of Trigwell and Dunbar-Goddet (2006) who found the students that reported to have a satisfying research experience as ones who had a supportive department and environment which ensured that the students were not lonely in their journey.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study only attracted 17 respondents. This size only gives an insight of the situation but cannot allow generalisation of the results. The study only applied a qualitative approach. Such an approach rarely provides the results that are generalisable.

There is therefore an opportunity of conducting a similar study using a mixed method. This is likely to give generalisable results. There is also an opportunity of conducting a

similar study in other institutions that has students pursuing graduate studies. This would enable comparison of results.

Given the above findings, the faculty of graduate studies need to consider the student's preferences of supervisors rather than merely matching student with a supervisor that is competent in the topic of choice. There are possible gains in flexing the requirement for a change of supervisor in case a relationship breakdown occurs. It also emerges that the Faculty should ensure that the students are prepared well enough to ensure that they are ready to carry on individual research. Finally, if it was possible to allow students to work in teams and be examined jointly in addition to the current individual research would possible solve some of the attitude challenges.

CONCLUSION

This study set out to examine the attitude of the research component of the students pursuing graduates studies at MUBS. The 17 selected respondents gave an insight of how they felt and noted that anxiety, feelings of loneliness and being stressed by either the supervisors or the decisions made by the faculty of graduate studies make them have low morale and not enjoy the whole process of research.

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Teacher Cognition in Grammar Teaching: A Case Study in a Turkish EFL Context

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*International Journal of
Modern Education Studies*

December, 2020

Volume 4, No 2

Pages: 57-80

<http://www.ijonmes.net>
<http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes>

Article Info:

Received : 11.08.2020

Revision 1 : 21.09.2020

Revision 2 : 15.10.2020

Accepted : 22.11.2020

DOI:

10.51383/ijonmes.2020.51

Abstract:


This Language Teacher Cognition (LTC) study primarily explores language teachers' beliefs and practices about a common Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) construct: Grammar Teaching (GT). This study also aims to investigate to what extent teacher beliefs and practices compromise with each other and cognitive and contextual factors behind their cognition. The data were collected through interviews, observations, and stimulated recall with the teachers. The findings after a cross-case analysis revealed that course book-based beliefs, experience-based beliefs, lack of theoretical knowledge and inclination for communicative activities influence what teachers believe about GT. There are both congruent and incongruent relationships between beliefs and practices varying from one teacher to another due to the effect of experiential knowledge, unconscious decisions, and some contextual factors. The findings can contribute to the integration of LTC into ISLA studies, and to LTC framework by exploring the effects of many variables on teachers' decision-making processes.

Keywords:

Language teacher cognition (LTC), grammar teaching (GT), teacher beliefs, teacher practices

Citation:

Başar, S. (2020). Teacher cognition in grammar teaching: A case study in a turkish efl context. *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, 4(2), 57-80. <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2020.51>

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INTRODUCTION

Language teacher cognition studies drew substantial attention especially in the last 25 years, and the number of studies conducted in this research domain has dramatically increased. Teacher cognition as a theoretical framework refers to a complex combination of knowledge, beliefs and thoughts hold by language teachers regarding their instructional decisions and actions (Borg, 2006). It is also foregrounded that this complex cognitive activity of teachers has its roots from their experience-based, personalized and context-sensitive perspectives and attitudes (Farrell & Lim, 2005). On the basis of this complexity, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices has been the interest of many studies in the field of Language Teacher Cognition (LTC).

LTC studies can provide an opportunity to explore teaching contexts for the situation in which language teachers deviate from their epistemological beliefs, which are related to teachers' teaching and learning philosophies, by adopting practices that are not in line with these beliefs (Basturkmen et al. 2004). Reasons for the consistency between stated beliefs and teachers' practices are attributed to the powerful influences of beliefs on language teaching (Pajares, 1992). As for the underlying reasons for the deviations from beliefs, several contextual factors are mentioned to have a role in adopting a teaching practice that is at odds with beliefs. Institutional curricula, time limitations, high-stakes examinations are among these contextual factors (Phipps & Borg, 2009). In this sense, both convergences between epistemological beliefs and instructional practices and divergences from stated beliefs have the potential to reveal the core cognition, which refers to more permanent beliefs compared to peripheral ones, beyond the teaching of language teachers.

There is lack of generalizability in L2 teaching studies in terms of the outcomes because of several factors including teaching styles, individual learner differences, power relationships, gender identities, religious beliefs and more (Long, 2017). Hence, the problem of generalizability requires examining other confounding variables such as teachers, their beliefs and their teaching more closely to have a deeper understanding of each instructional context and specific instruction that is implemented in that context. The inclusion of teacher cognition into grammar teaching studies can be beneficial in that teachers' epistemological beliefs shape the way they teach grammar, and it may be unlikely to change these beliefs with teacher education or research findings without creating an awareness and reflection opportunity to revise the aforementioned beliefs (Basturkmen, 2007; Borg, 2011). Thus, this study will offer a teaching context to be analysed on the basis of grammar teaching to bridge the gap between ISLA and LTC.

In addition to the gap between ISLA and LTC studies, the other problem in LTC studies is lack of comprehensive studies that encompass the cognitive and contextual factors considered to be influential in teacher cognition rather than a single variable such

as academic background, teaching experience, and learning experience. Lack of this kind of studies in the field regarding this relationship (Long, 2017) impedes having insight into how language teachers' beliefs and practices compromise with each other and to what extent cognitive and contextual factors affect the way they make instructional decisions.

In this sense, this study aimed to investigate belief systems of four EFL teachers and their classroom practices with regard to grammar teaching in a Turkish context. Starting with their general beliefs about grammar instructions, their actual performances are compared to their beliefs to see to what extent beliefs and practices correspond with each other and the underlying reasons for congruence and divergence between epistemological beliefs and observed practices. This study also aimed to contribute to the existing body of research by exploring teachers' beliefs in grammar teaching and relating them to ISLA studies in order to provide a perspective within which the role of instruction in language teaching can be analysed in a relatively more inclusive way. Correspondingly, this study aimed to provide a chance for teachers to reflect on their performances based on their beliefs, which offers a basis to have a better understanding of the rationale behind the relationships between stated beliefs and observed practices in addition to the effects of contextual factors on their beliefs and practices. For these purposes, following research questions formed the basis of the study:

1. What are the beliefs of language teachers regarding L2 grammar teaching?
2. What instructional practices do language teachers use to teach grammar?
3. How do teachers' cognition and their practice compromise with each other?
4. What are the reasons for consistencies or inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs?
5. What are the contextual factors influencing teachers' instructional decisions?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Language Teacher Cognition

Before the concept of teacher cognition started to be used dominantly in the literature, teacher belief was defined as “broadly as tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught” (Kagan, 1992, p.65). Teacher cognition is defined as “what teachers know, believe and think and teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Having aimed to operationalize the teacher cognition framework, Borg (2003) states that teacher cognition encapsulates “beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions, metaphors, conceptions and perspectives about teaching, teachers, learning, students, subject matter, curricula,

materials, activities, and self.” (p. 82). As for the factors shaping the dynamics of this operational definition, Borg (2003) puts forward four main factors: the role language learning experiences of teachers, their professional career, contextual realities, and teaching practices.

This complex nature of teacher cognition is claimed to have a significant influence on instructional decisions made by teachers in class and their pedagogical and instructional practices since teachers’ beliefs regarded as cognitive filters underlying teachers’ performances in instructional settings (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Likewise, Johnson’s (1994) educational research on teachers’ beliefs share three basic assumptions: (1) Teachers’ beliefs influence perception and judgment. (2) Teachers’ beliefs play a role in how information on teaching is translated into classroom practices. (3) Understanding teachers’ beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and teacher education programs (p. 439)

While consistencies are taken into account and considered to be key to language achievement, inconsistencies between beliefs and practices can also be the source of research studies (Karavas & Doukas, 1996; Richards et al., 2001). In this sense, Phipps and Borg (2009) claim that language teachers can have two different belief systems: peripheral and core beliefs. While they have core beliefs formed based on their ideology, teaching philosophy and education, they also adopt some peripheral beliefs that are at odds with their core beliefs. The reason for this is attributed to the contextual necessities urging teachers to adapt their beliefs and perform accordingly. Thus, it can be said that the inconsistencies occurring in class in terms of core beliefs and practices can be attributed to peripheral beliefs adopted by language teachers in order for a better learning environment. When it comes to the notions influencing teacher cognition, they include teachers’ learning experience, their pre-service education, and context in which they work (Johnson, 1994). Teachers’ previous language learning experiences can have substantial effects on their cognition (Holt Reynolds, 1992; Lortie, 1975). Likewise, teachers’ pre-service education is regarded as one of the main factors playing a role in teacher cognition (Jafarigohar & Kheiri, 2015); however, it is also acknowledged that what teachers believe as a part of teacher cognition can surpass the effect of teacher education (Kagan, 1992; Richardson 1996). As for the role of contextual factors, it is widely accepted that contextual factors of an institution such as timing, syllabus and students’ proficiency level and their attitudes can substantially influence teachers’ beliefs and their instructional decisions in those institutions (Andrews, 2007).

LTC in L2 Grammar Teaching

The studies conducted in the field carry a prominent potential to indicate what kind of variables influence teacher cognition and how these variables are reflected in L2 grammar teaching practices. Firstly, Farrell and Lim (2005) put forward the fact that language teachers’ beliefs and practices can constitute a unity in a compatible way in that

most of the beliefs and practices of language teachers were found to be consistent. Likewise, Sanchez and Borg (2014) revealed some findings that support this compatible aspect of beliefs and practices in that the participants were observed and it was found that their beliefs and practices consistently complement each other. The reason for this consistency was attributed to the flexible nature of the context because teachers were not restricted with the institutional policies and they were allowed to implement their pedagogies in class. However, this kind of context is not always available in all language learning environments. For instance, Nishimiro and Borg (2013) state that the participants in their study used teacher-led grammar instruction for 80% of the time and the teachers related it to the necessity to catch up with other classes, time limitations stemming from the pacing and the exams containing discrete-point grammar questions. Similarly, Moini (2009) touches upon the differences between state and private schools, which affects how language teachers perform. In this sense, is stated that language teachers in private schools carry out various activities compared to state schools and this difference is related to the limitations in state schools and the students' low motivation.

However, it is also possible to see that while there is a plausible context; language teachers may not adapt their previous cognition in accordance with the requirements of this context. Liviero (2017) points out that although there has been a new policy ensuring a more communicative, functional and skill-based curriculum for modern languages in England, the teachers maintained traditional approach. This mismatch is attributed to the teachers' personal language learning experience and the previous teaching context.

Apart from consistent and inconsistent relationships between beliefs and practices and the influence of contextual factors stated above, another finding that can be obtained from these research studies is the role of teachers' background in their cognition. Graus and Coppen (2016) conducted a study with undergraduate and postgraduate language teachers, and they revealed that the role of student expectations and teaching experience are in common in both groups. Besides, they differ from each other in that undergraduate teachers rely more on their language learning experience than postgraduate teachers do. In a similar study, Moini (2009) highlights that postgraduate teachers teach grammar inductively and form and meaning are integrated. However, undergraduate teachers teach L2 grammar more structurally and deductively. It can be inferred that the academic background of language teachers might have an influence on their cognition, however Borg and Burns (2008) revealed some findings that do not support the role of academic background. Accordingly, EFL teachers use a more integrated way of teaching grammar and it does not derive from teacher education, but their language teaching experience. Besides, another point emphasized by Moini (2009) is the role of experience in cognition. The study revealed that experienced teachers tend to pay less attention to grammar teaching than novice teachers do.

The studies conducted in the Turkish context provide some substantial points to take into account. Çakır and Kafa (2013) revealed that the language teachers mostly preferred to teach L2 grammar deductively through GTM and sometimes TPR. Even though the Ministry of National Education started the project of COC to implement a more communicative-oriented curriculum, the teachers expressed that shared L1, their language learning experience and the practicality of GTM encouraged them to use it in class. Similarly, Uysal and Bardakçı (2014) revealed similar findings and added that time constraints, crowded classrooms, and low motivation prevented them from adopting a more communicative approach. As stated in Liviero's (2017) study, teachers appear to have resistance to adopt new approaches because of cognitive and contextual factors. This kind of inconsistencies was studied by Phipps and Borg (2009) and it is stated that even though teachers may have core (theoretical) beliefs, they may rely on their peripheral (experiential) beliefs because of the necessities arising from the context. The distinction between two belief systems explains the inconsistencies between beliefs and practices. In addition, there is common ground that Turkish EFL teachers have a tendency to implement traditional grammar teaching methods that are based on discrete-point, explicit and deductive instruction no matter what they believe and what they are suggested to do through curriculum (Çakır & Kafa, 2013; Hoş & Kekeç, 2014; Uysal & Bardakçı, 2014). Reasons for this discrepancy are generally attributed to contextual factors such as time constraints, syllabus, students and materials.

Based on this piece of literature and overview, there are a few gaps that constitute the skeleton of this study. First, the studies include substantial dimensions; however, these dimensions studied in these articles are not comprehensive enough in that not all aspects of teacher cognition have been analysed in detail. So, this study focuses on teachers' beliefs, practices, the relationship of beliefs and practices, comparison of this relationship among the teachers, reasons for incongruence, contextual and cognitive factors affecting this relationship rather than working on a specific aspect of teacher cognition such as experience, academic background. Including these dimensions can yield a more comprehensive picture of the institution, which can contribute to the policies of the institution in terms of curricula, in-service teacher education, and materials. Another gap is related to the fact that research findings have not been discussed within the scope of ISLA studies, which means to what extent teachers know and apply what has been recently addressed in the field of second language acquisition. In this sense, this research study aims to provide the interplay between teacher cognition and ISLA from grammar teaching perspective.

METHOD

Research Participant and Data Collection

This study was conducted at a preparatory school of an English medium instruction university in Turkey. The preparatory school where the study was carried out hosts more than 1000 students. The lessons, 24 hours per week, include integrated skills taught under the title of main course, which means all skills including reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar and vocabulary are taught by means of a course book and complementary packs. 24 main course lessons are shared by three teachers for each class, and these teachers are expected to keep up with each other and complete the requirements of the weekly and monthly lesson plans. Additionally, these teachers complete 24 hours of teaching in a week in different classes.

Four EFL teachers (four females) working at this preparatory school participated in this study. Year of experience ranges from 1 to 15. The criteria “convenience of participants, their teaching context and willingness” were considered while selecting the participants. Additionally, sample participants were selected among teachers with various backgrounds to have a more comprehensive perspective on the topic covered in this research study (see Table 1).

Table 1

Participants' Academic Background

Name	Taught level	Years of experience	Education
İrem	Elementary	1	• B.A. English Language and Literature
Sezen	Elementary	10	• B.A. English Language Teaching
Ayça	Elementary	2	• B.A. English Language Teaching
Merve	Elementary	15	• B.A. English Language and Literature • M.A. American Culture and Literature

In this sense, two of the participants had to be experienced (over three years), and two of them had to be novice (less than three years). Both for the experienced and novice groups, one of them had to be an ELT graduate, and the other one had to be a non-ELT department graduate. These teachers are teaching at elementary levels. Among those teachers, two of them are graduates of English Language Teaching (ELT) department. The third and fourth ones are graduates of English Language and Literature (ELL) department. As for the year of experience, two teachers can be regarded as novice teachers as their year of experience does not exceed three years, but the other ones are experienced because one of them has been teaching for ten years and the other one has been teaching for fifteen

years. After the participants decided to take part in this study, they were informed about the processes and requirements of the research both verbally and inscriptively. As this study is based on an M.A. thesis conducted at Boğaziçi University, all data collections tools and procedures were reviewed for ethical concerns and approved by Boğaziçi University Institutional Review Board for Research with Human Subjects (application no: SBB-EAK 2018/37; approval no: 2018-38).

When it comes to my relationship with the participants, I could develop a good rapport with the teachers. Particularly, the participants voluntarily wanted to be a part of this study when I mentioned that I was working on teacher cognition. Also, as I had constant contact with the participants even before and after the study, I could interpret their cognition in the light of their personal profiles with which I was familiar, and I could reach them quickly in case of any ambiguity about the data.

Instrumentation

Selection of a small sample consisting of particular units of analysis and the aims of the study led me to use a qualitative case study methodology by employing cross-case analysis (Creswell, 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Case study methodology was chosen because it provides a chance for in-depth investigation of a contemporary social phenomenon within the context where the phenomenon and context are bounded (Yin, 2018). Likewise, case study methodology helps researchers to collect data considering the need for in-depth analysis of the multi-faceted aspect of the reality that is related to the context itself (Yin, 2018). For this reason, descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory research questions constitute the skeleton of this study in order to meet the requirements of case study methodology, which aims to have a holistic and naturalistic perspective towards individuals, group practices, and institutional processes and policies (Yin, 2018).

As the main focus is on teachers' in-depth cognitions and their instructional decisions, qualitative instruments can afford to provide an insight into the complex belief systems held by language teachers, which yielded use of three qualitative data collection instruments in a triangulated way within case study methodology: unstructured observation stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews supported with field notes, researcher memos, and artifacts. These qualitative data collection instruments were utilised to obtain naturalistic and descriptive data throughout the process inductively with a particular focus on meaning (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). In this sense, the naturalistic aspect of this case study can offer in-depth contextual information that can support research findings together with descriptive data that take everything into account without skipping even less critical details. The whole process is provided, and the procedures followed in data collection are used in inductive data analysis in order to obtain meaningful and comprehensive themes based on emerging codes. Also, meaning obtained from participants is triangulated with the data to reach a broader perspective to make meaning out of data.

For data collection, unstructured observation, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews were employed, and these instruments were supported with field notes and artifacts. The very first stage of data collection was unstructured observation during which the researcher was an observer as participant since the researcher's contact with the students was brief, formal and openly classified as observation (Burgess, 2011). Four participants' lessons were individually observed in the two-week period. For each participant, five lessons were observed. The lessons were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants. During the observation, the way grammar was taught was noted down with explanations.

For the second stage of the instrumentation, a stimulated-recall interview was carried out with each participant one or two days after their observed lessons. Each interview approximately lasted 30 minutes. The issues raised during these interviews were mostly associated with their practices in the class. A semi-structured model was employed so that participants could touch upon the issues which were not asked by the participants. This chance enabled participants to have an active role in the research rather than being passive objects (Holstein & Gubrium, 1997). Field notes were used in order to remind the teachers of substantial points occurred during the lessons. Consistent or inconsistent patterns of beliefs and practices, which was based on observed lessons and post-observation interviews, were provided with the teachers and they were expected to reflect upon them by giving the rationale behind their decisions.

The third stage of data collection was post-observation semi-structured interviews. Interview questions were prepared to elicit information about the participants' background learning and teaching profiles. Main questions were raised to have a basic understanding of their takes on grammar teaching and corrective feedback. Interviews were conducted individually soon after the last lesson that had been observed, and each interview took approximately 20 minutes (see Table 2). This instrument was expected to enable me to establish a positive relationship with interviewees by developing a good rapport, which was advantageous for the quality of data (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

Table 2

Instruments, Participants, and Timing of Data Collection

Instruments	Participants	Duration of Data Collection
Observation	4 EFL Teachers	5 lessons (each class)
Stimulated Recall Interview	4 EFL Teachers	30 minutes (each teacher)
Post-Observation Interview	4 EFL Teachers	20 minutes (each teacher)

Data Analysis

For each category of data sources (interviews, stimulated recalls and observation field notes), the data were triangulated and coded through a qualitative analysis software

(NVivo 11) in order to reach comprehensive themes to be used for analysis. The analysis process was meticulously carried out in order to obtain encapsulating themes based on the most frequent and recurring codes for all data sources. The data from the participants were compared to each other inductively through cross-case analysis (Creswell, 2007) to reach more comprehensive findings regarding the setting, focus activity and the participants.

For the beliefs held by the participants and their practices, the data from observation, field notes, stimulated recalls and interviews were analysed in a manner including thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998; Yin, 2009). Codification and developing coding system required to go through the data and note down “certain words, phrases, patterns of behavior, subjects’ way of thinking and events that repeat and stand out” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p.161). For the transcription of the interviews and the lessons, *Transcribe* was used. All transcribed data were analysed inductively (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Silverman, 1993) and cyclically since all stages of instrumentation were interrelated to one another and analysis of one stage was used as a basis for the next stage in a cumulative manner (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). All the data obtained through data collection instruments were triangulated (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The topics related to the research focus were coded based on these criteria. Additionally, the codes were grouped under appropriate categories for each research focus. These categories of codes were about their beliefs, practices, the degree of consistency between beliefs and practices and contextual factors influencing the relationship between these beliefs and practices.

FINDINGS

The findings inform about these four EFL teachers’ beliefs, practices and contextual factors influencing their beliefs and practices of grammar teaching in accordance with convergences and divergences among them. This cross-case analysis aimed to provide a more comprehensive framework that can enable us to compare what the teachers working in the same institution believe and practise, and to what extent contextual factors affect these beliefs and practices.

Grammar Teaching (GT) Beliefs

What the teachers believe about L2 grammar teaching can be investigated based on four main themes emerged from the data: (1) course book-based beliefs; (2) lack of theoretical knowledge; (3) experience-based beliefs; and (4) inclination for communicative activities.

Firstly, it was noted that Sezen and Ayça have a strong tendency to stick to the course book when they teach grammar, which means they usually follow the procedures

suggested in the course book. This tendency to rely on *course book-based beliefs* does not allow them to make use of more autonomous ways to teach L2 grammar. Instead of using adaptation or a different way to teach grammar, they prefer to depend on the course book as they think it is not necessary to come up with an alternative way to deliver the target structure. Sezen rationalizes her reliance on the course book as follows:

The course book and the other materials are appropriate enough. It includes both pair-work and group work, so I mostly depend on the book. For this reason, there is no room for teaching philosophy. I do not need it. It is important to be able to communicate, so communication is the main concern, not grammar. According to me, fluency is more important than accuracy for this reason (Sezen, Interview 2, 13 Nov 2018).

Even though İrem mostly depends on the course book for L2 grammar teaching, she is in favor of using additional activities to help students to understand and learn better. She states that she is fond of preparing extra worksheets including paraphrasing and rewriting and some games encouraging students to use target structure in a meaningful context. As for Merve, she strongly believes that it is not very effective to depend on the course book completely. She states that L2 grammar can be taught in an alternative way depending on the target structure, students' needs, and timing. She is prone to adapt the way grammar is suggested to be taught in the course book. She also believes that adaptation should not be restricted to the instruction since she thinks grammar activities and exercises provided within the course book may need some adaptation in order to obtain effective outcomes.

Secondly, the teachers were observed to have some characteristics in common in terms of *lack of theoretical knowledge* related to L2 grammar teaching because it is apparent that they lack theoretical knowledge that may constitute the underlying mechanism of their beliefs. No matter what they studied as their majors at university, the teachers themselves state that they do not know or remember the theories, approaches, and methodologies concerning L2 grammar teaching. Sezen and Ayça noted that they do not remember anything that they studied during their pre-service teaching education and they do not benefit from the theories or approaches taught at the university as they forgot them. As for İrem and Merve, they were able to mention a few methodologies even though they graduated from the literature department. İrem mentioned task-based approach and Merve informed about her use of Suggestopedia. Apart from these, they could not provide any further theoretical aspects of their belief systems. In this sense, İrem summarizes her theoretical background as follows:

I don't know many things about the theories. I attended the TESOL certification program, and I read a book written by Jeremy Harmer. Apart from this, I studied some theories for the job interview, but I don't remember them now. As far as I know, I think I have an eclectic approach. I don't use a unique method, and it depends. I like being flexible. (İrem, Interview 2, 20 Nov 2018)

Thirdly, one common belief shared by Sezen, İrem, and Merve is a reference to their *experience-based beliefs* to teach L2 grammar. Merve emphasizes the role of experience as follows:

I do many things without thinking that much. At that moment, I decide on the right thing for them and apply it. I am not an ELT graduate. I graduated from the Literature department. I rely on my experience and intuition, and I do not think it is disadvantageous.
(Merve, Interview 1, 3 Dec 2018)

In contrast to relying on their theoretical knowledge, they acknowledge that they count on their previous experience to teach L2 grammar. Additionally, they inform that it does not happen consciously as they make instant decisions in class based on their previous teaching experiences and they do know what works well. Sezen and Merve have been teaching for more than 10 years; however, İrem also states that she resorts to her previous teaching experience and it is her third year in teaching at tertiary level. As for another novice teacher, Ayça, she does not believe that the way she teaches is based on her previous experiences, which can be due to the fact that it is her first year in teaching at tertiary level. Even though she taught at primary level for two years, her being inexperienced in tertiary level might have kept from resorting to her previous teaching experience.

Finally, it can be noted that the teachers are inclined to teach in a more communicative way because of their *inclination for communicative activities*. They all state that their main objective is to enable the students to communicate in the target language, so they prioritize the communicative aspect of L2 grammar teaching. They believe that communicative activities encouraging the use of target structures can contribute to better learning. Aside from communicative activities to support grammar instruction, Merve touches upon the use of interaction while teaching grammar rules as well. In contrast to Sezen, İrem, and Ayça, she states that she prefers to present the target structure in an interactive and inductive way so that students can learn grammar rules more naturally and effectively. As for the reason for engaging students constantly to communicate, Merve explains that:

I have not questioned myself or the reason for that practice until you asked, it was unconscious. Maybe, we are six siblings. I am the elder one. I had to deal with them, and I knew that I would not be successful by ordering them. I used to make them do something willingly as I do for my children now. As for the students, firstly I try to make them feel eager to do something. They get it; they are not aware that they are learning. They talked to me at that time and so that they could learn unconsciously. (Merve, Interview 1, 3 Dec 2018)

Grammar Teaching (GT) Practices

This section of the results aims to shed light on what the teachers practise in their classes and to what extent these practices compromise with their aforementioned beliefs. Starting with the common practices observed in the teachers' lessons, they include the *use of extra examples, elicitation, controlled grammar practices* and *explicit grammar instruction*. These practices were observed to be used frequently during grammar teaching. As for the unique practices employed by each teacher, Sezen paid close attention to meaning while teaching the target structure in that she focused on the meaning of the structure in different contexts with the aim of having the students internalizing the meaning. İrem was observed to depart from the lesson plan via extra materials prepared to enhance the students' learning. She used some worksheets and made students rewrite some sentences that she had prepared beforehand. Merve employed some practical ways to grab her students' attention, and she tried to engage the students in the activities by relating the grammar practice questions to the students' lives. She also deliberately used L1 in order to urge her students to produce the target structure in L2. Additionally, she was observed to make use of pair-work as a step to prepare the students to have enough speaking material for whole-class speaking activities. When it comes to Ayça, it was noted that she used paraphrasing to make the students practise the target structure. She was also observed to use L1 frequently both for translation and giving instructions. In contrast to Merve's use of L1 consciously, she states that it is not a practice which she considers appropriate. She adds that she resorts to L1 for instructions and translation since she does not know what else to do to teach the target structure as follows:

I think it is not true. I do not think what is correct and what is not in language teaching. I do not know how we can teach without translation. I do not know very well; it is a deficit aspect of me. I thought it would be better to make use of L1 at that time because students look for something concrete and they want a logical reason for grammar. I do not like translation, and I believe it is not true, but I had to use it inevitably. (Ayça, Interview 1, 21 Dec 2018)

Relationship Between Beliefs and Practices

In addition to the similar and different practices performed by the teachers, the degree of consistency between their stated beliefs and instructional practices is another concern of cross-case analysis. In this sense, it can be noted that Merve has the most consistent relationship between her beliefs and practices followed by İrem, Sezen, and Ayça respectively. As there are no divergences from her stated beliefs based on the lessons observed during the study, it can be deduced that there is not a significant gap between what she believes and what she does in the class. She assertively states that she does not implement anything that she does not consider effective and she adds that whatever she did in the class is a part of her belief system. In response to the question about the reason for holding these beliefs, she bases her beliefs and practices on her experience, intuition, and improvisation rather than her theoretical knowledge. Likewise, İrem was observed to perform consistently considering her stated beliefs about L2 grammar teaching. One

aspect that makes her case different from Merve's is her being less decisive and sure about the reason for her beliefs since she had difficulty in explaining the reasons for her instructional decisions and elaborating on them. The reason why she hesitated to rationalize her beliefs might stem from her lack of theoretical and experiential knowledge about L2 grammar teaching. As for Sezen, even though her practices are mostly aligned with her beliefs, there are some incongruences related to her belief highlighting the importance of communicative activities. Despite the importance she attaches to the communicative aspect of grammar teaching, Sezen was observed not to adapt the activities to pave the way for communicative activities. Although there were some questions for which the students were eager to speak, she preferred to keep it short and continue with the grammar exercises. She states she does not know why she preferred to keep it short, which indicates an unconscious decision made in the class as follows:

Something happens to me when I go into the class. Even though I stick to the overall lesson plan, I do not have any idea about why I make some decisions about the flow of the lesson. Especially the detailed points that you declared. I do not decide on these decisions by myself. The class dynamics lead me to do so. As a result, I teach and interact differently in each class despite the same coursebook and the same content. I am not sure whether it is good or bad (Sezen, Interview 1, 7 Nov 2018).

Finally, it was noted that Ayça failed to perform in line with her stated beliefs since she does not believe the practices that she carried out in the class represent her belief system. She used L1 translation, L1 instruction and she neglected communicative activities that could have helped the students to produce the target structure. One point noticed in her case is the fact that her practices resemble her previous language learning experience, which shows that she might be under the influence of her own language learning experience because she lacks theoretical and experiential knowledge related to L2 grammar teaching. Moreover, she puts forward that she is not aware of her decisions in the class, which can be regarded as an indicator of lack of cognitive awareness about her actions.

To sum up, while there are some common practices that are performed by the teachers correspondingly, the teachers may differ from each other in terms of their preferences and the degree of the relationship between their beliefs and practices. There are two points that have to be noted down about their practices: practices based on experiential knowledge and unconscious decisions. The former one is evident in Sezen, İrem and Merve's cases in terms of the fact that they base their practices on their previous teaching experience and trial and error experiences. Also, the scope of the stated beliefs is limited compared to their practices and their explanations about these practices, which shows that their declarative knowledge is not as comprehensive as their procedural knowledge because of their reliance on their experiences. Considering the role of experiential knowledge, it can be seen that the most experienced teacher (Merve, 15 years)

performed the most consistent practices compared to less experienced teachers. As for unconscious decisions, it is a phenomenon which was observed in all of the teachers since they all state that they may make some unconscious decisions depending on the context regardless of a particular reason. While Sezen, İrem, and Ayça point out that they do not know why they make this kind of decisions, Merve relates it to her intuition.

Contextual Factors Affecting Beliefs and Practices

There is a variety of contextual factors stated by the teachers. The most frequent one is *time constraints*. Sezen, Merve, and Ayça think that timing problems and pacing restrict them to make more autonomous decisions. However, it was observed that Sezen and Ayça did not prefer to adapt the materials for communicative purposes in spite of having enough time. In contrast to them, Merve was able to adapt the material in accordance with her will. However, she states that it may not be possible to make autonomous decisions under time pressure. Another contextual factor is the *learners' profile*. Sezen acknowledges that the students are from technical departments, so they demand more analytical teaching, which hinders having a more communicative and creative learning environment. Likewise, Ayça complains about students' not being autonomous learners and their reluctance for self-study, which can be associated with her previous learner profile as she states that she learned the language mostly on her own. Apart from these, Ayça touches upon the *different dynamics of classes* in that she performs differently in her two classes, which can be considered a factor that changes teachers' practices regardless of their beliefs. Additionally, she complains about the *lack of technological aids* since she cannot make use of online tools. As for Merve, she focuses on *materials and standardization problems* stemming from these materials. As she is in favor of adaptation of the materials, she thinks that she does not have the liberty to adapt and change the materials in accordance with her beliefs. This is because the instructors are expected to cover the same material in a similar way for the sake of standardization. Finally, Ayça mentions that *the number of exams and exam coverages* restrict her to make autonomous decisions. Alongside this, she also complains about *overcrowded classrooms*. In contrast to her colleagues, Ayça states that contextual factors do not have a detrimental effect on her cognition as follows:

I think I am not capable of criticizing the curriculum or pacing because I am not a graduate of ELT department. I can apply what I have in mind. There is not a contextual factor affecting me. On my first days at school, my partner was very experienced. We used to share a class, and I remember I wished she would teach some grammar structures. I felt I was not qualified enough to teach complex grammar structures. The problems were about me, not the school. I am young, not experienced. I am afraid of not being taken seriously by students.
(İrem, Interview 2, 20 Nov 2018)

In conclusion, the teachers believe that these external factors detrimentally influence the way they teach. As it can be deduced from the aforementioned answers, contextual factors

and the degree of their influence on beliefs and practices can vary from one teacher to another.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to (1) explore the instructional practices that language teachers use to teach L2 grammar, (2) investigate their beliefs regarding L2 grammar teaching, (3) report the degree of consistency between their beliefs and practices and the reasons for inconsistencies and (4) shed light on the contextual factors impacting their beliefs and practices based on the interviews conducted with the language teachers, observation sessions and stimulated recalls carried out after these observations. The study was stated to be significant within the consideration of the fact that recent SLA studies in L2 grammar teaching lack comprehensive and generalizable results in language teaching since teacher cognition as a variable is not integrated into the studies despite its substantial effect on language teaching and learning. The second significance of this study was attributed to the necessity to carry out more qualitative studies in the field of language teacher cognition because of the fact that personal beliefs and practices in language teaching can vary significantly from one teacher to another. The third significance was related to the possible opportunities from which both the institute and language teachers can benefit.

To start with what the study suggests within the perspective of L2 grammar teaching based on the literature presented before, this study makes it possible to discuss the findings based on the literature about SLA and LTC. There have been a great number of studies about whether grammar should be taught (Spada, 2007; Gass & Varonis, 1994), comparison of inductive grammar teaching to deductive approach (DeKeyser, 1993), use of metalinguistic in grammar teaching (Garrett, 1986), effectiveness of grammar practices (Ellis, 2010), effectiveness of isolated form-focused instruction (Spada & Lightbown, 2008), and successful outcomes of integrated form-focused instruction (Elgün-Gündüz, Akcan, & Bayyurt, 2012). However, the findings reveal that the teachers are not aware of what is being discussed in the field, which hinders adopting a theoretical perspective towards teaching. As they were all informed about the notions related to SLA, it is possible to argue that they lack theoretical knowledge to construct their theoretical beliefs. Similarly, the studies conducted with the aim of investigating the aforementioned issues lack a teacher perspective as a variable, which might result in various implications in real classes differing from the study results. This variation is an indicator of the fact that language teachers substantially differ from one another and they may perform completely differently under the assumption that they teach a specific grammar structure through a particular method.

When it comes to the discussion of this study based on related studies conducted within Language Teacher Cognition (LTC) framework, there are both consistent and inconsistent results compared to existing literature. For the degree of consistency between

language teachers' beliefs and practices, some studies indicate that language teachers can have some beliefs and perform them consistently (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Farrell and Lim put forward that the teachers performed consistently except for a few divergences stemming from time constraints and reverence for traditional grammar teaching. According to Sanchez and Borg (2014), the consistent behaviours were the result of a teaching environment where there were not any restrictions that hindered the teachers. It is also stated that the teachers were able to come up with complex rationalizations behind their beliefs. However, this study reveals that there are both consistent and inconsistent relationships between beliefs and practices. While two teachers performed consistently (İrem and Merve), there are some inconsistencies in the other teachers' cases (Sezen and Ayça) stemming from cognitive and contextual factors. Also, it can be noted that the teachers failed to relate their consistent beliefs to complex rationalizations in contrast to the findings in Sanchez and Borg's (2014) study since they mostly based the reasons on their previous teaching experiences.

As for the inconsistencies, it can be said that there is a tension between their beliefs and practices. This tension can be related to the tension between core and peripheral beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009). While the former one is related to the broader underlying belief system of teachers (theoretical knowledge), the latter one (experiential knowledge) is a more powerful belief system which affects the instructional decisions which teachers make for teaching practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009). However, one difference from this tension that is conceptualized above is the fact that theoretical knowledge is quite limited compared to experiential knowledge, which results in instructional practices performed by relying on previous teaching (Sezen, İrem, and Merve) and previous learning experience (Ayça). Overall, it can be deduced that stated beliefs and instructional practices can be in line with each other, but they may also be at odds depending on some personal cognitive factors or external factors. Additionally, the reason for incongruences may not be rational as shown in some studies since language teachers may not be cognitively aware of the rationale behind some beliefs and practices.

Another dimension in LTC is language teachers' background and its effects on their teaching. The components of this background that is discussed in this study include teacher education and experience. In this sense, Graus and Coppen (2016) suggest that both graduate and undergraduate student teachers give reference to the academic courses that they have been taking for the factors influencing their beliefs and practices. However, none of the teachers in this study made such a connection between their cognition and academic courses taken at the university. Even though Sezen (experienced) and Ayça (novice) are graduates of English Language Teaching (ELT) department, they failed to refer to their academic background, which shows pre-service teacher education may not have a visible role in language teachers' belief system. Possible reasons for this deprivation can be related to forgetting the content of the courses and preference to rely on teaching experience. Besides, it can be because of not internalizing the theoretical and practical

knowledge that could have been acquired at university. Their educational background did not yield a significant difference compared to Merve (experienced) and İrem (novice), who are not graduates of ELT department.

Similarly, Borg and Burns (2008) show that the teachers prefer to teach grammar in an integrated way although it is claimed that teachers teaching adult learners tend to teach grammar explicitly (Schulz, 1996). It is also added that the teachers rely on their practical and experiential knowledge rather than basing their beliefs on an SLA perspective, which shows language teacher may construct beliefs by teaching practices. Considering the role of experience Moini (2008) states that experienced teachers pay less attention to grammar teaching compared to their novice colleagues. However, this study indicates that experience is not a significant factor inducing paying less attention to grammar since all the teachers prioritized grammar teaching and spent a similar amount of time on grammar teaching. Similar to what Moini (2008) puts forward, one experienced teacher frequently resorted to adaptation to make students speak more and one novice teacher used extra worksheets to support students' learning. However, the other experienced and novice teachers resemble each other in that they delivered the target structure in a similar way, which restrains us from making a generalization foregrounding that experienced teachers do not teach grammar as much as novice teachers do.

Differing from teaching experience, the learning experience is claimed to have a role in shaping language teachers' belief system (Liviero, 2017). However, there was not a strong indicator of the effect of the previous language learning experience on the teachers' teaching. The teachers also did not make such a connection between their actual teaching and learning experience. Nonetheless, one novice teacher (Ayça) expects students to make an effort to learn the language on their own by self-study, which was noted as an experience that she employed when she was learning the language. This attitude can be regarded as an effect of previous language learning experience since she thinks it is an effective way to learn the language. In this sense, it can be stated that educational background, teaching and learning experience do not solely induce a significant difference among teachers.

Contextual factors arose as detrimental factors preventing the teachers from building consistent relationships between teachers' beliefs and practices. Catching up with the syllabus and preparing students for exams and time limitation are considered some contextual factors hindering language teachers (Nishimiro & Borg, 2013). Likewise, this study revealed that time constraints, materials, exams, lack of teacher autonomy, standardized syllabus and various class dynamics might negatively influence the way the teachers perform. These detrimental factors can be taken into account by administrators in order to reduce incongruences by providing a more plausible learning environment for the teachers.

As for the studies conducted in Turkey, Çakır and Kafa (2013) revealed that the teachers were inclined to use Grammar Translation Method (GTM). This divergence from the curriculum was related to several reasons including the teachers' lack of knowledge in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), their previous learning experience, the inconvenience of the materials, shared L1 usage and the practicality of GTM in crowded classes. These findings are in line with what this study suggests in that the inconsistencies between beliefs and practices stem from some cognitive and contextual factors such as lack of theoretical knowledge, the inconvenience of the materials, shared L1. The previous language learning experience was found to influence the teachers. For instance, one teacher (Ayça) was under the influence of her previous learning experience, and she expected the students to learn on their own, which is not congruent with institutional curriculum objectives. Another study conducted by Uysal and Bardakçı (2014) touches upon consistent beliefs and practices of language teachers by showing that the teachers prefer to teach grammar in traditional ways through L1 and this practice is considered to be aligned with their stated beliefs despite the requirements of the curriculum based on CLT. Unlike these findings, this study indicates that the teachers have a tendency to teach grammar in communicative ways, but they may diverge from these beliefs in some cases, which results in inconsistencies.

One substantial point that can make this study different from above-mentioned studies is the fact that this study did not only focus on the degree of consistency between beliefs and practices, but also it aimed to reach more comprehensive findings including what language teachers think about SLA theories and approaches to bridge the gap between SLA and LTC by revealing their cognitive state of mind. This study distinctively shows that what language teachers know about SLA is quite limited and this lack of knowledge is compensated via experiential knowledge and this experiential knowledge constitutes the teachers' belief systems. A further insight that arose from this study is the lack of teachers' awareness of their instructional decisions. This deprivation may shed light on a deeper understanding of language teachers' mind since they tend to take many instructional decisions without having to base them on a particular belief. Another point that can be mentioned is the notion of inconsistencies stemming from contextual factors (Çakır & Kafa, 2013; Uysal & Bardakçı, 2014; Hoş & Kekeç, 2014). However, these factors can be minimized with the help of personal interventions such as adaptation, extra materials, and extra activity types as it can be seen in the teachers' cases.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the limitations of this study is the number of participants. More teachers from different backgrounds in the institute could have been invited to participate in the study. The inclusion of more teachers could have yielded a more comprehensive perspective towards the teachers' beliefs and practices. For this reason, prospective studies can

consider including more teachers unless there is a time constraint because of researchers' schedule. Another limitation is about the time allocated for observation sessions. Each teacher was observed for five lessons, which could have been increased in order to collect more data about their grammar teaching practices. For further studies, the number of observation sessions can be increased to collect more authentic data that can tell more about language teachers' practices.

The other limitation is the absence of interviews with administrators as they are the stakeholders of the institute and they have a substantial role in policy-making that can influence the contextual factors that were mentioned to affect the teachers detrimentally. As this study includes perspectives from teachers, how the administrators perceive the issues that are discussed in the study could have paved the way for a more comprehensive perspective towards teacher cognition.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study aimed to provide a particular perspective towards what language teachers believe concerning L2 grammar teaching, how they perform considering their stated beliefs and cognitive and contextual factors influencing their instructional decisions in order to contribute to the growing body of research conducted both in SLA and in LTC. This study also intended to bridge the gap between SLA and LTC by providing a reflection of how theoretical knowledge is perceived by language teachers and to what extent their implementations are aligned with what SLA suggests. As a possible contribution LTC, this study aimed to offer a comprehensive framework to have a better understanding of teacher cognition rather than relying on a single variable. In this sense, I paid attention to consider the variables studied in the literature such as teaching experience, previous language learning experience, and educational background. Selection of participants within the scope of these variables enabled me to compare and analyse the effects of these variables together compared to the studies focusing on the impact of a single variable.

With regard to these concerns, the findings show that teacher cognition is a complex theoretical framework in that what language teachers believe and how they instruct might compromise with each other in some cases; however, they may differ from one another since cognitive factors such as experience, personal views and insights, theoretical and practical knowledge and teaching orientation influence their decisions differently. The way they are affected by contextual factors such as time constraints, syllabus, and pacing, materials, students, and exams can be regarded as the other reason for the divergence. These cognitive and contextual factors also have a role in individual inconsistencies observed in language teachers. Based on what is discussed, this study helped the teachers to go through a cognitive process through which they were able to reflect on their beliefs

and practices. Consequently, apart from the possible academic contributions to the field, the findings obtained from the study can be used by the institutional administration to take some actions in order to improve the conditions that detrimentally hinder the teachers from implementing what they believe.

Acknowledgements

I would like to extend my special thanks to the participant teachers for helping me to conduct this study. They willingly shared their valuable time for the interviews and observation sessions, which made it possible to conduct this study. Also, I would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their comprehensive and constructive feedback that guided me to improve the manuscript.

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Refugee Education Coordinators in the Greek Educational System: Their Role as Mediators in Refugee Camps

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*International Journal of
Modern Education Studies*

December, 2020

Volume 4, No 2

Pages: 81-109

<http://www.ijonmes.net>
<http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes>

Article Info:

Received : 17.10.2020

Revision 1 : 18.11.2020

Accepted : 22.11.2020

DOI:

10.51383/ijonmes.2020.58

Abstract:

In Greece, the program for the integration of school-aged refugee children in public education has been implemented since 2016. An innovation established by the Greek Ministry of Education to facilitate refugee children's access to public school was the institution of the Refugee Education Coordinator (REC). The research explores the role of RECs regarding involvement of refugee parents. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were conducted with fourteen RECs positioned in refugee camps in order to acquire the qualitative data required to answer the research questions. The research participants considered that RECs had a determining role in raising refugee parents' awareness on the necessity of their children's schooling, as well as connecting them with their children's school.


Keywords:

Refugee education, refugee education coordinators, inclusive education, refugee and asylum seeker children, newly arrived students, post-migration ecology model

Citation:

Tsioupis, K., & Paidá, S. (2020). Refugee Education Coordinators in the Greek Educational System: their role as mediators in refugee camps. *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, (4),2, 81-109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2020.58>

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INTRODUCTION

In 2015, a large number of refugees crossed the Mediterranean to reach the European coastlines. Many of us remember the images of the refugees who “washed up” on the coastlines of the Aegean islands, and then the caravans of people crossing the mainland on foot, following the so-called Eastern Mediterranean - Western Balkans route. Since the closure of the Balkan route and the ‘legal’ passage to other European countries refugee and asylum-seekers have been urged to stay in Greece. Therefore, the Greek Ministry of Education faced the immense challenge of managing the education of the school-aged refugee population. In March 2016, the Ministry of Education decided to prepare a plan for the integration of refugee and asylum-seeker children into the Greek educational system and shortly in Autumn 2016 established the Reception Facilities for Refugee Education (DYEP) for refugee children residing in the refugee camps. In parallel, the institution of the Refugee Education Coordinator (REC) was established. RECs are permanent teachers of the Ministry of Education and are positioned in each refugee camp in order to facilitate refugee children’s school enrollment and attendance. In essence, RECs are assigned to bring the refugee population in contact with the Greek educational system and act as liaisons among the refugee camps, the school and the educational authorities. The research aspires to explore the way that RECs communicate and collaborate with refugee parents and empower their engagement in their children’s schooling. In particular, how communication and collaboration issues are faced by the RECs and the barriers faced by RECs in achieving effective cooperation with refugee parents. Eventually, to explore how RECs connect the refugee parents with the Greek educational system and inform refugee parents on the necessity of their children’s school enrollment and attendance.

SETTING THE SCENE

Models of refugee education worldwide

The mass arrival of forced migrants and refugees, in combination with rising extreme right nationalist movements has given prominence in the educational debate, in many European countries, to the issue of the educational policies implemented for the integration of newly arrived children. In the context of policies related to refugees, educational practices and barriers faced by refugee children attending school, Koehler & Schneider (2019) interestingly distinguish between the right to education and the obligation to attend school. The fact is that receiving countries should provide quality education and urgently take action in order to enroll refugee and asylum-seeker children to school (Koehler & Schneider, 2019, p.8). Koehler & Schneider (2019) raise the issue very aptly, arguing that the right to education “does not necessarily imply state action” unless refugee families claim for the right, even then, “the state may impose barriers, and there is no guarantee for the quality of the education that is offered” (p.8). On the other hand, the obligation to go to school also

compels states to take action for refugee and asylum-seeker children school attendance, therefore, “in the absence of obligatory school attendance, schools also have the right to reject refugee pupils” (Koehler & Schneider, 2019, p.8). And even when asylum-seeker and refugee children manage to enroll to school, research on education for these children has highlighted a number of inhibitory factors for their educational success (Anderson, Hamilton, Moore, Loewen & Frater-Mathieson, 2004; Block, Cross, Riggs & Gibbs, 2014; Frater-Mathieson, 2004; Hamilton & Moore, 2004; McBrien, 2005; Nilsson & Bunar, 2016; Taylor & Sidhu, 2012).

Relevant literature to refugee and migrant education directs attention to three major models adopted by schools intending to integrate newly arrived refugee, asylum seeker and immigrant students. These models are usually met in western receiving countries. The first model reported is the Separate Site model in which newly arrived students are placed in separate premises, namely exclusive schools, for a shorter or a longer period of time (Bunar, 2019; Koehler, 2017; Nilsson & Bunar, 2016; Short, 2002; Short & Boyson, 2012). The separate site model has been employed in the U.S.A and is addressed to newly-arrived middle and high school students, namely grades 6-12. The newly-arrived students are enrolled in mainstream schools close to their homes but attend separate site programs in separate premises for one year or less (Short, 2002; Short & Boyson, 2012). In Sweden, separate site schools have been established at local level. Such an example is the school for newcomers, aged 13–15, established in 2012 in the city of Malmö (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016). Furthermore, in Turkey primary and secondary separate site schools, namely “Temporary education centers” provide a modified Syrian curriculum to Syrian refugee students in the Arabic language. The curriculum was composed by the Syrian Interim Government’s Ministry of Education and the Turkish Ministry of National Education (Crul, 2017; Crul, Lelie, Biner, Bunar, Keskiner, Kokkali, Jens Schneider, & Shuayb, 2019; Human Rights Watch, 2015). Additionally, separate site schools, namely “second-shift schools”, operated between 2.00 and 6.30 pm in Lebanon for refugee Syrian students, “a preference to segregate Lebanese from Syrian students for fear that the latter would affect the learning of the former” (Crul, et al., 2019). The policy was questioned by the Syrian families for the quality of education provided and consider “second-shift schools” to be non-formal education (Crul, et al., 2019).

The second model presented in the literature is the Direct Immersion model in which all newly arrived students are placed directly in mainstream classes (Bunar, 2019; Grigt, 2017; Nilsson & Bunar, 2016). Support may be provided either in the classroom by a second teacher (Bunar, 2019) or outside the classroom through short extract classes or extracurricular activities (Bunar, 2019; Grigt, 2017). In Sweden support is not provided in all schools, while in others schools support is provided by a teacher who is familiar with students’ mother-tongue or a teacher who is responsible for teaching Swedish as second language (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016).

The third model encountered in the literature is the separate class or program within-a-school model. In this case, newly arrived students are placed in preparatory classes, also referred to as reception classes, transition classes or immersion classes, if they do not have the language skills to attend mainstream classes (Bunar, 2019; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019; Koehler, 2017; Nilsson & Axelsson, 2013; Short, 2002; Short & Boyson, 2012). Newly arrived students attend preparatory classes for one, or in some countries up to two years, until they are ready to join mainstream classes (Koehler, 2017). The separate class or program within-a-school model seems to opt in favour of the two other models. In relation to the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) of the European Commission report, published in 2019 in order to identify and record the measures taken by the European education systems to promote the well-being of students with migrant background, 33 education systems have adopted the separate class model out of the 42 European countries whose educational policies have been mapped in the report (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019). Additionally, from school year 1999 to 2000 out of 115 school programs for middle and high school newly arrived students in 29 states of the U.S.A., 89 of the schools adopted the program within-a-school model (Short, 2002). Eventually, in 2011, 38 out of 63 school programs for middle and high school newly arrived students in the U.S.A. adopted the program within-a-school model (Short & Boyson, 2012).

Towards an inclusive model of refugee education

The three models discussed above seem to have an assimilative perspective concerning policies and educational practices aiming to integrate children with a refugee background. All models focus individually on specific aspects such as the rapid learning of the language of the host country and adjustment to the new culture. Education is not only a cognitive investment for the future but also an essential tool for social inclusion and social well-being of refugee and asylum-seeker children (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003). Schools can provide a space for acculturation (Berry, 1997; 2004). *Acculturation* relates to policies of multiculturalism with an integrative perspective which motivate and support the protection of valuable elements of all cultures and simultaneously assist full participation of all ethno-cultural groups in the evolving establishments of the wider society (Berry, 2005). *Acculturation* refers to the cultural and psychological changes that occur to cultural groups and their members that come into contact, generating changes in both groups, the settled or dominant group as well as the non-dominant group (Berry, 2005).

Furthermore, schools can transform structures, policies, curriculum and pedagogies in order to provide teaching practices that lead to academic achievement (Matthews, 2008). Consequently, matters related to the education of refugee children as school attendance, lack of academic achievement, interrupted schooling or school dropout cannot be approached with an assimilative perspective that focuses on specific aspects of refugee children's needs. These matters can be approached with a holistic perspective that embraces

refugee and asylum-seeker children's multiple learning, social and emotional needs. In relation to the relevant literature to refugee education, policies, educational systems and pedagogical practices that adopt the holistic model and the whole-school approach provide schools the potential to reinforce refugee and asylum-seeker students' social inclusion, well-being and development. The school institutions that embrace the holistic model consider refugee and asylum-seeker students' multiple needs, promote family – school – community collaboration, employ a multi-agency approach, and educate these students with a child-centered approach (Arnot & Pinson, 2005; Bunar, 2019; Block, Cross, Riggs & Gibbs, 2014; Cerna, 2019; Mathews, 2008; Mohamed & Thomas, 2017; Pinson & Arnot, 2010; Taylor & Sidhu, 2012).

Bronfenbrenner's Ecology of Human Development

The Holistic model is based on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecology perspective of human development that can support family - school - community collaboration. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory describes the influence of the environment, or context, on child development and considers human development as a continuous change concerning the way an individual perceives his/her environment and deals with his/her environment. The ecological environment is conceived by Bronfenbrenner (1979) as a set of structures that are placed one inside another such as a set of Russian dolls. The developing individual is viewed as a dynamic entity that gradually moves into and transforms the environment in which it inhabits, while engaging in a reciprocal interaction with the environment. The developmental processes is not limited to a single environmental structure but incorporates interconnections between such structures, as well as influences emanating from the larger social context (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Under this perspective, Bronfenbrenner (1979) separates the structures of the environment in accordance to the impact they have on the developing child. These structures are referred by Bronfenbrenner (1979) as the micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems. Bronfenbrenner (1986) extended the environmental structures involving in his ecology of human development the chronosystem which supports the micro-, meso-, exo- and macrosystem. In this case, Bronfenbrenner (1986) incorporates a time and change dimension over the trajectory of life that accounts for changes that take place within the developing individual and also in the environment, hence providing research on human development the potential to analyze the interrelation between these two procedures.

An Ecology Approach to Refugee Education

Based on Bronfenbrenner's theory, a theoretical framework was developed by scholars of refugee and migration studies, termed post-migration ecology, aiming to understand and highlight the number and the interconnection of multilevel factors that affect the development and integration of immigrants and refugees in the receiving countries (Anderson et al., 2004; Hamilton, 2004; Rutter, 2006). Bronfenbrenner's ecology approach

enables researchers to examine different refugee populations through the same lens and perceive how the different ecology systems that overlap and interact influence the refugee children's development (Anderson et al., 2004, p. 4). Post-migration ecology is implemented in the studies of refugee and migration education with the central principle that educational policies and practices should reflect on how students' experiences and perspectives are integrated and regulated by wider social settings at different times, and how these interact and overlap (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016).

Three key factors are presented in the model that influence the individuals of the different refugee populations. These are pre-migration, trans-migration, and post-migration factors. These factors are described by Anderson et al. (2004) with a temporal dimension, in relation to Bronfenbrenner's ecological conceptual framework which situates the developing person in his/her ecological context. Correspondingly, pre-migration factors interrelate with refugees' characteristics and experiences that occurred prior to leaving their home country. Trans-migration factors refer to the experiences that came to pass in the transition from home to the receiving country. Eventually, post-migration factors refer to the experiences that occur on arrival in the receiving country. Based on this categorization, Anderson et al. (2004) depict the three phases of refugee children's experiences and present an ecological approach to refugee children's development, captured in the analytical concepts of 'pre-migration ecology', 'trans-migration ecology', and 'post-migration ecology'.

Legal framework in Greece

Greece, like the rest of Europe, has brought the issue of the refugee crisis into the foreground since 2015, with an evident inhibition. Until spring 2016 Greece was mainly a transit country, namely refugees that entered the country were recorded and in a shorter or longer period of time continued their journey to Central European countries. However, since the closure of the Balkan route and the 'legal' passage to other European countries refugee and asylum-seekers are urged to stay in Greece waiting to be permitted to move on, mainly to reunite with family members in other European countries (Simopoulos & Magos, 2018). Due to this situation, large influxes of refugees have arrived since 2016 and have been resettled in Greece, therefore Greek authorities and local communities are facing the immense challenge of managing the reception and hosting of these people. Among these refugees thousands are children originating mainly from Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iraq (UNHCR, UNICEF & IOM, 2017). During 2016 approximately 21.000 children were in temporary accommodation sites, urban areas, and reception and identification centers in Greece (UNHCR, UNICEF & IOM, 2017). These numbers are constantly growing and the accommodated children from 21.000 in December 2017 reached 23.500 in June 2018, 27.000 in December 2018 and 32.000 in June 2019 (UNHCR, UNICEF & IOM, 2018a; 2018b; 2019). Among these children the Ministry of Education estimated that during school year 2017-

2018 the number of school aged refugee children (4-15 years old) was 12.000 – 14.000 (Ministry of Education Research and Religious Affairs [MoE], 2018).

Under these circumstances, Greece provided refugee children the opportunity of schooling, since literacy development is an essential element for their educational success, social participation and settlement (Mathews, 2008). In addition, directive 2013/33/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council, under which the fundamental right for refugee and asylum-seeker children to access the public education system is provided, was adopted by the Greek Government as a Member State of the EU in 2018 with the Law under No 4540 (Official Government Gazette [OGG], No. 91, 2018a). In Greece, integration into the education system takes place up to three months from the date of completion of the identification of the minor irrespective of their legal status (OGG, No. 91, 2018a). In practice however, the actual time ranges from three months to six months from the time of entry into the country and enrollment in school (Crul et al., 2019). Furthermore, Article 2(3) under Law No. 1566, directs that attendance is compulsory in kindergarten, primary school and secondary school, while anyone who has custody of a minor and fails to register or supervise her/his studies shall be punished (OGG, No. 167, 1985). However, this is seldom applied to vulnerable populations such as refugees (Crul et al., 2019).

Refugee Education in Greece

In March 2016, the Ministry of Education decided to prepare a plan for the integration of refugee and asylum-seeker children into the Greek educational system (MoE, 2017). In particular, the Scientific Committee in support of refugee children was assigned to formulate and submit effective and realistic proposals on the issue (MoE, 2017). According to Simopoulos & Magos (2018) the kind of educational policies that should be proposed for the integration of the refugee children in Greek formal education was a dilemma for the Scientific Committee. On the one hand, existing institutional and legal framework explicitly provided access to public compulsory education for minors of third countries nationals regardless of their residence status in Greece as well as their school enrollment with incomplete supporting documents. On the other hand, the dominant domestic debate on the reception of the refugee populations and especially on the issue of providing access to formal education to refugee children had divided opinions (MoE, 2017). In regard to this matter, Stergiou & Simopoulos (2019) argue that public debate was divided, on the one hand, in a rhetoric of ‘illegal migrants’, ‘invaders’, ‘closed reception centers’, ‘expulsion’ and, on the other, in the advocacy of human rights and solidarity.

Greek educational institutions and authorities had prior experience in integrating migrants into mainstream education structures since the fall of the Eastern European communist bloc in 1989 encountering the massive immigration wave mainly from Albania and other Balkan countries. In the case of the refugee crisis and the education of the refugee children, the Scientific Committee of the Ministry of Education stated that it was an

extremely demanding project and was designed under pressure of time. Even more, the project was implemented on a heterogeneous refugee population, under unstable conditions in respect to the conditions and place of residence, and the number of the population (MoE, 2017). The monitoring of the policies and practices in respect to refugee education and support to the Scientific Committee was assigned to the Working Group on the Management, Coordination and Monitoring of Refugee Education which was formed in summer 2016 and continued on providing support and monitoring after it was promoted to an Independent Department in 2018 (MoE, 2017; OGG, No.31. 2018c).

The ministry of Education decided that school year 2016-2017 would be a 'pre-integration' year for the children residing in the refugee camps, in order to ensure their smooth transition into school regularity (IEP, 2016). Additionally, the Ministry of Education introduced the education policies for the integration of refugee children, valid until today, that is: the development of pre-school education programs within the camps; the establishment of Reception Facilities for Refugee Education (DYEP) for refugee children residing in the camps; and the inclusion of refugee children in the mainstream schools, with the support of reception classes, for the refugee children who live in urban areas, as shown in table 1 (IEP, 2016; MoE, 2017).

Table 1

Type of schools that refugee children attend

Type of schools	Place of residence
DYEP (Kindergarten)	Refugee camps
DYEP (Primary school and Gymnasium)	Refugee camps
Mainstream schools - Reception Classes	Urban areas (outside refugee camps)

The Reception Facilities for Refugee Education (DYEP) are, in particular, preparatory classes for refugee children residing in refugee camps. DYEP, namely kindergartens, addressed to refugee children aged 4-5 years old are established in the refugee camp. DYEP addressed to refugee children aged 6-12 years old (Primary school) and 13-15 years old (Gymnasium), are established in primary and secondary education schools bordering to refugee camps and function after the mainstream school's schedule in an afternoon shift (OGG, No.3502, 2016). The reception classes or Zones of Educational Priority (ZEP) were introduced in the Greek education system in 1996 (OGG, No. 124, 1996, article 35). Reception classes provide effective and participatory education to repatriated immigrant and foreign students. After the assessment of student's needs the curriculum is tailored to serve their integration into the Greek educational system (OGG, No. 1789, 1999).

Eventually, the school year 2016-2017 some 3.800 refugee students were enrolled in public schools (Stergiou & Simopoulos, 2019), the number of enrollments reached 8.017 in the school year 2017-2018 (MoE, 2018), while in the school year 2018-2019 the number of

refugee students attending public schools increased to 12.867 (MoE, 2019). However, despite the significant efforts made throughout this period, Stergiou & Simopoulos (2019) highlight that a significant, although decreasing, proportion of refugee students has been excluded from public education, either in the first phase or until today. In a like manner, the Greek Council for Refugees (2018) recommended that the rate of refugee children that attend school should increase, while additional action is required on the Aegean islands, since access to education remains problematic for refugee children, especially on the Eastern Aegean islands.

Refugee Education Coordinators (REC)

In parallel with the establishment of the Reception Facilities for Refugee Education (DYEP), the institution of the Refugee Education Coordinator (REC) was established. RECs are permanent teachers of the Ministry of Education holding a doctoral or master's degree or certified training in the area of intercultural education or human rights. In other cases, RECs have working experience in intercultural schools, reception classes, Greek language courses abroad or voluntary participation in educational activities for refugees (OGG, No. 102, 2018b, Article 78).

RECs are positioned in each refugee camp in order to cooperate and report to the educational authorities and to collaborate with representatives of other Ministries, and International organizations existing in the host structures (OGG, No. 3502, 2016). Moreover, RECs are assigned to propose measures for the functional qualification of the DYEP and provide for matters relating to the implementation of the educational policy of the Ministry of Education (OGG, No. 3502, 2016). In 2018, under law No. 4547 the duties and responsibilities of RECs are more clearly defined and are separated in two sectors: the consulting - educational sector and the administrative – societal – in-service education sector (OGG, No. 102, 2018b). In table 2 some of the duties RECs have are described.

Table 2

Refugee education coordinators' duties

RECs' duties	
Inform those accommodated in the refugee camp on the necessity of education as a basic instrument of social inclusion	Supervise and coordinate the departure and return of refugee students to and from the refugee camps, to and from DYEP
Compile lists with identification data of the refugee children that will enroll in DYEP	Inform refugee parents or custodians or guardians on school attendance issues
Update the lists of the enrolled refugee students in DYEP in cooperation with the school principals	Resolve issues related to refugee students' school attendance

In essence, RECs are assigned to act as liaisons among the refugee camps, the school and the educational authorities. They are designated to the refugee camps and are called upon to play a new and very demanding role, namely to escape the boundary of the school community in order to encounter school children located in camps, bring the refugee population in contact with the Greek educational system and create bridges between the school, the refugee family and the community. At the same time, RECs were the only officials of the Ministry of Education who had hands on experience of the life in within the refugee camps, the difficult hygiene conditions, the poor shelter and the hardship (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2019). In some cases, RECs did not have an office in the camp, not even a working place with access to toilet and clean water. The Scientific Committee of the Ministry of Education highlights the determining contribution of the RECs to the inclusion process (MoE, 2017). Additionally, the Scientific Committee highlighted that RECs' duties included: the explanation of the operational conditions of the Greek school to refugee parents; regular contact with refugee parents; communication with teachers of the DYEP; the coordination of NGOs; as well as finding practical solutions to improve the functioning of the refugee camps on educational issues (MoE, 2017). Moreover, Crul et al., (2019) consider RECs as a key figure in the DYEP and state that "their responsibility is major, as they are the persons to whom the refugee parents entrust their children to go to school, and in most cases, they are the only persons representing the school with whom these parents have some relationship" (p. 18). Furthermore, Stergiou & Simopoulos (2019) consider the institution of the REC as a 'good practice' in linking the school with the refugee community in the camps. Moreover, Aroni (2018) states that RECs served as educators, counselors, in-service trainers, social workers, psychologists, friends, and parents, in order to emphasize RECs important role in the education process of refugee children.

RESEARCH

In Greece, the program for the integration of school-aged refugee children in public education has been implemented since 2016. The institution of the Refugee Education Coordinator (REC) was an innovation established by the Greek Ministry of Education to facilitate refugee children's access to public school. The research explores the role that RECs have regarding involvement of refugee parents. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were conducted with RECs in order to enlighten the effectiveness of their role in relation:

- to the communication and collaborative processes with the parents of children with refugee background;
- the task to inform refugees in the camps on the necessity of education as a basic instrument of social inclusion;
- to supervise and coordinate the actions necessary for the smooth departure and return of students to and from the refugee camps, to and from the DYEP;
- the duty to inform parents or custodians or guardians on issues related to students' school attendance.

Research question

The following research question was answered:

In what ways do Refugee Education Coordinators communicate and collaborate with refugee parents' empowering them in order to engage them in their children's schooling?

Research participants

Speaking of the research participants, snowball sampling was employed in order to involve RECs in the research (Creswell, 2012). Seventy six RECs, who were positioned in the institution of the Refugee Educational Coordinator school year 2019-2020, were requested via e-mail to participate in the research. The intention was to proceed to fifteen interviews. Finally, fourteen RECs participated in the research, representing 18.5% of RECs. Furthermore, up to school year 2019-2020, two research participants had four year experience, six research participants had three year experience, two research participants had two year experience, and four research participants one year experience in the institution of the Refugee Educational Coordinator, as shown in Table 3. As far as teaching experience in formal education is concerned, four research participants had 12-15 years of teaching experience, seven had 16-20 years, two had 21-23 years, and one research participant had over 30 years of teaching experience, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Refugee education coordinators' working experience

Working experiences	REC
<i>Institution of Refugee Education Coordinator</i>	
4 years	2
3 years	6
2 years	2
1 year	4
<i>Teaching</i>	
12-15 years	4
16-20 years	7
21-23 years	2
30+ years	1

Moreover, one research participant holds a doctoral degree, two are doctoral candidates in the area of intercultural education and nine hold a master degree, of which three master degrees are relevant to intercultural education, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Refugee Education Coordinators' further studies

Further studies	REC
Doctoral degree	1
Doctoral candidate	2
Master degree	9

In addition, three research participants have certified training in the area of intercultural education. Moreover, one research participant had working experience in intercultural schools, one in reception classes, two in providing Greek language courses abroad, and five research participants had voluntary participation in educational activities for refugees. No research participant had knowledge of any language spoken by the refugee population. Finally, as can be perceived by the description concerning the research participants and the detailed tables, they had enhanced teaching experience and academic qualifications.

Interviews

The Skype and the Facebook Messenger platform were utilized for conducting the semi-structured interviews with the research participants. The two platforms enabled communication with the research participants via a synchronous connection - voice and video - in any place in a time efficient manner and in a friendly and safe research environment. The Skype and the Facebook Messenger platform eliminated the obstruction of distance, on the one hand, and, on the other, diminished the risk of the participants in the research being affected by the Coronavirus disease (COVID-19), due to the present worldwide pandemic. Permission was obtained from research participants in order for the interviews to be recorded. The recorded interviews were transcribed in order for data to be collected and analyzed.

As far as semi-structured interviews are concerned, qualitative data was retrieved through open-ended questions following our line of inquiry in a conversational manner. Our intention was to acquire the qualitative data required to answer the research questions and at the same time unveil the personal experiences of the research participants. In our research, the semi-structured interviews with the Refugee Education Coordinators focused on revealing the modus operandi of their role. As Bell (2005) argues "one major advantage of the interview is its adaptability" (p. 157). In this case, semi structured interviews enabled us as researchers to follow up research participants' ideas, to examine research participants' responses and investigate their motives and feelings (Bell, 2005). Additionally, semi-structured interviews allowed research participants to elaborate on the topic more flexibly (Edwards & Holland, 2013).

Validity and Reliability of the Research

A procedure for establishing validity in a qualitative research is to provide thick and rich description of the research setting, the participants, and the themes (Creswell & Miller, 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). According to Creswell & Miller (2007), when vivid detail is provided by researchers the readers are assisted to “understand that the account is credible” and make decisions “about the applicability of the findings to other settings or similar contexts” (p. 129). In our research, with the intention to ensure validity, description of the setting and the participants was provided. Furthermore, detailed description of the research findings was provided with sufficient evidence presented in the form of quotes from the conducted interviews. Moreover, in the presentation and analysis of the findings, research participants’ views and experiences were juxtaposed with the legislation and data from archival records. Moreover, a focus on forming “unique impressions and understandings of events rather than to generalize the findings”, was a measure to secure validity (Kolb, 2012, p. 85). Generalization was enhanced by carefully examining the extent to which the findings are applied to other cases (Kolb, 2012).

Finally, maximum variation in the research sample is a strategy described by Merriam & Tisdell (2016) to enhance validity. Maximum variation in the sample, whether it concerns the sites selected for the research or the research participants, “allows for the possibility of a wider range of applications by readers” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 257). In addition, it enables researchers to document diversity and to identify important common patterns (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In our research, the research participants were positioned in refugee camps located in western, eastern (including the Aegean Islands), northern and southern Greece, namely from eight different Regions, providing a variation of experiences concerning the situations faced in the refugee camps. The Skype and the Facebook Messenger platform provided us with the advantage to reach respondents in various locations across Greece. An advantage acknowledged by many researchers which argued that Skype and Messenger for interviews allowed these studies to reach respondents in diverse locations (Brown 2018; Lo Iacono, Symonds & Brown, 2016; Pszczółkowska, 2020).

Concerning reliability of the research, in qualitative interviews this issue relates to the establishment of rapport with the interviewees. “Rapport is ... about trust – enabling the participant to feel comfortable in opening up to you” (King & Horrocks 2010, p. 48). Despite the fact that building rapport over Skype is challenging (Cater, 2011), Deakin and Wakefield (2013) stated that “Skype interviewees were more responsive and rapport was built quicker than in a number of face-to-face interviews” (p.8). In our research the Skype and the Facebook Messenger platform enabled the establishment of rapport with the research participants.

Qualitative Research

With the intention to perceive and interpret the meanings that educational policies, practices and research participants ascribe to the role of Refugee Education Coordinators, a qualitative design was implemented in our research. In relation to Creswell's (2014) argument that individuals interpret the world and generate meanings, our aspiration was through semi-structured interviews to reveal hidden meanings and clarify research participants' complex views. Moreover, in our effort to perceive the experience of the RECs, qualitative design provided a comprehensive understanding of the meaning that participants attribute to the researched phenomenon. Qualitative research has a political and transformative dimension, gives voice to the researched populations and influences social policy (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017), by deliberately utilizing data description, explanation and interpretation (Williams, 2007). Moreover, qualitative research can present the direct consequences of specific programs on the researched populations and isolate the restraints that act against "policy changes in such settings" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017, p. 22). Interviews were transcribed and written down, the researcher read them through thoroughly and coded the REC's responses according to the content of their words (Creswell, 2012).

RESULTS

Problems Encountered By Refugee Education Coordinators in the Communication and Collaboration Process With Refugee Parents

The difficulty in communication with the refugee parents due to language barriers was stressed by all research participants. The lack of translators and inadequate understanding were difficulties faced by the RECs. The RECs managed to communicate with the refugee parents with the assistance of translators provided by NGOs, if they were available or if the provision of a translator from the NGOs was scheduled. In addition, communication was achieved with translated instructions in the languages of the refugee parents, with other common spoken languages by the RECs and the refugee parents, as well as with refugee children which were their parents' translators.

Barriers in the Establishment of an Effective Cooperation with Refugee Parents

In the first place, as mentioned by the research participants, a wide a range of factors were obstacles in the establishment of an effective cooperation with the refugee parents concerning refugee children's school enrollment and attendance, such as: culture differences between the refugee families and the Greek culture; the prioritization of other needs from refugee parents in relation to the education of their children; refugee families' absence of a school routine for a long time; refugee children's limited or no schooling; refugee parents' limited or no schooling; refugee parents' prospect of relocating to another country; refugee parents' perceptions of the content, the aims and the functioning of education; socio-

demographic features of refugee parents; refugee parents' concerns about their children; and refugee families' lack of stability. Regarding these issues, a research participant argued:

"I think it's important to understand, to know some things about the culture of these people, so you can communicate, and to be able to understand their reaction".

Equally important, a research participant, referring to socio-demographic features related to refugee parents and restrictions and prohibitions imposed by religions, stated:

"The population now living in our camp are people from deprived areas with a very low standard of living, Kurds who have lived only in the mountains and various people like that with whom communication is sometimes even unachievable, that is, it is not possible to communicate at all with them ... and we encounter cases where a parent who sees something that is not in line with his religion unquestioningly means that the girl stops school".

Additionally, a research participant argued on the issue of refugee parents' involvement in their children's schooling in relation to parents' prospect of relocating to another country:

"Don't think that parents want to come to school very often, I believe that that they feel that they are temporarily in the country".

Furthermore, a research participant stressed that in order to bring refugee families back to school routine:

"at the beginning of the year I placed the bus provided by the International Organization for Migration to transport students to school in the middle of the camp and the horn of the bus woke up the children and their families".

Moreover, research participants highlighted the issue related to refugee parents' perceptions of the content and aims of the education provided and the functioning of the educational system. In relation to this issue, a research participant argued:

"Also don't forget here we have another educational ethos and another educational climate and not so authoritarian and teacher-centered, this often created difficulties in communication, i.e. the teacher is the one, the only one, the authority that must somehow impose on students, what is right and moral, etc., this is not the case here, and it took some time for them to adapt to it, that is, parents cannot have such demands from the teacher"

By the same token, a second participant stated:

"The parents also had a different mentality, that is, what did the child do? Did he damage something at school, then bit him, they told me to hit him".

In relation to the above, a research participant argued:

"Some parents of primary school children, enrolled in DYEP, state that a lot of time is spent on painting and handicrafts and they do not progress in Greek".

Eventually, a research participant characteristically described the issue of the different perception on the part of refugee parents regarding the education provided, as well as parents and children's limited or no schooling:

"What we have seen from the first moment is that most of them have a different impression of what education is, that is, most of them are second-generation Afghans who have lived most of their lives in Iran where most have not been able to go to school and they had access to Religious schools which teach the Qur'an more and less language and mathematics, this is mainly the education they have in mind, as I have realized, it is very much a very open context".

Finally, a research participant stressed the issue of students interrupted schooling as a factor influencing cooperation between the refugee family and the REC as follows:

"Then I had to proceed on meetings with parents to let them know what kind of education we offer, they had to be fully informed about what DYEP was, who would teach them, what he would teach them, what we would achieve, it was the most basic, most children had not been to school for two years".

The Establishment of a Relationship of Trust Between Refugee Education Coordinators and Refugee Parents

Twelve out of fourteen research participants stated that in order for RECs to achieve cooperation with refugee parents, a relationship of trust had to be established between RECs and parents. On the matter, a research participant mentioned that personal relationships developed with refugee families' facilitated communication and collaboration. In addition, a research participant stated:

"The only thing that saves the situation is that parents have absolute trust in us, in both RECs, for their children".

Eventually, a research participant characteristically described the issue:

"Yes, this is very important, they feel confident, yes, they have known me for two years and it was what I had to gain their trust, that was the goal I had to achieve, that they trusted me and fortunately I succeeded".

Ten out of fourteen RECs commented that the relationship of trust achieved between them and the refugee parents facilitated their role to bring refugee families in contact with the Greek education system. Correspondingly, a research participant clearly described the process:

"Establishing our own presence there and building our own relationship is like building the school's relationship with parents, so the more they accept us as personalities and what we do or don't do, the more they accept the Greek school mentality, the western school that for them is foreign but they gradually accept it, that is, it is our role in essence to be with them in such

a way that this new reality has to balance and it was not always easy ... I want to tell you that RECs were people who had to communicate two worlds that in many cases had different starting points for many issues related to children's school attendance".

In a like manner, a second research participant highlighted:

"We are trying to become a bridge of communication between parents and children and the Greek education system".

Finally, a research participant mentioned:

"My role is to mediate, like a bridge between home and school, there is constant direct feedback".

The role of the Refugee Education Coordinators to connect the refugee parents with the Greek Educational System

Refugee Educators Coordinator's role in informing refugee parents on the necessity of their children's school enrollment and attendance

The role that RECs had in connecting the refugee family with the Greek education system implied that they also had an important role in informing refugee parents on the necessity of their children's school enrollment and attendance. In this case, as mentioned by twelve research participants, meetings were organized with refugee parents at the refugee camps at the beginning of the school year but also during the school year where awareness was raised on the necessity of their children's schooling. In addition, a research participant mentioned:

"We also brought parents into contact with other social support services, parent schools, and social workers".

Furthermore, more than half of the research participants mentioned that they brought refugee parents in contact with the psychologist or the social worker in the refugee camp, in order to sensitize refugee parents on the necessity for their children's schooling. Eventually, three research participants mentioned that they cooperated with school principals and teachers in order to inform refugee parents on the necessity of their children's school enrollment and attendance.

The RECs that participated in the research stated that various issues were raised concerning the meetings with refugee parents, such as: gender issues, namely to explain to refugee parents why girls should go to school; to explain to refugee parents that they are legally obliged to send their children to school and since the state facilitates refugee children's school enrollment they are obliged to respond positively; issues about the children's and family's future prospects; to explain the difference between formal education provided by the state and non formal education provided by NGOs; to explain to refugee

parents that school is a compulsory routine for children; and to explain to refugee parents that school involves the cognitive skills, as well as children's integration and socialization.

At the same time, research participants stated that some refugee populations that had decided to stay in Greece or had other reasons aimed at their children's school enrollment. To demonstrate, to the question if RECs had to inform and sensitize refugee parents about their children's school enrollment, a research participant replied:

"Not everyone, especially Afghans who had decided from the beginning that they would stay in Greece".

In addition, a research participant stated:

"Some families as soon as they come to the camp they come and knock on my door ... they come themselves to enroll their children in school".

Refugee Education Coordinator's role in informing refugee parents about the opus operandi of the school and academic issues

Finally, eleven out of fourteen research participants stated that RECs had an additional role in informing refugee parents about the opus operandi of the school and academic issues. For this purpose, RECs organized meetings with refugee parents, in some cases school principals were also invited to these meetings, to inform refugee parents on issues such as: the departure and return of refugee students to and from the refugee camps, to and from the DYEP and other schools; the obligations and duties the students have; school absence; school grades; and children's academic prospects.

The role of the Refugee Education Coordinators to connect refugee parents with their children's school and engage refugee parents in their children's schooling

Thirteen out of fourteen RECs mentioned that refugee parents had infrequent or no communication with their children's school and teachers. Research participants attributed this to language barriers which render communication between refugee parents and children's teachers in the majority of the cases impossible, while in most cases no means of transportation were available to refugee parents in order to visit their children's school. Additionally, on occasions where refugee parents met with their children's teachers, RECs had arranged for interpreters to be present at the meeting and in the event that the meetings were held at schools, RECs organized the transportation of refugee parents. Concerning the school meetings that were organized, in most cases the teachers visited the refugee camp, in three cases refugee parents met with their children's teachers at school, while in four cases no contact between refugee parents and teachers was achieved. In addition, five research participants stated that in some cases refugee parents visited their children's school individually or accompanied by the REC.

Seven research participants considered their role in bringing together the refugee parents with their children's teachers in the refugee camp very important. Correspondingly, a research participant stated:

"It plays a role in the effort that a teacher will make to communicate and work with these people that he needs to understand where these people come from, how they live, to put themselves in the shoes of these people".

Equally important, six RECs stressed that refugee parents appreciated the organization of school meetings since no other communication was achieved with their children's school and teachers:

"It is something we do and it has its effects and the parents want it very much and among other things we show them some pictures from their children's studies, it is the only way to bring them in contact with the school environment and we have tears there, emotions, and anything else you can imagine, because it's something that makes them very happy. For these people and their children, school is the only normalcy in their lives, there is nothing else that is normal".

In addition, a research participant stated on the same issue:

"Every time the teachers visit the camp, the parents get excited. I inform them from the previous day about what time they will come and where we will meet. They are ready, well-groomed, well-dressed, waiting for them with great joy and longing and showing them appreciation and respect and usually the teachers come and show them photos from their children's projects at school and come with photos to see what their children are doing at school".

Furthermore, research participants that managed to organize school meetings at schools emphasized the importance of bringing parents to school. Referring to this matter, a research participant stated:

"When children start school we always organize a meeting at school in order for the parents to be acquainted with the principal and their children's teachers. At school they are welcomed, they are treated and visit the school premises. In other words, there is a climate of trust and parents are excited about it and show a lot of confidence in me and in the school".

Refugee Education Coordinator's mediating role in connecting refugee parents with their children's school for everyday matters

Moreover, research participants stated that RECs are a connecting link between refugee parents and their children's school for everyday matters that arise. In this case, REC are in frequent contact with the refugee parents and the teachers in order to mediate for a variety of matters, such as: behavior issues that arise concerning refugee children; to inform teachers on refugee parents' concerns about their children's schooling; to inform parent's on their children's school performance; to inform refugee parents on issues concerning the functioning of the school; to inform refugee parents on issues of their children's school adjustment and in many cases to mediate between the parents and the social services in the camp to resolve them; as well as other cases of emergencies that arise. Concerning the role of the REC to connect the refugee parents with the school, a research participant stated:

"We are essentially the representatives in some way the representatives for the parents of all the schools which their children attend ... in my opinion, we are an important link between the refugee community of our students and, in fact, the schools, and when we say schools, we also mean teachers and school principals and other educational authorities".

In addition, a research participant argued on the matter:

"So we played a mediating role by defending refugees at school, the refugee parents, namely the refugee community we were the refugee community in school".

By the same token, a research participant mentioned:

"We are the people who have direct communication and contact with the community, with the refugee community, with the children's parents and without us honestly, absolutely nothing could work, because our mediation would be missing, which unites, brings everyone that is involved in contact, one way or another".

Refugee Education Coordinator's role on eliminating refugee parents reactions and fears on the issue of mixed gender schools

Finally, a particular issue faced by RECs was doubts and fears that refugee parents had on the issue of mixed schools, namely male and female students in the same school. The issue was raised by five research participants. In relation to the issue a research participant mentioned:

"The other matter is mixed gender schools for the first time, girls and boys all together, parents were not used to it and children and especially teenagers were not used to it either, children were very eager to be together, at school they played and flirted, it was the first time that children were with children of the opposite gender without parental control. The parents at the same time expressed their concerns, all this was very hard, ... to give a headline, we had to encourage parents of teenager students to adapt in the new situation of greater freedom, autonomy and less control and not discrimination between girls and boys at school".

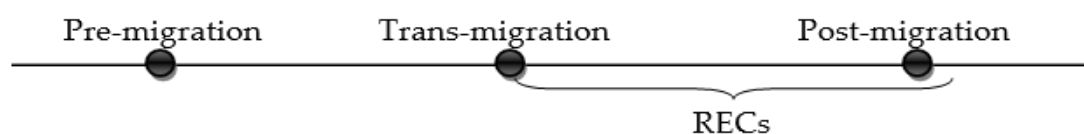
DISCUSSION

As the research findings demonstrated, RECs had a role in informing refugee parents on the necessity of their children's school enrollment and attendance, connecting refugee parents with their children's school and in the long run engaging refugee parents in their children's schooling. Reflecting on the theoretical framework, these finding are also confirmed by the Scientific Committee in Support of Refugee Children of the Ministry of Education. As an illustrative example, the Scientific Committee reported that good practices carried out by RECs are: establishment of refugee parents' associations; organization of meetings at school, as well as at the refugee camp between the refugee parents and their children's teachers; the provision of information to teachers about refugee parents' concerns and anxieties (MoE, 2017, p. 63). In respect to the REC's role to empower refugee parents in order to engage them in their children's schooling, first thing to remember is that refugee parents had infrequent or no communication with their children's school and teachers. A

common view with Crul et al., (2019), that state in most cases RECs “are the only persons representing the school with whom these parents have some relationship” (p. 18). Secondly, a wide range of pre-migration factors, mentioned in the research findings, such as culture differences, religious prohibitions, socio-demographic features etc. interrelated with refugee parents’ involvement in their children’s schooling or even providing for their children’s schooling, had to be faced by the RECs. Thirdly, as previously discussed, relevant literature on the context of holistic approaches systematically emphasizes the importance of linking school with students’ parents. Eventually, reflecting on the theoretical background of the research and interrelating Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) ecology perspective of human development with the concepts of pre-, trans-, and post-migration ecology, refugee families were in a trans-migration phase, while REC’s assisted there transition into the post-migration context, as shown in figure 1. Important to realize, the trans-migration phase is associated with barriers imposed by state policies and practices that postpone refugee children’s participation in mainstream schooling, as discussed in the theoretical framework. Additionally, as the model of post-migration ecology indicates, the trans-migration phase is linked to trans-migration factors that interrelate with the refugee families’ accomplishment of the task to successfully adapt to the new environment, as well as with post-migration factors that relate to the refugee child, the refugee parents, the community, the school and the support services.

Figure 1

Refugee families’ journey and RECs’ assistance

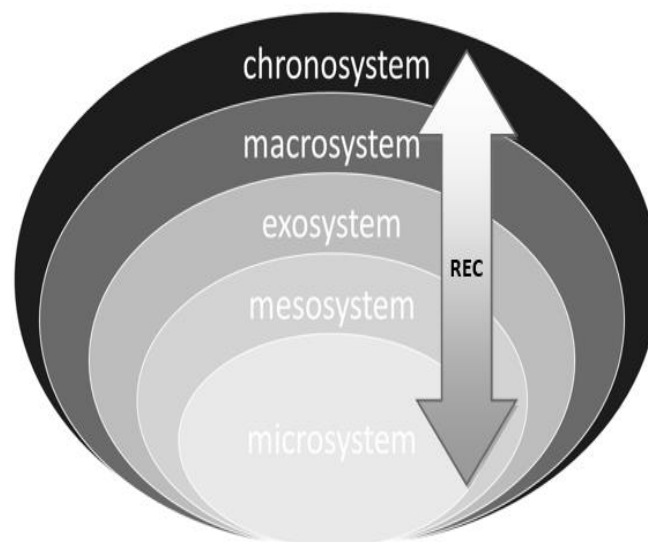


The innovation of the Ministry of Education, in relation to the Greek education reality, to position RECs in the refugee camps assisted the establishment of a relationship of trust between the parents of the refugee students and the RECs. A finding also confirmed by Crul et al., (2019) who state that RECs “are the persons to whom the refugee parents entrust their children to go to school” (p. 18). In either case, a relationship of trust that ‘bridged’ refugee parents with the framework of the Greek educational system and overall facilitated refugee children’s school attendance. RECs essentially mediated to connect culturally and structurally diverse refugee families with the Greek school culture. In essence, RECs undertook a challenging task that required, a reciprocal process on an exploratory acquaintance with the principles and the expectations, as well as an identification of the differences between the school and the refugee family, and finally a negotiation of an approach, between the school and the refugee family, for the benefit of the refugee children. A process defined by Stergiou & Simopoulos (2019) as a ‘policy of adjustment’ undertaken by schools that embrace the holistic approach.

Concerning RECs' contribution to the refugee family, as shown in figure 2, in relation to Bronfenbrenner's (1979; 1986) Ecology Model of Human Development, they are positioned in the refugee camp, and therefore they interrelate with the refugee family's mesosystem. Considering the diverse and unstable situation of the refugee family and their experiences prior to leaving their home country, namely pre-migration factors, their experiences that came to pass in the transition from home to the receiving country, namely trans-migration factors, and their experiences that occurred on arrival in the receiving country, namely post-migration factors, RECs also assumed a role in the microsystem of the refugee family, as well as the exosystem. Since they are positioned in the refugee camp, RECs are in daily communication with the refugee family and, in the majority of the cases, they are the persons that the refugee parents' trust in relation to their children's schooling. Therefore, RECs are the ones that can perceive how parents connect to microsystems to develop their social capital and influence the development of the children's social capital. In addition, RECs are the ones that can engage in mutual negotiation with the refugee family on the refugee children's schooling for the benefit of the children. Furthermore, RECs are the ones that can perceive how refugee families define educational policies and practices concerning their children's schooling and support the refugee family's development of social capital in the new ecosystem. Eventually, RECs are the ones that can raise policy makers' and educational authorities' awareness on the refugee families chronosystem.

Figure 2

RECs' contribution to the refugee family



In the final analysis, according to Berry (2005) acculturation is the process of change in both groups that come into contact in a multicultural society, the settled or dominant group and the non-dominant group. Acculturation relates to policies of multiculturalism that can lead to positive outcomes, such as integration and multiculturalism or to negative outcomes such as marginalization, segregation and assimilation (Berry, 1997). Therefore, members of the dominant group, namely the school context and members of the non-

dominant group, that is the refugee families', had to adopt strategies in their interaction that could lead to positive outcomes in the process of both groups acculturation. To be more specific, the inclusion of the refugee children in the Greek school context which can assist refugee parents' integration in the Greek society, on the one hand, and the development of a multiculturalism ethos of the members of the school context and the broader education context that can assist the development of a multiculturalism ethos of the members of the Greek society, on the other. The establishment of the institution of REC was a starting point, among others, in achieving the task of positive acculturation of both groups' members.

CONCLUSION

The Greek Ministry of Education back in 2016 undertook the necessary action and established the innovative institution of RECs in order to bring in contact the refugee population with the Greek public school system and facilitate refugee children's school enrollment and attendance. The research indicated that the institution of REC was one of the determining factors for the access of refugee children to public schools. A significant number (3.800) of refugee children were enrolled in public schools during 2016-2017 (Stergiou & Simopoulos, 2019). This number increased, reaching 12.867 in school year 2018-2019 (MoE, 2019).

Unfortunately, COVID-19 pandemic resulted in lockdown and remote teaching. At the time the research took place (spring 2020) all pupils of Greek schools could not attend school. Things got worse as due to bad sanitary conditions and density in the camps, all refugee sites around Greece were in sanitary seclusion, resulting refugee children being hindered or even denied access to school.

In an effort to interrelate Bronfenbrenner's (1979; 1986) Ecology Model of Human Development with significant factors, as indicated in the research findings, which shape refugee parents impact on their children's development in the new context, several recommendations arise. These recommendations can raise policy makers' as well as professionals' involved in refugee education awareness of the factors that shape refugee parents effect on their children's schooling. Moreover, these recommendations can raise awareness concerning the development and the implementation of educational policies and practices. Initially, concerning the microsystem, which is the family and the refugee camp, exploration can be proceeded on how refugee parents experience and negotiate their microsystems to raise children in the new context, namely the new country. Secondly, as far as the mesosystem is concerned, namely, interconnections among microsystems that indirectly affect the individual, exploration can be proceeded on how the microsystems are connected and how parents connect to microsystems to develop their social capital. Thirdly, referring to the exosystem, it concerns extended networks, social and other services provided. In this context policies and services can support the development of refugee

parent's social capital and therefore refugee children's social capital. Thus, an examination of the terms can proceed, such as cultural competency and partnership in educational policies and practices, as well as how they are defined and employed by refugee parents concerning their children's schooling. In addition, monitoring can take place of the performance of supporting systems and educational practices in relation to culturally safe support for children and their families, as well as monitoring the quality of education provided to refugee children. Fourthly, the macrosystem, includes the society, the culture and subculture values, attitudes, beliefs, and resources. It is important to realize that Greece is a signatory to the Refugee Convention and to the Convention on the International Rights of the Child. Under these conventions, refugee children and their parents must be included when national data is collected and reported concerning children's schooling, in order for educational policies and practices to be overhauled. Eventually, concerning the chronosystem, it interrelates with influences of socio-historical conditions as well as individual life events. In this event, pre-, trans-, and post- migration factors that interrelate with the refugee children's and their family's accomplishment of the task to successfully adapt to the new environment and particularly to the new school environment should be identified. In this context, the development of educational and social programs and practices that are culturally safe and competent is recommended, while ensuring that policy makers and those that provide their services take into consideration the refugee children's and families' lifetime experiences.

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EFL Learners' Comprehension of Scalar Emotion Verbs

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*International Journal of
Modern Education Studies*

December, 2020

Volume 4, No 2

Pages: 110-138

<http://www.ijonmes.net>
<http://dergipark.gov.tr/ijonmes>

Article Info:

Received : 22.09.2020

Revision 1 : 05.10.2020

Revision 2 : 10.10.2020

Accepted : 02.12.2020

DOI:

10.51383/ijonmes.2020.54

DOIKeywords:

Abstract:


This study investigated EFL learners' comprehension of scalar properties of three types of emotion verbs, namely, fear type, liking and disliking emotion verbs and compare their performance with instructors and native speakers of English. The participants were 38 non-native pre-service teachers from ELT department at a state university in Turkey, 11 ELT instructors at different universities and 10 native speakers from the USA and the UK. A scale construction task was administered, and data were collected via in person and e-mail according to participants' judgements on scalar emotion verbs in terms of their relative order on a linear scale. The quantitative data were analysed using SPSS. The results revealed that in terms of constructing consistent scales with previously determined scales in literature, pre-service teachers performed poorly for fear-type and disliking emotion verbs, they were partly successful in constructing consistent scales for liking verbs. It was also found that similarly instructors performed poorly in constructing scales for fear-type and disliking verbs, but they were better than pre-service teachers. They were also successful in constructing scales for liking verbs. Native speakers were successful in fear-type and liking verbs; however, like non-native participants, they performed poorly in constructing consistent scales for disliking verbs. This means that there are cross-cultural differences among participants' judgement of emotion verbs on a linear scale in terms of their intensity. This study provides valuable information for the studies on lexical resources (e.g., VerbNet, WordNet etc.) Previous studies (e.g. Fellbaum & Mathieu, 2014; Sheinman, & Tokunaga, 2009) show a way to represent the scalar properties of emotion verbs in WordNet, and other possible extensions to additional verb families can cause a more subtle semantic analysis of emotion verbs in lexical databases with potential benefits for automatic inferencing, language pedagogy and translation. This study contributes to semantic analysis of emotion verbs in lexical databases. It also provides some implications for students, language teachers, and policy makers in terms of vocabulary learning and teaching.

Online lexical resources, pre-service teachers, scalar emotion verbs, vocabulary learning, WordNet

Citation:

Saka, İ. (2020). EFL learners' comprehension of scalar emotion verbs. *International Journal of Modern Education Studies*, 4(2), 110-138. <http://dx.doi.org/10.51383/ijonmes.2020.54>

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INTRODUCTION

Language learners often come across situations in which they are required to decide on an appropriate word to use among a few near-synonymous words in the vocabulary learning process. There may be subtle differences between the near-synonymous words, and the meaning of near-synonyms may be different in the target language and native language, so differentiating these words becomes more challenging for language learners (Sheinman & Tokunaga, 2009). For instance, when we consider the following sentences: “This film is good”, “This film is great” and “This film is superb”, we see that all of these sentences include positive evaluation of a film; however, under what conditions or in which of these sentences will the film be perceived as the best by a native speaker of English? Which of the sentences will denote the most intense emotion for speakers and listeners? How can the language learner know it? (Sheinman & Tokunaga, 2009). Are computational lexicons or online lexical databases useful for language learners to recognize subtle differences between words? These are some driving questions that encourage us to conduct such a study.

As this study draws attention to the online lexical resources and their possible benefits, it is plausible to start with recognizing the importance of lexical classification. Lexical classes are defined with regard to similar morpho-syntactic behaviour of words and common meaning components, and these lexical classes are beneficial for capturing some generalizations about a number of cross-linguistic properties (Kipper, Korhonen, Ryant, & Palmer, 2008). Kipper et al. (2008) explain the benefits of lexical classes and they state that natural language processing (NLP) systems can draw on lexical classes in a few ways. They encapsulate the benefits of lexical classes as follows:

- Lexical classes describe “the mapping from surface realization of arguments to predicate-argument structure”, thus a crucial component of a system that calls for the latter.
- The classes may be utilized as a principled tool to abstract away from specific words when needed because they can grab high level of abstractions (e.g., semantic or syntactic features).
- They are beneficial for numerous operational contexts in which lexical information is required to be comprehended from small application-specific corpora. They can compensate for insufficient data by completely behaving as a very typical example of relevant words.
- They are also useful in terms of supporting many multilingual tasks such as language generation, computational lexicography, machine translation, semantic role labelling, word sense disambiguation, parsing and subcategorization acquisition (Kipper et al., 2008, p. 22).

Among these lexical classes, “verbs are a locus of information for overall sentence structure and selectional restrictions on arguments”, thus their organization or

representation is important for natural language processing (Swift, 2005, p. 115). They are the most important syntactic and lexical category in a language (Fellbaum, 1990). There are various views on verb classification. For instance, Levin (1993) characterizes semantic verb classes which pattern in terms of syntactic alternations. Levin's classification is the basis of VerbNet that is an online lexical database. On the other hand, verbs are classified through semantic concepts in FrameNet (Baker, Fillmore, & Lowe, 1998) instead of syntactic alternations. The classification of verbs has varied syntactically and semantically for different languages; (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988; Belletti, & Rizzi, 1988; Levin, 1993; Mathieu, 2006; Kipper et al., 2008; Mathieu, & Fellbaum, 2010; Tamm, 2012) however, there is little consensus among these various analyses (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

As language teachers, we see that Turkish EFL learners usually have difficulty in deciding on an appropriate word to use among a few near-synonymous words. It may be beneficial for students to know verb classification and scalar properties of verbs or adjectives, or other linguistic properties of words which can be done using online lexical resources such as VerbNet (Kipper-Schuler, 2005); WordNet (Miller, 1995; Fellbaum, 1998); FrameNet (Baker, Fillmore, & Lowe, 1998); PropBank (Kingsbury, & Palmer, 2002); VerbOcean (Chklovski, & Pantel, 2004); and TRIPS [The Rochester Interactive Planning System] (Ferguson, & Allen, 1998). It is especially important for pre-service teachers as they will teach vocabulary in their classes in the future. The teachers of future will probably use technology more intensively than ever before. Being aware of these lexical resources, they can be encouraged to conduct linguistic studies by using these resources, such as speech understanding, dialog processing, and semantic parsing through task planning, natural language generation and intention recognition (Swift, 2005). Thus, they can teach English words more effectively in their classes. When we review the literature, there are no empirical studies conducted with Turkish EFL learners on scalar emotion verbs and there is little or no interest in online lexical resources such as VerbNet, WordNet, FrameNet, PropBank, VerbOcean and TRIPS which may provide language learners and teachers with valuable information for language learning, especillay in terms of vocabulary learning.

Therefore, the current study aims to investigate whether Turkish pre-service teachers can construct consistent scales with the scales of previous studies in literature in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity. That is why we aim to explore whether participants from various cultures similarly order emotion verbs on a linear scale in terms of their intensity. For this purpose, we selected 3 groups of emotion verbs. The first group includes 5 fear emotion verbs: Intimidate > alarm > scare > frighten > terrify which have been scaled in Fellbaum and Mathieu's (2012) study; ; the second group includes 5 liking emotion verbs: like > love > adore > worship > deify ; and the third group includes 5 disliking emotion verbs: dislike > hate > abhor > detest > loathe whose intensity scales have been demonstrated in Faber and Usón's (1997) study. The study further aims to compare the scales constructed by native speakers, instructors and pre-service teachers. It will be discussed whether the scale constructed by the participants in this study will yield similar

scales with the scales of previous studies in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity. In this direction, the current study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent can pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers construct consistent scales with the scales of previous studies in literature in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity?
2. Are there significant differences among pre-service teachers', instructors' and native-speakers' scales in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity?

LITERATURE REVIEW

As the current study focuses on scalar properties of emotion verbs, our main discussion will be about emotion verbs (or psych verbs). In this part, we aim to present some prominent studies on scalar properties of words, and then several studies on the efficiency of vocabulary learning. It will be beneficial to start with the notions "gradation" and "scalarity" as some emotion verbs will be analyzed in terms of their gradation on a scale in this study.

Gradation is generally considered as a prototypical feature of adjectives, but it is not restricted to adjectives and gradation can be articulated even though a language does not possess a particular class of adjectives (Fleischhauer, 2016). A degree gradable verb is explained as follows: "a verb admits degree gradation if it either lexicalizes a suitable gradation scale or if the activation of a suitable gradation scale is licensed by the conceptual knowledge associated with a meaning component lexically specified in the verb" (Fleischhauer, 2016, p. 176). Gradation is often specified synonymously with intensification and it is "the linguistic process of comparing two (or possibly more) degrees on a scale" (Fleischhauer, 2016, p. 16). A scale is constructed by "a linearly ordered set of degrees" (Fleischhauer, 2016, p. 16).

<p>⟨all, most, many, some⟩</p> <p>⟨and, or⟩</p> <p>⟨must, should, may⟩</p> <p>⟨certain, {probable/likely}, possible⟩</p> <p>⟨boiling, hot, warm⟩</p> <p>⟨beautiful, pretty, attractive⟩</p> <p>⟨adore, love, like⟩</p> <p>⟨excellent, good, OK⟩</p>	<p>⟨always, usually, often, sometimes⟩</p> <p>⟨. . . , 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1⟩</p> <p>⟨necessary, (logically) possible⟩</p> <p>⟨obligatory, permitted⟩</p> <p>⟨freezing, cold, cool, (lukewarm)⟩</p> <p>⟨hideous, ugly, un-attractive, plain⟩</p> <p>⟨loathe, hate, dislike⟩</p> <p>⟨{terrible/awful}, bad, mediocre⟩</p>
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Figure 1. Examples of quantitative scales (Horn, 1989, p. 232).

“Quantitative scales are defined by entailment; P_j outranks P_i , on a given scale iff a statement containing an instance of the former unilaterally entails the corresponding statement containing the latter” (Horn, 1989, p. 231). Horn (1989) gives some examples of such scales, “where $\langle . . . , P_j, P_i, . . . \rangle$ indicates that $P_j > P_i$, that is, that P_j outranks (is stronger than) P_i on the relevant scale” as shown in Figure 1. Figure 1 demonstrates that some emotion verbs like *liking verbs* such as adore, love, like; and *disliking verbs* such as loathe, hate, dislike really possess scalar qualities and emotions differ in terms of their intensity.

Similarly, Levinson (1983) states that “a linguistic scale consists of a set of linguistic alternates, or contrastive expressions of the same grammatical category, which can be arranged in a linear order by degree of informativeness or semantic strength” (p. 133).

The lexicon of emotions poses considerable challenges for lexical encoding and systematic investigation (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2014). Some emotion verbs may be related to each other as they possess the same basic eliciting condition; however, they differ with regard to their intensity and weights which are assigned to diverse manifestations or components (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). Ortony, Clore and Collins (1988) remark that one of the most salient characteristics of emotions is that they differ, to a great extent, in their intensity between people. They maintain that the intensity of emotions is affected by several variables such as praiseworthiness, desirability and appealingness which “correspond to three foci of valenced reactions, namely, agents, events, and objects” (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 34). Desirability that is computed regarding goals is related to reactions to events; praiseworthiness that is computed regarding the standards is related to reactions to the actions of agents, and appealingness that is determined in respect to attitudes is related to reactions to objects. It means that among other variables which can affect the intensity of event-based emotions, desirability necessarily affects all of them (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). Thus, if the event seems to be more desirable or undesirable, the experience of emotion will be more intense. Similarly, praiseworthiness affects the intensity of all attribution emotions, and appealingness affects the intensity of attraction emotions (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 48). Accordingly, they explain that the intensity of fear emotions such as nervous, worried, timid, petrified, fear, scared, terrified, frighten, etc. is affected by “the likelihood of the event or the degree to which the event is undesirable” (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 112); the intensity of liking emotions such as like, love, adore, attracted-to, affection, etc. is affected by “the degree of familiarity with the object or the degree to which the object is appealing”; and the intensity of disliking emotions such as loathe, hate, dislike, disgust, detest, aversion, etc. is affected by “the degree of familiarity with the object or the degree to which the object is unappealing” (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 157).

The intensity of liking and disliking verb classes and their linear scales were examined in another study. Faber and Usón (1997) have analyzed “the internal structure of the lexical field of feeling, structured in hierarchies of meaning and subcategorization patterns as the

codification of knowledge representation" (p. 36). They utilize "the hierarchical nature of dimension-level schemata" which specify that lexical field to demonstrate "how hierarchical grading reflects conceptual saliency" (p. 36). Faber and Usón (1997) explain these dimension-level schemata and state that the categorization models demonstrated in "the argument structure of feel" are substantiated in the following aspects of lexical category of feeling. They enumerate them as follows by classifying them with regard to their focus on particular constituents of event structure: "(i) to feel a physical/mental sensation; (ii) to feel an emotion (iii) to feel an emotion (focus on entity/event triggering it); (iv) to feel an emotion (focus on the reaction of the experiencer)" (Faber & Usón, 1997, p. 42). In this study, we are solely interested in the third categorizing parameter which focuses the way of speaker's manifestation of his/her feeling towards an entity as our study investigates scalar properties of liking and disliking verbs whose intensity scales were demonstrated in Faber and Usón's (1997) study. Faber and Usón (1997) clarify this categorizing parameter and specify that the dimension-level schemata that are "sensitive to categorization parameter are *to feel/experience aversion/dislike/* and *to feel/experience attraction/interest*" (p. 47). They add that in both cases, there is a clear intensity scale in the side of the hierarchy. They exemplify this situation and state that in the positive side, the loved entity increasingly elevates in position until it is discerned as a god and for negative dimension, it is also true, but it works in the opposite direction (Faber & Usón, 1997, p. 47). They illustrate the scales of these two verb classes according to intensity of emotion as follows:

"To feel attraction/interest: love -> adore -> worship -> idolize -> deify

To feel hatred/dislike: dislike -> hate -> abhor -> detest -> execrate -> loathe"

(Faber & Usón, 1997, p. 47).

They explain that as a result, these verbs subcategorize the following symbolic formula, or predicate schema which embodies the different semantic and syntactic realizations of the predicates at the bottom of these dimensions:

$[(x_1: \text{prototyp. human})_{\text{Exp}} (x_2: \text{prototyp. + concrete axiologically loaded})_{\text{Phen}}]_{\text{St}}$

Figure 2. Dimension level predicate schema (Faber & Usón, 1997, p. 47).

They add that "the axiological weight of the second argument (X_2) depends on the positive or negative nature of the dimension-level schema that subsumes that predicate" (Faber & Usón, 1997, p. 47). As clearly seen in this dimension-level schema, an obvious scale of intensity exists in parts of the hierarchy for both liking and disliking verb classes.

The studies hitherto have demonstrated that emotion verbs may have different classes and near-synonymous emotion verbs may differ in terms of their intensity of emotion. Before mentioning the core studies (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012, 2014) which form the basis of our investigation of scalar emotion verbs, it is worthwhile to Levin's verb classification which is the basis of VerbNet as our study lays emphasis on such online lexical databases.

Levin (1993) categorizes semantic verb classes that pattern according to syntactic alternations. Levin's verb classes are presumed to share both a set of syntactic alternations and a common semantics. She describes 78 diathesis alternations. In her study, 3,104 English verbs are classified into 49 verb families, and partly divided into 191 sub-classes in terms of alternations the respective verbs undergo. She states that psychological-state verbs typically take two arguments which are frequently characterized as the stimulus (or cause, theme, target of emotion, and object of emotion) and the experiencer. Levin states that it is possible to differentiate 4 classes of psychological verbs in English with regard to expression of the arguments (the experiencer and stimulus): two of these classes are transitive verbs and two of other classes are intransitive verbs that take prepositional complements. The most numerous are transitive psych-verbs which are divided into two classes according to experiencer of the emotion: subject experiencer verbs (the admire verbs) or object experiencer verbs (the amuse verbs). On the other hand, the intransitive psych-verbs are divided into two distinct classes according to whether the experiencer is articulated "as the subject (the marvel verbs) or as the object of the preposition heading a prepositional phrase complement (the appeal verbs)" (Levin, 1993, p. 189).

Now, we turn our focus to the empirical studies which found that emotion verbs have scalar qualities. In two studies (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012, 2014), English emotion verbs such as astonish, fear and surprise were investigated in terms of their subclasses. As Fellbaum and Mathieu (2014) state, "the gradation is richly lexicalized by verbs that denote different degrees of intensity of the same emotion" (p. 99). They examined manually constructed classes of verbs that express different intensity degrees through corpus data. They found that the chosen emotion verbs indeed have scalar qualities, and the Web data enabled them to construct consistent scales with verbs which were ordered in terms of their emotional intensity. An example of these scales related to fear type emotion verbs is as follows: "*Intimidate > alarm > scare > frighten > panic > terrify*" (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2014, p. 107). Their study shows a way to represent the scalar properties of emotion verbs or other verb classes in WordNet. They suggest that other possible extensions to additional verb families can cause a more subtle semantic analysis of emotion verbs and their developed representation in lexical databases with potential benefits for automatic inferencing, language pedagogy and translation. "WordNet (Miller, 1995; Fellbaum, 1998) is a large lexical database of English" (WordNet, 2010). Verbs, nouns, adverbs and adjectives are grouped into synsets (sets of cognitive synonyms), each indicating a distinct concept. Synsets are interlinked through conceptual lexical and semantic relations. Verb synsets are grouped into hierarchies in WordNet; verbs which take place at the bottom of the trees show increasingly particular manners describing an event (troponyms). The verbs "{communicate}-{talk}-{whisper}" can be a good example for this. The particular manner expressed depends on the semantic field like intensity of emotion (e.g., like-love-idolize) or speed (e.g., move-jog-run) (WordNet, 2010).

In their another study, Fellbaum and Mathieu (2012) purposed to develop a semantic classification of English emotion verbs empirically and they stated that this classification

- “provides a subtle, novel and empirically grounded analysis of a crucial component of the English verb lexicon;
- serves as the basis for appropriate representations in lexical resources serving natural language processing, like WordNet;
- has the potential to improve automatic text understanding by facilitating the detection of lexically based cohesion and inferencing;
- may be represented in WordNet in a way that is consistent with WordNet's structure” (Fellbaum & Mathieu, 2012, p. 105).

They investigated three English verb groups which express the causation of emotions (anger, surprise and frighten). In order to arrive at a placement of the verbs on their respective scales, they used Sheinman and Tokunaga’s (2009) patterns (*perhaps even; not to say; if not then*) which are exemplified below. Like Sheinman and Tokunaga, they utilized the Web as a corpus. They chose three patterns:

(P1) *perhaps even* (e.g., She looked alarmed, *even* scared by our festive look.)

(P2) *not to say* (This information is good, *not to say* superb).

(P3) *If not Then* (The idea of going down into the caves scares her, *if not* scares then intimidates her.) Based on these patterns they constructed a linear scale with fear type emotion verbs which express the causation of emotions as follows:

“Intimidate > alarm > scare > frighten > terrify” (Fellbaum & Mathieu, 2012, p. 109).

In order to make a comparison between their automatically derived scales and human judgments, they gathered data from ten native-speaker students studying at Princeton University (Fellbaum & Mathieu, 2012). They gave the students three groups of verbs that express causation of anger, surprise and fear in random order and asked them to construct a scale according to those verbs’ intensity of emotion. Native speakers’ scales were congruent with Fellbaum and Mathieu’s (2012) Web data. They state that a crosslinguistic investigation of emotion verbs’ scalar properties may yield interesting variations in terms of lexicalization. They also maintain that it is not likely that all languages will encode the same degrees of a given emotion lexically.

In another empirical study, Sheinman and Tokunaga (2009) have also investigated the scalar properties of adjectives. Sheinman and Tokunaga (2009) introduced AdjScales which is a way of scaling similar adjectives by their strength. In order to automatically make a distinction between similar adjectives which characterize the same quality by strength, their method combined Web-based computational linguistic techniques. They chose some adjective pairs, first selecting one of WordNet’s direct antonyms, such as good-bad, and then one adjective that is semantically similar to it from the same side of the scale (e.g., great). They utilized 10 seed word pairs chosen from the adjective scale samples proposed

by Fellbaum, Gross and Miller (1993). Figure 3 illustrates an example of their unified scale through AdjScales method.



Figure 3. The illustration of unified scale (Sheinman & Tokunaga, 2009, p. 1545)

They evaluated their method by comparing with annotation on a subset of adjectives from Wordnet by 4 native speakers of English. The method was also compared with annotations of 2 non-native speakers. It was found that the scales constructed by natives were mostly consistent with AdjScales, but there was less agreement between AdjScales and the scales of non-natives. They suggest that it is important to have a method for grading lexicalized adjectives and especially useful for learners struggling with similar adjectives. They also state that this sort of information can be extracted more easily than before by means of the Web available as corpora. They list some possible contributions of such scales as follows:

- They can be used in the field of language learning tools,
- They help learners distinguish between similar words,
- Automatic acquisition of adjective scales in construction of ratings for questionnaires for interface design,
- Textbook authoring,
- Lexical resource enhancement (Sheinman & Tokunaga, 2009).

In a further empirical study, Sheinman, Fellbaum, Julien, Schulam and Tokunaga (2013) proposed “a new semantic relation for gradable adjectives in WordNet” (p. 797). They used several lexical patterns such as “is / are x but not y ”, “ x even / perhaps y ” and “if not y at least x ” and utilized the Web as corpus for validation of the relative strength of adjectives such as “huge”, “large” and “gigantic” in terms of their attribute (size). Their analysis yielded the following adjective scales: tiny > small > smallish; large < huge < gigantic=monstrous. Then they suggested several applications of such scales in WordNet and their benefits for linguists and language learners. These are graphically representation of scales through software programs like WordNet to facilitate lexical acquisition, cross-lingual encoding through mapping scales across languages for machine and human translation, cross-scale relations to extract additional information about words, identifying spam product reviews which are online reviews of products for unhelpful and deceptive purposes, comparing nouns with AdjScales in terms of their shared attributes (Sheinman et al., 2013).

It is obvious that like adjectives, verbs have also scalar qualities, and we can construct consistent scales with verbs which are ordered in terms of their emotional intensity. It may

also be useful for language learners to order word groups in terms of degree of intensity in order to learn the words more quickly. Lindstromberg (1985) indicates that it is possible to learn numerous words, and in order to achieve it: people usually acquire ordered groups better and faster than random groups; English words are, to a large extent, grouped into families (or arrays) small and big; we can see this kind of grouping in regard to meaning areas that are internally ordered via sense relations, like antonymy of different sorts (e.g. hot-cold, dead-alive), binary oppositions (e.g. continuous vs. non-continuous, as in tow vs. tug), degree of intensity and inclusion of one meaning by another (p. 235). For example, look at the sentence frame below and the word pairs illustrated in Figure 4,

'I wasn't just _____, I was positively _____.

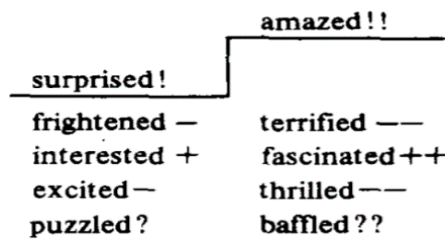


Figure 4. A stair step schema (Lindstromberg, 1985, p. 236)

(Note: ! stands for a word expressing causation surprise; - stands for a word expressing causation fear or excitement; ? stands for a word expressing causation confusion. The number of the symbols shows the intensity of the given word)

If we fill in the blanks first with the words of each pair in the given order in Figure 4, and then in the reverse order, the reverse order clearly yields peculiar sentences. Lindstromberg (1985) claims that this condition provides an evidence for a simple, two-step scaling in terms of intensity, as illustrated by the Figure 4 above- a stair step-type schema- for this kind of ordering.

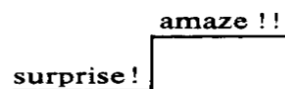


Figure 5. Example of a stair- step schema (Lindstromberg, 1985, p. 240)

He also claims that students may not learn emotive words properly if they do not learn this kind of ranking and grouping as shown in Figure 5. He suggests that in a low-intermediate class, the tutor should make sure that students have learnt *surprise* and *excite* well, which means, among other things, that the students should be aware that these words are not synonyms as from each word, in terms of English usage, a different 'stair step' will be derived. Unless the students are taught accurately at this level, these words will probably throw them into confusion for later on (Lindstromberg, 1985). Similarly, Sökmen (1997) asserts that classifying or ordering words is a technique that allows students to distinguish differences between words in meaning and organize them to improve retention. When

learners are required to make a list of words in a specific order, organizing these words will associate new information with the old and, in turn, establish memory links (Sökmen, 1997).

The literature shows that like adjectives, we can also construct linear scales with emotion verbs based on their intensity of emotion. We have reviewed some empirical studies and we aim to investigate whether pre-service teachers can construct consistent scales with the scales of previous studies in literature (Fellbaum & Mathieu, 2012; Faber & Usón, 1997) in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity.

It is seen that here are no studies conducted with Turkish EFL learners on scalar emotion verbs and there is little or no interest in online lexical resources, such as as VerbNet, WordNet, FrameNet, PropBank, VerbOcean and TRIPS that can provide language teachers and learners with useful information for language learning, especially with regard to vocabulary learning. Thus, we aim to explore whether participants from various cultures similarly judge emotion verbs on a linear scale in terms of their intensity, or there are cross-cultural differences. In addition, this study may raise awareness of aforementioned online lexical resources among Turkish language learners and teachers.

METHOD

Participants

The present study was conducted with 38 non-native pre-service English teachers (23 females, 15 males) studying at Yozgat Bozok University, 11 English instructors working at 4 different state universities in Turkey, and 10 native speakers of English (4 British, 6 American). Pre-service English teachers' proficiency level was mostly upper-intermediate. They were deliberately selected from ELT department due to the nature of the task which would be otherwise too difficult for students at lower proficiency levels. In addition, as pre-service English teachers will teach vocabulary as teachers of future, it is assumed that such a vocabulary-based study will be more meaningful and useful for raising their awareness of scalar properties of words and online lexical resources. In order to compare the pre-service teachers' scores with more competent samples, English instructors and native speakers were involved in the study. A convenience sampling method was preferred because of the convenient proximity and accessibility of the participants to the researcher. One of the native speakers is an instructor at Bozok University, so with her help, we could reach 5 more native speakers living in the USA and the UK. We reached other 4 native speakers with the help of colleagues at the same university.

Research Design and Data Collection Tools

A quantitative research design was adopted as the success rates of the participants regarding their scale construction were computed and a comparison was made among the scales of pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers. A scale construction task was administered in order to gather data from participants' judgements on scalar emotion verbs

in terms of their relative order on a linear scale. It is presented in Appendix A. The task is composed of two parts. Part I included three groups of emotion verbs. In the first group, there were fear type verbs: *intimidate* < *alarm* < *scare* < *frighten* < *terrify* which were supposed to be placed in the given order. These fear type emotion verbs were scaled in Fellbaum and Mathieu's (2012) study. The second group included 5 liking emotion verbs: *like* < *love* < *adore* < *worship* < *deify*; and the third group included 5 disliking emotion verbs: *dislike* < *hate* < *abhor* < *detest* < *loathe* whose intensity scales have been demonstrated in Faber and Usón's (1997) study. In the second part of the task, there were a total of 18 sentences including three groups of emotion verbs with a multiple-choice test. The first 6 sentences included fear type emotion verbs; the second 6 sentences included liking emotion verbs and the last 6 sentences included disliking emotion verbs. In order to collect data from participants, the Ethics Committee Approval numbered 2020-05 and dated 26.11.2020 was granted. The permission of the university where the research was done was ensured. All the participants were informed about the nature of the study and they all agreed to participate in this study.

Data Analysis

In order to compute the participants' scores regarding the relative order of the verbs on the scale, descriptive statistics were used. In order to compare group means, one-way ANOVA test was used. All the tests were carried out through SPSS Statistics 23 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). In the first part of the task, each correct scale was given the value of 4, and each incorrect scale was given the value of 2. In the second part of the task, each correct answer was given the value of 1, so the highest score in this part was 18 as there were a total of 18 items testing three groups of emotion verbs (6 fear type verbs, 6 liking verbs and 6 disliking verbs). For each type of verb class, the highest score was 6.

Procedure

The data were collected from pre-service teachers via direct communication with them during their course hours and it took two days to collect data. The data were obtained from instructors through office visits during a week. The data were collected from native speakers mostly via e-mail and it took 2 weeks to collect data. One of the native speakers was at the same university where the researcher works, so her data were gathered via direct communication and it took an hour to collect data. In the first part of the task, the participants were asked to place the emotion verbs on a scale regarding their intensity of emotion. They were presented in random order in the instruction of the task. In the second part of the task, a total of 18 sentences including three groups of emotion verbs were given to the participants with a multiple-choice test. In each item, participants were asked to choose an appropriate verb that may complete the sentence appropriately among 4 options. It was stated that more than one option could be possible, and all 4 options could also be possible in some cases. For example, when we consider the example below, all the options can complete the sentences as the pattern "if not... then" allows us to place less intense verbs *alarm*, *scare*, *frighten* and *intimidate* on the right of more intense verb *terrify*.

Example: The prospect of change and evolution *terrifies* many people around the world, *if not terrifies then* _____ them.

a- alarms b- scares c- frightens d- intimidates

Most of the sentences were manually constructed utilizing the patterns below:

1- (perhaps) even...., 2- if not.... then...., 3- not..... just, 4- ... let alone....

The first and second patterns were adopted from the patterns used in Sheinman and Tokunaga's (2009) and Fellbaum and Mathieu's (2012) studies. The third and fourth patterns were produced by the researcher drawing on dictionaries such as Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online (2019) and Lexico (2019) powered by Oxford University Press, and with the help of an expert. The direction of these patterns differs. It means that in the case of the first and the fourth patterns, the more intense verb is placed on the right of the phrase as shown in the examples below:

She absolutely *likes, even adores* Elvis Presley.

She couldn't stand it when someone *disliked* her, *let alone hated* her

However, in the second and third patterns, the more intense emotion verb is placed on the left of the phrase as follows:

What he had said was all through rage, he didn't really *detest* Cooper... *just disliked* her.

The prospect of change and evolution *terrifies* many people around the world, *if not terrifies then scares* them.

After all data were collected from the participants, the researcher entered data into SPSS Statistics and then analysed the data by running statistical tests and interpreted them.

RESULTS

In order to answer the first research question (To what extent can pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers construct consistent scales with the scales of previous studies in literature in terms of the order of emotion verbs based on their intensity?), how often the participants placed each emotion verb on a position on the scale was calculated.

Table 1 shows how often the pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers placed each fear-type emotion on a position on the scale. The expected order of the scale was: *intimidate* < *alarm* < *scare* < *frighten* < *terrify*. The data revealed that half of the pre-service teachers (50 %) placed *alarm* in the first position, while 42.1 % of them placed *intimidate* in the first position. On the other hand, nearly half of them (44.7 %) placed *scare* in the second position. It seems that the pre-service teachers judged *intimidate* and *alarm* to be the weakest verbs and *scare* to be the second weakest verb in terms of their intensity of emotion. It can be stated that they were confused about the order of these verbs on the scale. Half of them (50 %) judged *frighten* to be the second strongest verb, then *terrify* to be the strongest verb

Table 1

Participants' Judgements of the Order of Fear-type Emotion Verbs on the Scale

		Pos.	Intimidate	Alarm	Scare	Frighten	Terrify
Pre-service teachers	1	Freq.	16	19	2	0	1
		%	42.1	50	5.2	0	2.6
	2	Freq.	11	7	17	2	1
		%	28.9	18.4	44.7	5.2	2.6
	3	Freq.	4	5	14	13	2
		%	10.5	13.1	36.8	34.2	5.2
	4	Freq.	6	4	4	19	5
		%	15.7	10.5	10.5	50	13.1
	5	Freq.	1	3	1	4	29
		%	2.6	7.8	2.6	10.5	76.3
Total N			38	38	38	38	38
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Intimidate	Alarm	Scare	Frighten	Terrify
Instructors	1	Freq.	4	6	1	0	0
		%	36.3	54.5	9.09	0	0
	2	Freq.	3	4	3	1	0
		%	27.2	36.3	27.2	9.09	0
	3	Freq.	2	1	7	0	1
		%	18.8	9.09	63.6	0	9.09
	4	Freq.	1	0	0	10	1
		%	9.09	0	0	90.9	9.09
	5	Freq.	1	0	0	0	9
		%	9.09	0	0	0	81.8
Total N			11	11	11	11	11
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Intimidate	Alarm	Scare	Frighten	Terrify
Native Speakers	1	Freq.	7	3	0	0	0
		%	70	30	0	0	0
	2	Freq.	2	7	1	0	0
		%	20	70	10	0	0
	3	Freq.	1	0	9	0	0
		%	10	0	90	0	0
	4	Freq.	0	0	0	9	1
		%	0	0	0	90	10
	5	Freq.	0	0	0	1	9
		%	0	0	0	10	90
Total N			10	10	10	10	10
Total %			100	100	100	100	100

(N= 38; Freq. = Frequency; Pos. = Position of the verb on the scale; %= Percentage).

(76.3 %), which is consistent with the actual scale. As for instructors, they judged *alarm* to be the weakest verb (54.5 %) by placing it in the first position. 36.3 % of them placed *intimidate* in the first position while 27.2 % of them placed it in the second position. Like pre-service teachers, instructors seem to be confused about the order of *intimidate* and *alarm* on the scale regarding their intensity of emotion. But they placed *scare* in the third position (63.6%); *frighten* in the fourth position (90.9); and *terrify* in the last position (81.8), which is

congruent with the expected scale. Native speakers' judgements of the relative order of fear-type emotion verbs showed that the majority of them placed the verb *intimidate* in the first position (70 %); *alarm* in the second position (70 %); *scare* in the third position (90 %); *frighten*

Table 2

Participants' Judgements of the Order of Liking Emotion Verbs on the Scale

		Pos.	Like	Love	Adore	Worship	Deify
Pre-service teachers	1	Freq.	32	0	1	3	2
		%	84.2	0	2.6	7.8	5.2
	2	Freq.	3	30	4	0	1
		%	7.8	78.9	10.5	0	2.6
	3	Freq.	2	5	27	2	1
		%	5.2	13.1	71	5.2	2.6
	4	Freq.	0	3	4	23	8
		%	0	7.8	20.5	60.5	21
	5	Freq.	1	0	2	10	26
		%	2.6	0	5.2	26.3	68.4
Total N			38	38	38	38	38
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Like	Love	Adore	Worship	Deify
Instructors	1	Freq.	11	0	0	0	0
		%	100	0	0	0	0
	2	Freq.	0	11	0	0	0
		%	0	100	0	0	0
	3	Freq.	0	0	11	0	0
		%	0	0	100	0	0
	4	Freq.	0	0	0	7	4
		%	0	0	0	63.6	36.3
	5	Freq.	0	0	0	4	7
		%	0	0	0	36.3	63.3
Total N			11	11	11	11	11
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Like	Love	Adore	Worship	Deify
Native Speakers	1	Freq.	10	0	0	0	0
		%	100	0	0	0	0
	2	Freq.	0	10	0	0	0
		%	0	100	0	0	0
	3	Freq.	0	0	10	0	0
		%	0	0	100	0	0
	4	Freq.	0	0	0	9	1
		%	0	0	0	90	10
	5	Freq.	0	0	0	1	9
		%	0	0	0	10	90
Total N			10	10	10	10	10
Total %			100	100	100	100	100

(N= 38; Freq. = Frequency; Pos. = Position of the verb on the scale; %= Percentage).

in the fourth position (90 %); and *terrify* in the last position (90 %), which is consistent with the actual scale. The results of these study are congruent with Sheinman and Tokunaga's

(2009) study as native speakers' adjscales were more consistent with the actual scale than the scale of non-natives in their study. The results are also in line with Fellbaum and Mathieu's (2012) study as native speakers in their study constructed the same scale regarding fear-type verbs as in the current study.

As for liking verbs, the relative order of the verbs on the scale is: like < love < adore < worship < deify. According to pre-service teachers' judgements, as shown in Table 2 above, it was seen that most of the pre-service teachers tended to place the verb *like* in the first position (84.2 %); *love* in the second position (78.9 %); *adore* in the third position (71 %); *worship* in the fourth position (60.5 %); and *deify* in the fifth position (68.4 %) as in the actual scale. Similarly, but with higher success rate, instructors placed all the verbs in the expected position on the scale. Native speakers also constructed a consistent scale regarding liking emotion verbs. All of them placed the verbs *like*, *love*, and *adore* respectively from the weakest to strongest, 90 % of them placed *worship* in the fourth position and *deify* in the last position as the strongest emotion verb.

The last group of verbs includes disliking verbs, and their relative order is as follows: dislike < hate < abhor < detest < loathe. Table 3 below shows that most of the pre-service teachers placed dislike in the first position (84.2 %), half of them placed hate in the second position (50 %), but they had difficulty in deciding on which verb to place in the 3rd, 4th and 5th position as the percentages of their ordering the verbs in these positions were close to each other. Instructors also faced the same difficulty in terms of placing the verbs *abhor*, *detest* and *loathe*. Although all of them placed *dislike* in the first position (100%) and the majority of them placed *hate* in the second position (90.9 %) as expected, 36.3 % of them placed *abhor* either in the third or in the fifth position, more than half of them placed *detest* in the third position and *loathe* in the fifth position. It seems that they were unsure about these 3 disliking verbs on the scale. Native speakers judged the verb *dislike* to be the weakest (100%) and *loathe* to be the strongest (70%) in this scale. They placed *hate* in the second position (70%) and *detest* in the fourth position (60%) as in the actual scale; however, they were also unsure about the position of the verb *abhor* as nearly half of them (40%) placed it either in the third or in the fifth position.

It can be clearly seen that the pre-service teachers and instructors had difficulty in placing the verbs *abhor*, *detest*, *loathe* in the correct position; and native speakers had difficulty in judging the correct position of *abhor*. This may partly be due to the decrease in the frequency of using *abhor* over time as seen in Figure 6 below and thus, especially non-native speakers may not be familiar with this verb. In addition, differentiating the subtle differences between the meanings of the verbs is difficult, and thus such tasks may be perceived as difficult by the participants (Fellbaum, Grabowski, & Landes, 1997).

Table 3

Participants' Judgements of the Order of Disliking Emotion Verbs on the Scale

		Pos.	Dislike	Hate	Abhor	Detest	Loathe
Pre-service teachers	1	Freq.	32	1	2	1	2
		%	84.2	2.6	5.2	2.6	5.2
	2	Freq.	5	19	3	8	3
		%	13.1	50	7.8	21	7.8
	3	Freq.	0	7	3	14	14
		%	0	18.4	7.8	36.8	36.8
	4	Freq.	0	4	17	10	7
		%	0	10.5	44.7	26.3	18.4
	5	Freq.	1	7	13	5	12
		%	2.6	18.4	34.2	13.1	31.5
Total N			38	38	38	38	38
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Dislike	Hate	Abhor	Detest	Loathe
Instructors	1	Freq.	11	0	0	0	0
		%	100	0	0	0	0
	2	Freq.	0	10	1	0	0
		%	0	90.9	9.09	0	0
	3	Freq.	0	1	4	6	0
		%	0	9.09	36.3	54.5	0
	4	Freq.	0	0	2	4	5
		%	0	0	18.1	36.3	45.4
	5	Freq.	0	0	4	1	6
		%	0	0	36.3	9.09	54.5
Total N			11	11	11	11	11
Total %			100	100	100	100	100
		Pos.	Dislike	Hate	Abhor	Detest	Loathe
Native Speakers	1	Freq.	10	0	0	0	0
		%	100	0	0	0	0
	2	Freq.	0	7	0	1	2
		%	0	70	0	10	20
	3	Freq.	0	2	4	3	1
		%	0	20	40	30	10
	4	Freq.	0	1	2	6	0
		%	0	10	20	60	0
	5	Freq.	0	0	4	0	7
		%	0	0	40	0	70
Total N			10	10	10	10	10
Total %			100	100	100	100	100

(N= 38; Freq. = Frequency; Pos. = Position of the verb on the scale; %= Percentage).

As shown in Figure 7, the frequency of using *loathe* is also low and non-native speakers may not be much familiar with its usage, so they had difficulty in deciding on its correct position on the scale. Therefore, it is possible to state that frequency of verb usage plays a role in human judgements.

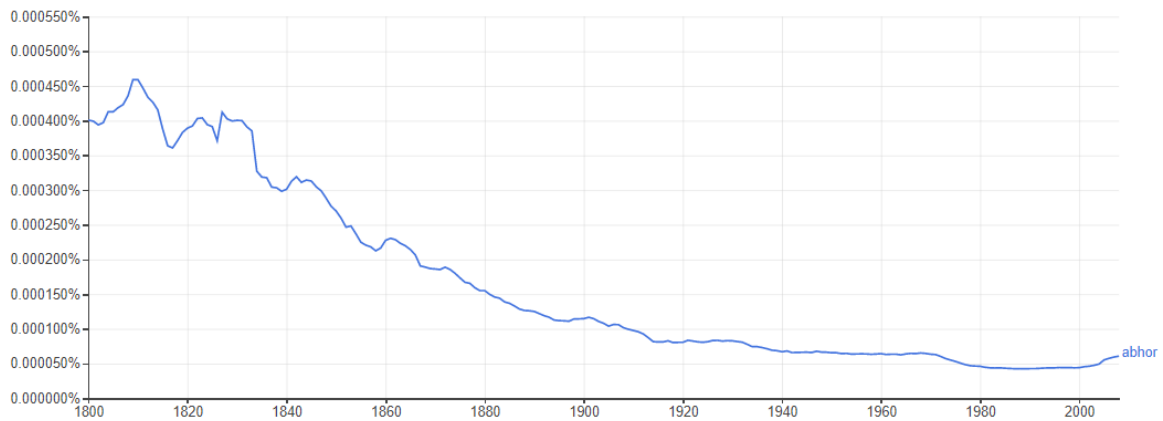


Figure 6. Analysis of Change in the Frequency of Using Abhor (Google Books Ngram Viewer, 2019)



Figure 7. Analysis of Change in the Frequency of Using Loathe (Google Books Ngram Viewer, 2019)

When the participants' overall scores in terms of their correct scale construction were examined, as shown in Table 4, only 7 pre-service teachers could construct a correct scale for fear-type emotion verbs (18.4 %) and 1 pre-service teacher could construct a correct scale for disliking verbs (2.6%). However, more than half of them could construct a consistent scale for liking verbs. Similarly, instructors performed poorly in terms of their correct scale construction for fear-type (36.4%) and disliking verbs (27.3 %) but performed better for liking verbs (63.6%). Native speakers could construct better scales for fear-type (70%) and liking verbs (90%). However, 60% of them could not also construct correct scales for disliking verbs. It was seen that the worst performance was observed in scale construction for disliking verbs among all participants.

Table 4

Total Number of the Participants Constructing Scales Like Actual Scale

Participant	Type of Emotion Verb	Correct Scale			Incorrect Scale	
		N	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Pre-Service Teachers	Fear- type emotion verbs	38	7	18.4	31	81.6
	Liking Verbs	38	21	55.3	17	44.7
	Disliking Verbs	38	1	2.6	37	97.4
Instructors	Fear- type emotion verbs	11	4	36.4	7	63.6
	Liking Verbs	11	7	63.6	4	36.4
	Disliking Verbs	11	3	27.3	8	72.7
Native-Speakers	Fear- type emotion verbs	10	7	70	3	30
	Liking Verbs	10	9	90	1	10
	Disliking Verbs	10	4	40	6	60

Table 5

Group Statistics of Participants According to Their Success in Scale Construction

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Fear-type verbs	Between Groups	8,610	2	4,305	5,820	,005
	Within Groups	41,424	56	,740		
	Total	50,034	58			
Liking verbs	Between Groups	3,826	2	1,913	2,086	,134
	Within Groups	51,361	56	,917		
	Total	55,186	58			
Disliking verbs	Between Groups	5,439	2	2,720	6,853	,002
	Within Groups	22,222	56	,397		
	Total	27,661	58			
Total Success Rates	Between Groups	5,635	2	2,817	9,091	,000
	Within Groups	17,356	56	,310		
	Total	22,991	58			

In order to find out whether there are significant differences among pre-service teachers', instructors' and native-speakers' success rates in terms of placing emotion verbs on the scale correctly, one-way ANOVA test was conducted. Table 5 above shows that there was a statistically significant difference across pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers in terms of their correct scales for fear-type verbs ($F(2,56)=5,820$, $p< .05$), disliking verbs ($F(2,56)= 6,853$, $p< .05$), and their total success rates ($F(2,56)= 2,817$, $p< .05$). In order to determine where the difference was among groups, descriptive statistics were examined. According to Table 6, the most successful group was native speakers, and the least successful group was pre-service teachers in scale construction for three groups of verbs and in terms of their total success rates. It was also seen that there was not a statistically significant difference among groups in terms of their correct scales for liking verbs ($F(2,56)=2,086$, $p=.134$). It was clearly seen that all the participants were more successful in constructing correct scales for liking emotion verbs than they did for the other verb families.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics Regarding Participants' Success in Scale Construction

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Fear-type verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	2,3684	,78572	,12746
	Instructors	11	2,7273	1,00905	,30424
	Native Speakers	10	3,4000	,96609	,30551
Liking verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	3,1053	1,00779	,16349
	Instructors	11	3,2727	1,00905	,30424
	Native Speakers	10	3,8000	,63246	,20000
Disliking verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	2,0526	,32444	,05263
	Instructors	11	2,5455	,93420	,28167
	Natives	10	2,8000	1,03280	,32660
Total Success Rates	Pre-Service Teachers	38	2,5088	,42261	,06856
	Instructors	11	2,8485	,84805	,25570
	Native Speakers	10	3,3333	,62854	,19876

When the participants' responses to the second part of the task were examined, one-way ANOVA test, as given in Table 7, the results yielded a statistically significant difference across groups in terms of participants' total correct scores for fear-type verbs ($F(2,56)=3.140$, $p< .05$), liking verbs ($F(2,56)=7.588$, $p< .05$), and disliking verbs ($F(2,56)=20.903$, $p< .05$).

Descriptive statistics in Table 8 below further yielded consistent results with participants' success rates in scale construction in the first part of the task. The results

similarly revealed that the most successful group was native speakers for all type of emotion verbs; and the least successful group was pre-service teachers.

Table 7

Group Statistics of Participants According to Their Success in Multiple Choice Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Fear-type verbs	Between Groups	13,385	2	6,692	3,140	,005
	Within Groups	119,361	56	2,131		
	Total	132,746	58			
Liking verbs	Between Groups	27,047	2	13,523	7,588	,001
	Within Groups	99,801	56	1,782		
	Total	126,847	58			
Disliking verbs	Between Groups	32,731	2	16,366	20,903	,000
	Within Groups	43,845	56	,783		
	Total	76,576	58			

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics Regarding Participants' Success in Multiple Choice Test

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Fear-type Verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	1,2105	1,37856	,22363
	Instructors	11	1,6364	1,56670	,47238
	Natives	10	2,5000	1,64992	,52175
Liking Verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	1,4737	1,40918	,22860
	Instructors	11	2,4545	,93420	,28167
	Natives	10	3,2000	1,39841	,44222
Disliking Verbs	Pre-Service Teachers	38	1,4211	,79293	,12863
	Instructors	11	2,2727	,78625	,23706
	Natives	10	3,4000	1,26491	,40000

Our findings imply that it is not so easy to differentiate the scalar emotion verbs as they have subtle meaning differences and the meanings of near-synonyms may be interpreted differently by people from different cultures and the meaning of these words

may be different in target language and native language as Sheinman and Tokunaga (2009) also emphasized. For example, Jackson et al. (2019) examined “the meaning of emotion concepts in 2474 languages from 20 major language families” (p. 1517). They discussed whether emotion terms possess the same meaning across cultures, and they determined “the degree of similarity in linguistic networks of 24 emotion terms across cultures” (Jackson et al., 2019, p. 1522). They found low similarities and high variability; and “similarity of emotions can be predicted depending on the geographic proximity of the languages, the physiological arousal they evoke and their hedonic valence” (Jackson et al., 2019, p. 1522). Their findings show that interpretation of near-synonymous emotion verbs like in this study may differ across different cultures.

CONCLUSION

This study examined scalar properties of three types of emotion verbs, namely, fear-type emotion verbs, liking emotion verbs and disliking emotion verbs. We aimed to find out whether pre-service teachers, instructors and native speakers can construct consistent scales with previously determined scales in Fellbaum and Mathieu’s (2012) and Faber and Usón’s (1997) studies; and whether the participants’ scores regarding scale construction differ significantly. The results revealed that pre-service teachers performed poorly in constructing scales for fear-type and disliking emotion verbs, they were partly successful in constructing consistent scales with previously determined scales for liking verbs. Instructors similarly performed poorly in constructing scales for fear-type and disliking verbs, but they were better than pre-service teachers. They were also successful in constructing scales for liking verbs. Native speakers were successful in fear-type and liking verbs, but they also performed poorly in constructing consistent scales for disliking verbs. We attributed it to the decrease in the frequency of using *abhor* and *loathe*, which makes it difficult to decide the position of these verbs on the scale in terms of their intensity of emotion. When the groups were compared in terms of their success rate in scale construction as in the actual scales, a significant difference was found among groups regarding fear-type emotion verbs, disliking verbs and their total success rates. A significant difference was also seen among groups in terms of their responses to multiple choice test. Native speakers were found to be the most successful group whereas pre-service teachers were the least successful group. We may conclude that the participants from various cultures may judge emotion verbs differently on a linear scale in terms of their intensity and there may be cross-cultural differences.

Although the current study provides some valuable implications, it has some limitations too. The second part of the task was found to be quite difficult by the participants as some of them stated that differentiating the verbs with subtle meaning differences was very difficult without knowing the context and they needed more context to decide on the correct verb. Another limitation is that the number of the native speakers and instructors were limited. Further studies with more native speakers and language teachers may be

conducted to get more accurate results. Further studies on scalar verbs can be carried out with the help of corpus and then the data can be compared with the human judgements.

Nevertheless, this study provides useful information for the studies on lexical resources such as VerbNet, WordNet, FrameNet etc. This study also provides some implications for students, language teachers, and policy makers. Turkish EFL learners often have difficulty in choosing an appropriate word among near-synonymous words. If they become aware of scalar properties of words in English and verb classification and lexical resources mentioned above, they may improve their vocabulary skills and develop strategies for efficient vocabulary learning. Pre-service teachers can also benefit from such information as they will teach vocabulary in their future classes. When they are aware of lexical resources, they can carry out linguistic studies such as dialog processing, semantic parsing, speech understanding, textbook authoring, and lexical resource enhancement. As “people generally learn ordered groups quicker and better” (Lindstromberg, 1985, p. 235), we may state that ordering the words in terms of their degree of intensity in linear scales or stair-step schemata will help language learners acquire English words quicker and more efficiently.

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3rd Group: **loathe / dislike / detest / hate / abhor**

WEAKER

STRONGER

(least intense)

(the most intense)

1 _____ > 2 _____ > 3 _____ > 4 _____ > 5 _____

Part II.

Check (✓) the best option(s) to complete the sentences below. More than one option is possible. All the options may be possible in some cases.

(There is a total of 18 sentences including three groups of emotion verbs given above. The first 6 sentences include the verbs: **scare / alarm / terrify / intimidate / frighten**; the second 6 sentences include the verbs: **adore / worship / like / deify / love**; and the last 6 sentences include the verbs: **loathe / dislike / detest / hate / abhor**.)

A:

1- The idea of going down into the **caves** **scares** her, **if not scares then** _____ her. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online, 2019)

___ intimidates ___ frightens ___ terrifies ___ alarms

2- Truly, a cold chill gripped me, my heart rate increased, and I became **alarmed, even** _____. (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

___ frightened ___ intimidated ___ scared ___ terrified

3- She looked **frightened, even** _____ by our festive look. (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

___ alarmed ___ scared ___ intimidated ___ terrified

4- The ticking clock **intimidates** us, **even** _____ us. (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

___ alarms ___ terrifies ___ frightens ___ scares

5- I am still dealing with some level of doubt and fear, the assignment **scares and even** _____ me a little. (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

___ alarms ___ terrifies ___ frightens ___ intimidates

6- The prospect of change and evolution **terrifies** many people around the world, **if not terrifies then** _____ them. (Fellbaum, & Mathieu, 2012).

___ alarms ___ scares ___ frightens ___ intimidates

B:

1- No one even _____ him, **let alone adores** him. (Davies, 2008).

___ deifies ___ loves ___ worships ___ likes

2- Michael absolutely **worships** Mary, **if not worships then** _____ her.

___ adores ___ loves ___ likes ___ deifies

3- Albert Einstein has been **adored, even** _____ by the scientific community and society at large. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online, 2019)

___ loved ___ deified ___ liked ___ worshipped

4- She absolutely **loves, even** _____ Elvis Presley. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online, 2019)

___ deifies ___ adores ___ worships ___ likes

5- She confessed that she didn't **even** _____ her boyfriend, **let alone love** him.

___ deify ___ like ___ adore ___ worship

6- I've never been a lover of technology; I do not _____, **let alone deify** it.

___ love ___ worship ___ adore ___ like

C:

1- She evidently **loathes** her ex-husband, **if not loathes then** _____ him.

(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online, 2019).

___ abhors ___ hates ___ detests ___ dislikes

2- He **detests** war, militarism and chauvinism in every form, **if not detests then** _____ them. (Lexico, 2019).

___ abhors ___ dislikes ___ hates ___ loathes

3- What he had said was all through rage, he didn't really **hate** Cooper... **just** _____ her. (Lexico, 2019).

___ abhorred ___ disliked ___ detested ___ loathed

4- I have to say also that I find it very hard to **abhor** or **even significantly** _____ someone. (Lexico, 2019).

___ hate ___ dislike ___ detest ___ loathe

5- He was such a cruel king that everyone in the country _____ him, **let alone disliked** him.

___ loathed ___ hated ___ detested ___ abhorred

6- She couldn't stand it when someone _____ her, **let alone hate** her. (Lexico, 2019).

___ loathed ___ disliked ___ detested ___ abhorred



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ISSN: 2618-6209

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