

DISCOVERING LEARNERS' AND EDUCATORS' EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTIONS

EDITED BY
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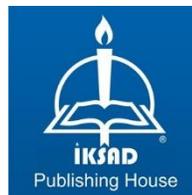
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PREFACE

The studies reported in this book aspire to shed light into learners and educators experiences and perceptions. Various methods of pedagogical diagnostics allow us to replenish and concretize knowledge, carry out a deep and detailed analysis of situations that arise in professional activity. Improving the professional activity of a teacher has a significant impact on the effectiveness of the educational process, including the quality of the educational activity of students.

Authors examine the difficulties perceived by students and teachers in online learning, distance education, struggles of learning and many other topics. Therefore, this book aims to investigate the kinds of challenges encountered by the learners and educators and how they actually cope with arising issues in each sphere of conduct.

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CHAPTER 1

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PERCEPTION OF SOCIAL PRESENCE AND THE SOCIAL NETWORKS-BASED LEARNING PERCEPTION

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INTRODUCTION

Traditionally conducted education and training activities have become a necessity in many areas by increasing their effectiveness in distance education environments with the development and spread of technology. Distance education is the ability of teachers and students, who are far from each other and in different environments, to communicate effectively with each other visually and audibly (İşman, 2011). This communication environment can be provided with special software for individuals and institutions, as well as with the help of social networks (youtube, facebook, instagram, etc.). Social networks are described as web-based environments where all kinds of data can be shared between users (Alper, 2012). These environments enable learning environments to spread from schools to all areas of life (Arkan & Yünter, 2018). Thus, good educators clustered in educational institutions are enabled to carry their education services to different points (Tonta, 1999).

One of the most important points in learning from social networks is to provide interaction. (Anderson and Simpson, 2012; Kaysi and Aydemir, 2017; Xu and Jaggars, 2013). It is emphasized that in these environments, there are three types of interactions: student-content, student-instructor and student-student (Moore, 1989) These interactions are quite different from face-to-face teaching (Kuo, Walker, Schroder, & Belland, 2014). Student-content interaction is expressed as the learners' following the course content, learning the content and participating in the activities (Moore & Kearsley, 1996;

Thurmond, 2003). It is thought that this type of interaction, which individuals mostly enter individually, is extremely important (Tosun, Özgür & Şahin, 2009) and the higher the level of interaction, the more positively it can affect learning (Berge 2002). Student-instructor interaction is expressed as instructors attracting students' attention and trying to motivate them (Moore, 1989). Student-student interaction is the interaction between students from the same class or in different classes (Phillips, Santoro & Kuehn, 1988). With social network environments that provide distance learning, the control and management of learning is within the individual, the individual can create personal learning goals and direct the content and process (Öztürk & Talas, 2015). It is emphasized that personal interaction is a basic element that facilitates learning in these environments (Zhao, Lei, Yan, Lai, & Tan, 2005).

This shows that personal interaction is important in learning with social networks. Social presence of students is an important factor in ensuring interaction, which is considered so important in social networking environments. Social presence is the degree of a student's perception of an environment in which she interacts with other students as social, warm, sensitive, personal or sincere (Lombard & Ditton, 1997). Social presence is the feeling that others are present in the communication process and in one way determines the quality of the communication environment (Whiteman, 2002). Yoon (2003) examined the behaviors of individuals in the virtual learning environment and stated that 26.3 percent of these behaviors are

constituted by the communication established between individuals. The interactions between students in the environment and the sense of community that occurs during the interaction affect the participants' perception of this environment as a social environment (Gunawardena, 1995). It is stated that the lack of social presence will cause the person to criticize the trainer and decrease the level of learning (Rifkind, 1992). At this point, it is necessary to exist socially while interacting with other people. In other words, there must be a sense of closeness, which is expressed as psychological closeness, between people during interaction (McLellan, 1999).

One of the most important dimensions of social presence is interaction (Tu & McIsaac, 2002). It can be said that social presence is very important in ensuring interaction in social network environments. The purpose of social presence is to create a feeling of comfort between the instructor and the students, and to transform the learning environment into a satisfactory and successful environment for instructors and students (Aragon, 2003). Gunawardena (1995) argues that social presence is necessary to increase and improve the effectiveness of teaching in technology-based classrooms. Gunawardena and Zittle (1997) stated that the perception of social presence is a strong predictor of student satisfaction in virtual learning environments. In this context, it is thought that students' social presence may affect their social networks-based learning perception. This study is considered important in terms of determining the effect of students' perceptions of social presence on their social networks-

based learning perception. Thus, it is aimed to contribute to the learning success of the students. In this context, the aim of the study is to determine whether the perception of social presence subscale scores are a significant predictor of social networks-based learning perception and to determine the predictive level of significant predictors.

METHOD

In this study, the relationship between the perception of social presence and the social networks-based learning perception was examined. In the study, the relational research model, which determines the existence or degree of the relationship between two or more variables, was used (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel, Wallen, Hyun, 2011).

Study Group

The participants of the study consisted of 260 students from a university located in the eastern part of Turkey. Since the data were collected during the pandemic period when the courses were taught by distance education, the convenience sampling method was used in the selection of the sample. Convenience sampling provides the researcher with the opportunity to reach the desired data more quickly and economically (Cohen et al., 2007). It is observed that 79.2% (206 persons) of the participants are female and 20.8% (54 persons) are male. The distribution of the research group in terms of gender is given in Table 1.

Tablo 1: Demographic Information about the Participants

Variable	Level	N	%
Gender	Famale	206	79,2
	Male	54	20,8
Total		260	100

Data Collection Process

Personal information form: With the personal information form prepared by the researcher, the personal information of the study group was collected on the basis of confidentiality.

Social presence scale for e-learning environments: In the study, the "Social Presence Scale for E-learning Environments" developed by Kılıç Çakmak, Çebi and Kan (2014) was used to determine students' perceptions of social presence. The scale is a 7 likert type form and has a structure consisting of 17 items and 3 dimensions (Interactive, Cohesive and Affective). Two of the statements in the scale are negative statements. The scale was scored as 1 (Entirely Disagree), 2 (Mostly Disagree), 3 (Somewhat Disagree), 4 (Neutral), 5 (Somewhat Agree), 6 (Mostly Agree), 7 (Entirely Agree). The highest score obtained from the scale was calculated as 119 and the lowest score as 17. An increase in the score obtained from the scale means that the perceptions of social presence increase positively. In this study, the reliability coefficients of the scale were found .72 for the interactive sub-dimension, .81 for the cohesive sub-dimension, and .73 for the affective sub-dimension.

Social networks-based learning perception scale: In the study, the Social Network-Based Learning Perception Scale, developed by

Yokuş and Yanpar Yelken (2019), was used to determine students' social networks-based learning perception. The scale, which is a 5 Likert type, has a structure consisting of 20 items and 4 dimensions (Interactive learning, Usage, Sharing and Personalization). The scale was scored as 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neutral), 4 (Agree), 5 (Strongly Agree). The highest score obtained from the scale was calculated as 100 and the lowest score as 20. An increase in the score obtained from the scale means that social networks-based learning perception increase positively. In this study, the reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .95 for the whole.

Ethic text: In this section, the rules specified in the publication guide were followed. In addition, this research was found ethically appropriate with the decision numbered 02-02 taken at the session numbered 03, dated 27/01/2021, of the Human Research Ethics Committee of Erzincan Binali Yıldırım University.

Data Analysis

Before starting the data analysis, 20 invalid and missing data were identified and removed from the data set. In the analysis of the data, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) were used to examine students' perceptions of social presence and Social networks-based learning perception. Simple correlation analysis was performed to determine the level of relationship between the variables. In addition, multiple linear regression analysis was performed to determine to what extent the perception of social presence predicted the social networks-based learning perception. In order to test whether the data

are suitable for multiple linear regression analysis, first of all, the basic assumptions were examined. It was observed that there was no multicollinearity problem among the predictor variables. At this point, it was observed that the correlations between the independent variables were below .80, the VIF value was less than 10, and the CI value was less than 30. The obtained values showed that the multiple linear regression analysis assumptions were met. As a result of the evaluations, multiple linear regression analysis method was applied for the data obtained in the research.

FINDINGS

In the findings part of the research; First, the arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of the scores obtained from the variables were calculated. Values for this analysis are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation Values

Variable	N	XX	SS
Interactive	260	38.88	6.56
Cohesive	260	27.21	6.02
Affective	260	23.11	6.33
Social networks-based learning perception	260	73.73	17.44

As represented in the table 2, the arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of the research group; Interactive ($X=38.85$; $SD=.93$), Cohesive ($X=38.08$; $SD=1.20$), Affective ($X=32.55$; $SD=1.26$), and Social networks-based learning perception ($X=18.55$; $SD=.87$) has been determined. The relationships between the research variables of interactive, cohesive, affective and social networks-based learning

perception were examined with a simple correlation analysis and the results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Simple Correlation Analysis Coefficients for Variables

Variable	IN	CO	AF	SNBLP
Interactive	1			
Cohesive	.614**	1		
Affective	.345**	.481**	1	
Social networks-based learning perception	.141*	.274**	.193**	1

** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

As represented in the table 3, there are positive and significant relationships between social networks-based learning perception and interactive ($r=.141$, $p<.05$), cohesive ($r=.274$, $p<.01$) and affective ($r=.193$, $p<.01$). This finding shows that the social networks-based learning perceptions increases as individuals' interactive, cohesive and affective increase in social networking environments. In addition, it was observed that there was no correlation value above .80, which can be defined as multi-collinearity between the predictive variables of interaction, cohesive and affective. In another step, it was examined whether the perception of social presence predicts the social networks-based learning perception. Multivariate linear regression analysis was performed to predict the social networks-based learning perception by using the variables of Interaction, cohesive and affective, which are the sub-dimensions of the social presence scale. The results of this analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Results Regarding the Prediction of Social Presence on Social Networks-Based Learning Perception

Variable	B	S. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	2,669	,328		8,144	,000*
Interactive	-,047	,071	-,051	-,664	,507
Cohesive	,192	,059	,265	3,256	,001*
Affective	,057	,047	,083	1,209	,228
	R=,286	R ² =,071	F=7,578	P=,000*	

** $p < .01$

As represented in the table 4, it was found that a significant regression model $F(df1, df2) = 7.57, p < .001$, and approximately 7% of the variance in the dependent variable ($R^2_{adjusted} = .07$) was explained by the independent variables. Accordingly, Interactive does not significantly predict the social networks-based learning perception. $B = -.05, t(256) = -.66, p = .507, pr^2 = .00$. Cohesive positively and significantly predicts the social networks-based learning perception. $B = .26, t(256) = 3.26, p < .001, pr^2 = .03$. Affective do not significantly predict the social networks-based learning perception. $B = .08, t(256) = 1.20, p = .228, pr^2 = .00$. Accordingly, the regression equation; Social networks-based learning perception = $2.66 + .19 * Cohesive$.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the relationship between the perception of social presence and the social networks-based learning perception was examined. As a result of the research, it was observed that there was a positive and significant relationship between the social networks-based learning perception and interactive, cohesive and affective. In addition, it was observed that cohesive significantly predicted the social networks-based learning perception. Cohesive explained about

7% of the social networks-based learning perception. It is seen that cohesive is important in increasing students' social networks-based learning perception. This can be interpreted as the more students feel belonging to learning groups in e-learning environments, the more their social networks-based learning perception will increase. In other words, it is seen that the social networks-based learning perception increase as students feel close to other students, act as a group with them, and share in common in e-learning environments. It is stated that the sense of cohesive is a basic need in human life (Ersanlı & Koçyiğit, 2013). It can be said that this feeling increases both social presence and social networks-based learning perception in distance education environments. As a matter of fact, Ege and Koullapis (2009) stated that the sense of cohesive creates a social environment among team members by creating a team spirit. Karaağaçlı (2008) emphasizes that in e-learning environments, students' sense of belonging to the group should be developed and joint learning groups should be formed. So and Brush (2008) stated that as students' cooperative learning tendencies increase, their social presence increases and they tend to be more satisfied with distance learning. Richardson and Swan (2003) stated that students with a high perception of social presence have a high perception of learning. McLellan (1999) emphasized that learning environments should be designed that would encourage social presence and sense of community.

The results of the research showed that there is a relationship between the perception of social presence and the social networks-based learning perception. Therefore, as individuals' social presence in e-learning environments increases, their perception of learning from social networks will increase. In line with the results obtained from this study, some suggestions were made below:

- It should be made arrangements to increase students' sense of cohesive in e-learning environments.
- It can be conducted qualitative studies investigating the variables that affect students' social networks-based learning perception.
- This research is limited to the effect of social presence on the social networks-based learning perception. In this context, it can be conducted studies investigating the effect of different variables on the social networks-based learning perception.

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CHAPTER 2

COVID-19, LOCKDOWNS, AND BLENDED LEARNING: STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS, AND ACADEMICS' REFLECTIONS, OF MOVING TO ONLINE SPORTS COACHING CLASSES

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INTRODUCTION

It is probably fair to say that the role of university education, whilst contested, is primarily based upon the premise that students (irrespective of background, i.e. young people or old people, advantaged or disadvantaged, traditional or non-traditional) will learn through various mechanisms for learning – yet it is the ‘teacher’ who will more often than not be placed as the prime instrument to disseminate information and oversee learning. For instance, classic approaches to education, learning, and tutoring can be seen in Petty’s (2004) outline of three main modes of delivering educational sessions and teaching: Class teaching – whereby students learning the same thing at the same time (classical assumptions of teaching usually fall within this bracket); Resource based learning – where ‘teachers’ facilitate and support students to work at their own (assisted) rate; and self-directed learning – where students set their own framework for learning through negotiation with the teacher.

Counter to the classical assumptions, many educators challenge what are often seen as didactic, instructive approaches to teaching and look to embed other strategies that seek to maximise learning through co-production of knowledge, and methods that emphasise relational rather than top down practice. Oftentimes as educators we move and shift from what we understand education to be (something that might be more aligned to outcomes, assessment, or demonstrations of learning) and strive to understand and develop modalities in relation to

personal experiences, biases, and how these, in turn, are aligned with wider governmental objectives and policies.

The skill of teaching and effective pedagogy seeks to understand this, in that it is significantly based upon the premise that teaching is an art, that learning is underpinned by theory and practice, and that these practices influence the way in which learning itself is undertaken, assimilated and understood by others. At university level (undergraduate and beyond) education has traditionally been centred upon a didactic relationship between researchers (and experts) and students themselves. Effectively then, it is the lecturers that ultimately decide what is taught, what is needed, as well as deciding how and when students are taught.

While this learning and teaching relationship continues to take precedence there are other ways and means of learning that have an established position and continue to develop. Some of these are perennial, for instance, distance learning has taken part in the U.K. (see the open university) for a considerable amount of time. In addition to this mode of teaching and learning, there is a rising understanding and increasing use of different virtual learning environments. Patterns of participation, the use of online communities of learning, online learning within institutions, and massive open online courses (MOOCs), are all examples of what are essentially, physically off campus learning structures.

Despite the progress of traditional teaching methods and their expansion into online territories, experiential learning outside of a

classroom setting is still frequently used. Commonly centred on the development of work-based skill, the supporting principle is that learners must develop and accrue competencies, knowledge, skills, and expertise through in-situ, oftentimes collaborative, first-hand experience (Crisp, 2018/20).

These methods of acquiring skill and competencies that fall under the umbrella of experiential learning are often seen in fields where physical training is essential but must be carefully monitored (e.g. nursing, surgery), but it also draws parallels with sport coaching. In this context sport coach education, there are traditional approaches that perhaps belie the way in which many people will learn formal qualifications, or non-formal types of workshops and the like, yet the general consensus is that coaches (of all levels) profit most effectively through on-site, experiential learning and informal opportunities or happenstance that enhance working knowledge and practice (Cushion et al. 2010). All told, the accumulation, extension, and sedimentation of work-like skills, competencies, and expertise, in many practical type contexts seem best suited (and profit most effectively) from immersive experiences and deliberate reflective practice.

Historically, the context of both university learning and that of sports coaches (and sport coaching as a whole) rely on face to face contact, and delivery of practical sessions. Indeed, sport coaching itself is oftentimes defined as a process by which a coach will determine, support, aid, and articulate a journey between a coach and an athlete

or team (Martens, 2004; Robinson, 2010), and this commonly operates in a tight knit environment by necessity, or takes part face to face.

COVID-19 and the UK Higher Education response

COVID-19 brought about a number of significant changes across the world in terms of mitigating the subsequent health implications that the disease brings (i.e. social distancing, and regional or national lockdowns to avoid exceeding hospital capacities and possible subsequent triage until suitable vaccination levels are reached). In the U.K. context, and mindful of the fact that the different home nations had different approaches, there were several lockdowns in 2020 and many universities decided to move to online only modes of teaching for the 2021 to 2022 academic year.

At the University of Chichester, however, the decision was taken to oversee a blended approach to learning (aiming for 50% online and 50% face to face teaching) whereby mitigation for the spread of the disease, whilst paramount as a philosophy, also allowed for outdoor activities and socially distanced smaller cohorts on-site.

As part of this, sport coaching modules continued to run in the first semester of the 2020-21 academic year in terms of practical delivery. Given this, the two second year sport coaching modules that the authors oversaw, and that we will refer to throughout this case study, continued to take place on site. What couldn't take place, however, was our normal practice of bringing in other external groups (we have an eight-year history of inviting other educational institutions, such as

primary school, further education colleges, and community groups to take part in sessions run by our students) to be coached on site.

In view of this, we brought in small groups of peers (first year students) to be coached and a systematic provision of different types of coaching sessions focusing on skills and competencies were overseen. In the new year, however, the third national lockdown from January 6th was expected to extend to (likely) March or April. Whilst we had avoided missing any substantial time off practical sessions within the first semester (including the partial November lockdown), we now understood that at least five weeks of the new semester was going to have to take place online only. Given that we could not actually practice coaching in the flesh, so to speak, and given that we wanted to maximise student learning, we developed and then undertook a five-week online programme with capacity to extend it if necessary.

Whilst we were not entirely sure of when we would be able to return to face to face coaching when the online sessions began, in late February 2021 the government lifted restrictions so that practical courses could recommence in early March 2021, which meant that the five-week course we designed took place in its entirety.

The course we designed was underpinned by an approach that whilst directly facilitating online learning, was fundamentally skewed and shifted toward a student led pedagogy. We first ensured that the students were competent and familiar with the Microsoft Teams system through an “ice breaker” induction and supported tasks in the

first week, and then allocated group tasks for the next four following weeks. These included running a fitness based session, running a martial arts based session, and to encourage the use of skills that might be easier to work with in an online environment they were also required to run a session on magic tricks/skills, and another on origami. This ensured that there were skills that were familiar and some that were novel, meaning that research and planning was necessary. Each group had a 20 minute session to coach the rest of the cohort each week, and the session topics were run on a rotation meaning that each group had to coach each of the four topics across the four weeks. This method also meant repetition was avoided as the cohort was always aware of the particular skills that had already been coached.

Our role as module tutors was to make sure that we could facilitate an engagement to ensure that learners were capable of learning from each other, to ensure that feedback continued throughout, and additionally to embed coaching skills throughout the initial five-week online programme

The results of this, the reflections both from ourselves and from our students at different checkpoints and signposts of a five-week period (accounting for, effectively, the beginning and the initial reflections, the midway process and final thoughts and considerations of the five-week programme), will be presented next. We will then offer recommendations and suggestions for future use.

Student perceptions, tutor reflections

The three general checkpoints that relate to the individual reflections and shared experiences of the students, are now be presented. There are no numbers or pseudonyms to differentiate between them, rather we present their thoughts in an unmarked, yet still anonymised fashion, and also offer our thoughts on the general feelings and key points that arose at each checkpoint.

The first week...

As mentioned, the first session was used to familiarise the students with the Microsoft Teams app , but also outlined what students had to do, and how they needed to work in allocated groups. At the end, the consensus was that they were somewhat relieved, and felt they were acclimating to the new format and idea well. For instance, one student stated that:

It's not as bad as I thought. Ice breaker task was fun apart from the fact my hand up signals register about 50 years late. All in all, it has worked well

Similarly, some students were quite philosophical about the situation:

It's obviously not the ideal situation, but thinking positively I think it's the best possible option at this time, it's also easier having quite a small friendly cohort, to express ideas and bounce off each other relatively easily.

It worked well. The ice breaker task at the beginning made it feel a lot more natural to get back into it and see how it is going to work. The slides (online) are a lot more visible than if it was in a normal lecture and so there's not worrying about not being able to see.

Worked well. The interactive tasks make it easier to pay attention than just watching a lecture.

I don't mind learning online. I really enjoy the live lessons as it as the closest thing to a one on one session with the hands up tool which I really like.

Teams is decent, I think its fine for basic learning, the interaction is more engaging than normal lectures, icebreaker task was good. I like the idea of these coaching sessions so far as they are simple enough to coach with a webcam but it's not going to be as enjoyable as normal Exercise/Sports coaching sessions.

Today has gone well as everyone was able to chat and helped with the ice breaker. The hand raising thing seems to work well and the online lessons are better because you can ask questions as you go along.

It has been very challenging working via teams. However, I like how Phil and Dave are adapting to the situation. It's a lecture

you can't afford to fall asleep in because its interactive and enjoyable.

Initially though, some of the students still felt somewhat frustrated about having to coach online, in particular given the absence of any 'live' coaching whatsoever:

I think today has worked quite well as a substitute for our normal Fridays. I'd prefer to do it in real life but this works well and the ice breaker was good.

Cool, but could never replace face to face. Lectures etc are okay online, but practicals are frustrating because I feel like we miss out on really valuable experience and learning, especially as it's how I learn best.

Found it awkward to unmute and not be able to speak directly to people. Hand raising is fine for me, I don't feel that comfortable having a camera on at the moment. Obviously still very frustrating that we can't coach the sports and everything like that.

Moreover, some of the students were reticent about what they had been tasked to do over the five-week period:

Being able to plan something with other people. I think actually coaching will be okay, but communicating and collaborating ideas without being able to meet will be difficult. And Wi-Fi!!

I feel like it just doesn't feel the same and so the sessions coming up may feel either awkward or they just aren't taught as well as they could be.

Not being able to coach most sports- demonstrations are much harder, watching skills and getting different perspectives is harder, harder to give feedback. Wifi cutting out. Not much space.

Can't trial and test coaching ideas in an actual sporting scenario. Physical cues is a huge part in coaching IMO, so being unable to do this as effectively over call will be challenging

I think the worry is, it's a lot harder to gauge people, how they are doing with an activity, it's going to be a case of trying to run the session whilst also looking out for hands up and cues over teams that suggest maybe a person needs help, but to keep track of that may be a bit difficult at least to begin with. Also pauses may feel awkward but sometimes it's trying to be polite not to talk over

What we can see from these kinds of results are that the students, whilst appreciative of how they needed to do this and how we as lecturers were trying, had some reticence. Overall, they weren't entirely sure with how this would go, but they were happy enough and felt that they had benefited from the first online session and were looking forward to continuing.

Halfway there...

These kind of thoughts and recollections were repeated midway through the five-week programme, although there were also increasingly positive comments. Asked how they were feeling about online coaching 'now', particularly in comparison to the last several weeks, the students felt that patience was a key factor, and that they were noticeably more comfortable and proficient with online coaching:

Today was a subject area I am more familiar with so I was happier coaching than I was with the magic and martial arts. It's definitely becoming more natural to do it online but it is still a lot nicer to do in person.

This week certainly felt more interactive with everyone. I think the breakout rooms definitely seemed to lift the mood and get everyone performing without any awkwardness. Teams seems to get more and more easier to use.

I feel better about online coaching now that we have had a few weeks to figure out how it works.

Feels completely natural coaching online. Perhaps struggled to think of and include any contextual interference in origami but at the end of the session, everyone was able to complete it successfully without any struggle. Now need to see if they are

able to produce the skill correctly with all of the information and key points they retained through my coaching without any help.

Think it's getting better each week, we're used to using teams now and it's getting easier to engage. Still can't wait to be back in real life though!

I'm starting to enjoy it a bit more, it is less awkward and everyone is starting to utilise the features on teams more. The magic session was especially good today in my opinion.

I think it's really taken us out of our comfort zone, we thought just doing different sports we'd never done was a bit foreign in the Dome, but now to do things that aren't even necessarily sports related kind of teaches us the mindset of if you prepare you can break almost anything down, and almost anything can be fundamentally coached, so probably more open minded now.

Overall then, whilst there were some technical issues the students were feeling significantly happier and more competent with regards to these, and we can also see that some of the nervousness and apprehensiveness of people was starting to dissipate. The last comment also suggests that they are beginning to see the value in coaching skills that are novel for both themselves and the learner, and starting understanding how there are lessons to be learned that can be applied to a more familiar context. That is not to say, however, that some of the students did not miss real world coaching:

It is frustrating because I feel like others and me would benefit from face to face coaching rather than online but apart from that it is pretty simple quick and easy to do from home

I don't like it but I'm feeling better about it compared to when I started. I still prefer teaching in person.

Maybe there were issues in terms of willingness and communication, but what we can see here is that for some of the students, it was still difficult to maintain interaction and motivation given their preferences for coaching in person.

The final push and final thoughts...

Despite the limitations that were being noted their confidence did start to build, and these kind of results and positive feelings continued throughout the next few weeks, to the point where they stated that it felt completely natural to coach online. Indeed, towards the end we could see that students were thankful for the adaptations that had been made and appreciative of the skills that they had learnt. However, there was still some reticence and overall, still a feeling (that virtually all of the students identified) that whilst the five-week course online course had been helpful, they did not feel it quite replicated what they would do in person. At the end of the five-week programme, they identified several issues and some areas that they had found difficult. Examples of this include the following.

I'm still not won over by it because it's difficult to pick up on individual feelings and emotions towards a session but I don't hate it as much as I did at the beginning.

Good to look at engaging people through different platforms, makes you think about how you explain and teach things. Pleased to be going back face to face. Drawbacks - some things are very difficult to coach over teams etc, partner work etc, very dependent on space and equipment.

I am glad to be going back to in person sessions though as online isn't my favourite but it wasn't as bad as I originally thought. Drawbacks is it's hard to see everyone at times and see if they understand or are doing it correctly.

Felt more confident and able to teach a lot better as the weeks went on. I think it will be beneficial for the future if I can't do face to face coaching. Drawback is it's hard to track peoples progress or show certain things if the camera isn't big enough or quality.

Like others have said it's about the feedback not being as vivid as it would be when face-to-face although it's been easier to pick up on others' actions for instance if no one is responding I feel more inclined to explain it again.

Drawbacks- difficult to identify if participants are picking up the cues or are just being shy/quiet.

Encouragingly though, the students found the programme very meaningful overall. Several students felt that they had reinforced their coaching skills, and looked forward to applying them in face to face coaching.

It's allowed me to improve in my delivery and I've gotten better at receiving feedback.

It has taught me how to coach using a different platform instead of just face to face because that won't always be an option. I feel I have improved by the week and maybe learnt a new technique each time.

Good learning opportunity especially if this is going to become into coaching in the future. It feels easier to do now compared to at the beginning.

It was a good challenge doing it online and having to find ways to make it engaging and work. Also having to do different topics that aren't necessarily sports based made it challenging as well.

I think we've made the most of the Covid situation, and added a tool to our coaching we would have otherwise maybe have had to jump in at the deep end later on in our coaching journeys. So, I'd feel better prepared to offer online as an option e.g. if normal coaching couldn't take place because of factors like weather etc. It definitely has its drawbacks and will never feel as natural as face to face, but it's useful to have as a backup option.

Feelings – Started off as feeling unsure with the process of coaching online and how the participants would receive my coaching pointers. I feel as though I have improved as a coach on general as I can identify what participants have reached my curriculum of learning that skill.

I feel like I'm more used to online coaching now but my feelings remain the same that it is definitely beneficial to do online coaching if face-to-face isn't an option but I'd prefer face to face coaching especially for any form of physical exertion exercise or sport.

Overall, we can see from these comments that it had been a worthwhile experience from the student perspective, although one that had, however, been imposed upon both staff and students through the lockdown. From our point of view as observers, they had also become more flexible and creative in how they approached their sessions, and a shift across the weeks from very few cameras on in the first session to everybody having cameras on in the last seemed to indicate that they rapidly became more comfortable with the different coaching environment.

Final student suggestions for future student cohorts

In assessing the challenges that they had faced, and questioning how future modular provision for online learning in a post-pandemic context, the students felt that there were several positive implications that could be taken from their experiences.

Having this class online has definitely brought us all closer. From finding coaching over teams with various restrictions on week one to now in week five feeling confident and comfortable is great. If anything happens in the future like these we have the skill set to handle it well. Everyone should be proud of their efforts.

I think it's great to get used to whilst at University in this supportive environment so if we ever need to coach online in the future it won't be as frustrating or awkward.

Benefits – I feel more comfortable in teaching skills/areas which I am not too familiar with. This will help me going into the “real world”. I can also understand first-hand how a competitive nature/ section within a coaching plan can help push the participants and aid learning.

While the students themselves unequivocally felt that this online coaching was a skill that all students, and future students, should learn (in particular because of the possibility of another pandemic), they also felt that sports coaching education needed to be grounded in real world contexts. Indeed, whilst we believe that the choices that people will make with regards to learning online will be increased in the near future, virtually all of our students felt that that any of our future iterations of coaching modules should keep online coaching to a minimum. If possible, perhaps only for two weeks or so. This aligns with many of the kind of theories that relate to sport coaching as an

activity that is essentially an intrinsically human interaction, or series of human interactions (Nash & Collins, 2006; Day, 2011). It also reflects the fact that many students coach and participate in sport for fun, for enjoyment, and for the ancillary benefits that it can bring such as fitness and increases in self-esteem (Lucardie, 2014; Bum & Jeon, 2016; Crisp, 2019).

Whilst in many respects our recollections and findings are evaluative, and act primarily as a reflective paper, we have considered the online sport coaching programme as a whole. We believe that the programme was successful, and that future iterations can benefit from our reflections and the deliberate questioning of our practice that we undertook. As educational professionals with responsibility for ensuring our students' success, we are also mindful of the wider learning community we operate in and as such, offer the following steps and suggestions to strengthen or underpin any planning for similar programmes that fellow educational professionals may consider in supporting students through online coaching.

- Start with focusing on how you can enable students to be: Inclusive, Supportive, Effective Communicators.
- Establish and set boundaries alongside a sufficient level of competency in using the technology at the very beginning.
- Reinforce the fact that the training is only a short period (and necessary) in order to maintain the necessary motivation for learning and practice in online coaching.
- Facilitate and offer choice, and encourage autonomy.

- Ensure that work and task allocation is fairly available to all students, and reinforce how necessary it is in order to initiate conversations and learning between them.
- Provide a range of ways for the students to be able to be heard and to give feedback throughout the process itself (i.e. for each session allow a plenary at the end).

FINAL THOUGHTS/CONCLUSION

Our initial thoughts as lecturers were that the imposition of online learning through lockdown would be a helpful process. As a philosophy, we were led by the necessity of providing student support, but we were also mindful that we had an opportunity to develop additional critical skills and perhaps support the students' responses to potential lockdowns in future, and/or meet new employer and sector demands for modes of working. In effect then, we saw this as an opportunity to future proof some of the skills, competencies and indeed even reflections and CV building that our students may well need in the future.

From a student perspective, we think it is fair to say that the programme was effective, efficient and helpful, but this has to be placed in the context of what they still believe was a preference for learning in person.

The results of our online coaching have been presented as a case study, one that incorporates detailed student perceptions, and many of the authors' reflections. Whilst we have sought to incorporate and

present selected guidelines that other educators may consider as tools, we acknowledge that this chapter is more rooted in a more practical, reflective style of content and presentation. We do, however, also believe that we can place our reflections in a wider theoretical framework that follows.

With regard to the learning environment, Moon (2005) equates the construction and maintenance of a positive environment to that of an ecosystem. This concept is analogised through explaining how a variety of factors influence the balance, establishment and continuation of a (hopefully) productive learning environment. On a more prosaic level, the management of the learning environment in this case study sought to reconfigure practice and delivery through novel activities, shared responsibility, and the development of a productive student and lecturer community. All told, as lecturers we sought to empower the student cohort, and enable them to make decisions and try activities and ideas that would be supported. All told, we looked to shape our policy and our ecosystem of learning through including creativity and personal investment and ownership.

In conclusion, we intend to continue to run short programmes of online coaching in the future. This decision is based upon our reflections of the current year, and the thoughts, feelings, and recorded experiences that have shaped both ours and the students' perspectives and understanding of online culture. However, we are also mindful of this is essentially a new form of pedagogy and learning for many incoming beginner-sports coaches, and even experienced coaches, that

have primarily operated within traditional sport coaching environments.

Given this, we intend to continue to revisit and reshape the manner in which we present what we do. Key to our understanding and any future iterations of online sport coaching within our modules will be that knowledge and competency in the field of online sport are attributes that we intend to develop and encourage. We are grateful that we had students who considered the course this year to be valuable, effective and empowering, and who were willing to place trust in us as facilitators. We will base many of our ideas for future teaching around this trust, understanding and mutual respect.

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CHAPTER 3

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TECHNOLOGY IN LEARNING: THE INVOLVEMENT AND THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AND LEARNERS IN DISTANCE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Every way of life and human conduct is changing as a result of technological advancements. Time has become significant because it is fast, global, and extraordinary. Through the computer-based system, people can get quick access to useful information. The impact of technology has altered social, global, cultural, and educational competitiveness. As a result, these alterations have an impact on people's learning styles, length, and methods. "People are looking for rapid, accountable, home-based knowledge development rather than traditional classroom learning" (Clark, 2001). In distance education both the teachers and learners maintain a distance physically, but their educational, interactive and learning process goes well. It demands an attention in the individual variations of pupils as well as how they react to media. As a result, personality traits, intellectual capacities, cognitive abilities, styles of learning are all relevant considerations in distant education.

The following is a summary of the function of distance education in the twenty-first century: Due to their potential to have and promote controversial viewpoints, remote education programmes have achieved great popularity in the educational industry. As a result, we have real questions about what distant education is. Students can apply for courses immediately on the internet from a teacher-centered campus, despite the fact that distant education might create a significant gap between students and instructor engagement. In today's world, the essential principles are science and technology, which lead

to rapid, global deployment in all areas. With the availability of distance education, educational disciplines should seize the new efficient tool of the world.

Education should be the primary ingredient in societal progress, with easy, immediate resources, potential qualified people, and a fresh approach to the educational environment in order to catch up with contemporary norms. The type of estimation in the duties of the communicators can be seen in reviews of relevant articles and studies when we look at the properties of remote education. The development of learning through distance learning-education based on the individualised learning process, which implies that rather than lecturing, learners gain knowledge through study on computer assisted programmes in rapid, comfortable settings individually for catching steady learning. Distance education is closely linked to the search of truth in order to gather opposing points of view in order to obtain precise knowledge. Three distinct applications of the computer to the home study setting are referred to by distance educators. Computer Managed Instruction, Computer Aided Learning, and Computer Conferencing are three of these applications. Computer Managed Instruction is a type of management that makes the learning process easier to handle. It can give students with electronic counselling, on-line registration, institutional record keeping, and student progress tracking.

Computer Aided Learning refers to software applications that use prestructured and programmed content to teach pupils about various

courses and concepts. This course materials either replaces or supplements the material that students are required to learn from other sources like print, television, audio cassettes. This can be divided into two types: tutorials and simulations. Computer conferencing refers to an electronic network that allows people to communicate via computers in delayed synchronic time as a group, between two people, or with a database. Distance educators have employed electronic mail in its most basic form to allow for quick and effective two-way communication between instructor and student. This creates a conducive environment for problem-solving discussions. The distance education form was established on the foundation of these three formations. “Distance education necessitates a different learning approach, as well as different teacher and student responsibilities”(Clark,2001).

People who play a role in distance education can be divided into four categories:

a)Students:

Students play a role in distance education by learning. According to the traditional learning method, students have tough and various duties to play in that process.

b) Teacher:

The teacher's primary responsibility is to develop the course and determine the students' needs. The duty of the teacher is to guide the students.

c) Designer Groups:

These duties, whatever they are not in the visual depiction of distance education, are the real establishers of process in distant education. They are in charge of creating material, a cyber and digital environment, and a teaching-learning environment that is effective.

d) Directors:

There are persons who organise and implement this type of education in all institutes. When the education process begins, directors delegate their responsibilities to technique people.

“Within distant education, there are three different sorts of interactions between students and teachers. In the process, the terms of interdependence, distance, and interaction should interact with each other. Learner-content interaction, learner-instructor interaction, and learner-learner interaction were the three types of interactions identified.

A-Interaction between the learner and the content

B-Interaction between the learner and the instructor

C-Interaction between the learner and the learner

According to the above mentioned ideas, distant education applications for member interaction represent effective idea sharing when compared to face-to-face contact. Email and chatting can be used to carry out these interactions” (Harry et al., 1993). In the distant education system, these three sorts of interactions are crucial.

In conclusion, we can say that distance education evolved and became well-known as a result of some specific developments, such as: the economic and social contexts have changed; the number of unemployed workers is increasing, and they all need to be retrained; knowledge has become one of the most important economic forces; knowledge is rapidly expanding, and its life span is becoming increasingly shorter; These types of advancements in educational sectors open up new avenues for quick, efficient learning through distance education.

THE PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

Distance education is a type of education in which course materials and interactions are supplied using the Internet's technology and methodology. It is an online environment that enables users to communicate with others in collaborative spaces asynchronously or synchronously, obtain access to distant multimedia resources for active, resource-based learning, and manage self-paced, individual learning in a flexible manner. Furthermore, the Internet allows students to enroll in a course at anytime from anywhere in the world. A new worldview has emerged in the last twenty years, influenced heavily by social and cognitive sciences. "Learning is now prioritised over teaching in the educational system. The innovations of learning theory have changed the nature of learning styles and the perspective of the learner. As learners are involved, knowledge is thought to be socially created through action, communication, and reflection"(Huebner and Wiener, 2001).

To build effective remote education programmes, it is vital to understand how learning occurs and the factors that influence learning process. How people learn is the major focus on learning process. There are three key influences on learning:

- 1) Cognitive learning strategies
- 2) Planning and self-regulation metacognitive tasks
- 3) The learner's motivation and aims. The aim of adopting cognitive methods cannot be separated from the learner's motivation for doing so.

As a result, the learner's objective and motivation have a significant impact on cognitive methods. “The distant education requires intrinsic motivation that gives skill development, intellectual interests, challenge or personal improvement that was approved by the relevance research results” (Gibson, 1997). (Gibson, 1997).

“In distance education, there are also different design considerations. Some broad principles may be identified that apply to all of them;

- 1-Well-built structure
- 2-Specific goals
- 3-Miniature units:
- 4-Participation that has been planned
- 5-Completion
- 6-Consistency

7-Stimulation

8-Synthesis

9-Variety

10-Open-ended

11-Provide feedback

12-Steady Observation”.(Moore, Kearsley, 1996, p.122).

“In distant education, it is critical to foster reflection, which entails encouraging individuals to evaluate their experiences in order to foster new understanding and appreciation among students. The guided didactic conversation between teacher and student, according to Holmberg (1995), is a universal feature of distance education;

1- Those sentiments of personal link between the teaching and learning parties boost study pleasure and motivation.

2- That well-developed self-instructional material and two-way remote contact can generate such feelings.

3- That intellectual enjoyment and study drive are conducive to achieving study objectives and employing appropriate study processes and approaches.

4- That the atmosphere, language, and friendly conversation conventions encourage sentiments of personal connection.

5- Conversational messages are easier to understand and recall than non-conversational messages.

6- That the dialogue approach may be successfully adapted to distant education for usage with accessible media.

7- That planning and leading effort, whether done by the teaching organisation or the student, is required for organised study, which is marked by explicit or implicit goal conceptions” (Holmberg, 1995, p.47).

The goal of online education should be learner autonomy. It is beneficial for pupils to be self-directed, motivated, and evaluative, and teachers can help them do so.

“Learner autonomy refers to the ability of a potential distance learner to participate in their learning objectives, programme implementation, and evaluation. This viewpoint represents the primary distinctions between distance education and regular education. Teleconferencing and local groups are significant technology devices for learner autonomy.”

The duty of distance educators is to create and support an atmosphere that allows for productive activities, but it is up to students to make the environment work for them. For audio conferencing, there should be four primary techniques for teachers:

A-Empowering the atmosphere,

B-Assuring participation,

C-Message style providing information, and

D-Feedback obtaining information on learning and teaching efficacy.

Educators can also use television and computers to oversee lessons. What is critical in all approaches that instructors can employ is that communication tactics and impediments be well understood in order to effectively communicate knowledge to students.

Furthermore, in the sense of a good distance education coordinator, competence, continuity, control, and confidence should be established. “Tutoring is another responsibility of the educator. In this sense, teleconferencing and real-time interaction between students and teachers are rare, if at all. Students may be allocated to a personal tutor who is not usually the person who created the course or presents the content. Tutors can talk about course topic, give feedback on progress, assist students in planning their work, motivate students, supervise projects and conduct face-to-face seminars, monitor student records, and evaluate course effectiveness. Tutors should be familiar with the media used in the programme. Student expectations were at the centre of the assignment and grading in tests and assignments. Students also want fair and objective assessment, encouragement and reinforcement in their abilities, constructive critique and advice, and prompt feedback on their task grade.” (Gibson, 1997). (Gibson, 1997).

In conclusion, “teachers as educators reflect certain duties such as audio conferencing, tutoring, coordinator, tests, and assignments. When we look at remote education students, we see that they are adult learners. They must set goals, be self-directed, take personal responsibility, have personal experiences, make decisions, learn as

needed to address challenges, and be intrinsically motivated” (Moore, Kearsley, 1996).

The research's goal is to use Distance Education to manage the specific roles of teachers and students in the learning process. As previously said, a distance learning programme gives quick, in-depth knowledge while also limiting time and distance for learning. Everyone has the opportunity to inquire about the benefits of this type of education. Students become more interested in learning. “Self-aware and in charge of their education and training. Aside from that, there's another research. Students' impressions of Ohio's microwave distance education courses were investigated. Compared their perspectives based on a variety of demographic factors” (Isman). “The degree to which the level of student satisfaction in the class was low. Isman discovered that “more than half of the observational data showed that students did not agree that they learned as much in the interactive television class. The test results demonstrated no link between gender and students' impressions of interactive television courses, however age and college classification were found to be substantially associated. There were weaker correlations between major and graduate / undergraduate status” (Isman). Teachers, on the other hand, should share their vast expertise with pupils by consulting, assisting, and directing them as advisors. Distance Education is an activity that encompasses all aspects of a student's activity, responsibility, and readiness to obtain, ask for, and receive responses to connected questions and answers. As we all know, these programmes operate on the basis of conversation, questions-and-

answers, and media by presenting alternatives based on deepening knowledge. “The main consideration here is to define and measure the role effectiveness of communicators (teacher-student) in learning whatever they are apart from one another with living the sense of Distance Education. Distance education is a new technical power for students to construct a dynamic self-concept. When we consider the new constructivist approach to education, we can see how the roles of educators have shifted as a result of new educational trends. Distance education is a new trend in which students (learners) establish their own tactics, objectives, evaluation, and implementation with just the direction of teachers” (Gibson, 1997).

IMPORTANCE OF STUDENT AND TEACHER ROLES

Earning a degree online, often known as distance education, is a rapidly rising industry that is expected to be worth billions of dollars by 2020. While many individuals waste countless hours on the internet looking at nothing but rubbish, others use their time in novel ways to further their education. This new revolution is being embraced by many people and institutions of higher education. When the research's goal is addressed, it's clear that the roles of instructor and student are clearly defined, and their success in distance education is assessed by the necessary research. The question of what are the roles of teachers and students in distant education allows us to assess the role and efficacy of learning and training. Professionalism in any topic training to individuals is also required in distance education. As

a result, it promotes individual learning by dealing with various subjects, fields, and qualified individuals or do qualified people.

“Distance Education is a new educational revolution that eliminates the barriers of distance, time, and money in education. To achieve consistent learning, this subject necessitates thinking about communicating knowledge, debating, commending, and increasing data between student and teacher. What this means is that, similar to discovery and research-based education, distant learning empowers individuals to be credible, valuable to themselves, and to advance their careers.” In other words, teachers should function as consultants and advisors, sharing a wide range of knowledge and directing students appropriately and quickly. On the other hand, students feel self-responsibility, having the convenience of home study and instant access to information via the internet. Distance education necessitates self-awareness and communicators' responsible responsibilities in the learning process.

OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Distance education necessitates an autonomous learning method in which students gain knowledge through computer-assisted programmes. With the advancement of modern technology, people are looking for quick, easy, no-time, space-extension education options to keep up with global educational standards. Distance education has become a viable option in today's educational landscape. The key considerations in remote education are the roles of students and teachers, which are similar to those in traditional education. It is

assumed that Internet-based technology has a significant impact on long-term learning; education can be made easier than traditional learning through distance education by emphasising self-learning rather than teaching; self-responsibility should be exercised regardless of distance or lack of face-to-face communication. Distance Education considers a certain cost, and Distance Education sets defined regulations and duties for communicators automatically.

Students' duties in remote education, according to research findings, are:

1. Being self-responsible on task
2. Consulting advisers through required access means
3. Participating in individualised learning
4. Recreating the same productive engagement with counsellors as in traditional learning
5. Evaluating and appraising one's own performance
6. Overcoming communicative hurdles by not having the preconceived ideas of disbelieving themselves.

According to research findings, instructors' tasks in distance education include:

1. being self-responsible for task preparation.
2. Immediately consulting with students on task challenges.
3. Being aware of students' wants and wishes.

4. Increasing student motivation.
5. Eliminating prejudices about communicative obstacles.
6. Creating an environment conducive to productive student-teacher interaction.

We can ignore the efficiency of learning when there is no face-to-face communication among communicators, and how these roles are established and modified by the learning process, according to research. According to the research's findings and comments, students and instructors' responsibilities as self-responsible, individualistic communicators and self-evaluators are reflected in their real performance, which might lead to communicational hurdles.

“Both the instructor and the learner have various duties and obligations in today's high-tech, global world. Furthermore, there has been a significant shift in the way course content is constructed and delivered. Interaction between and among students, teachers, and content promises to expand opportunities for deep and meaningful learning” (Gibson, 1997). Because student-teacher roles are so crucial in distant education, there should be a constructivist transaction between learning and teaching. According to Isman (1999), a constructivist approach to learning is required to be interactive within the teaching learning transaction. “Aside from learning and teaching, the constructivist approach also considers students' self-development. Students should search for and build their activities based on their own personal experiences with the subject, and they should construct all activities with an eye toward evaluation” (Isman, 1999). The

constructivist approach places the student at the centre of the education, encouraging them to take an active role in their learning with the use of technology. Technology is the primary focus for making learning simple and making learning products permanent. Technology is required to increase students' attention to the studies and to improve motivating signals, which aid in remembering the subjects. "For students, a constructivist approach that includes technology support necessitates a learning by doing philosophy of learning. Technology, student self-development, and learning through technological implementation lead us to consider a constructivist approach as part of remote education." (Isman, 1999)

The constructivist approach necessitated the representation of teacher and student roles, which could be applied to the interaction of students and teachers in the distant education process.

The Constructivist Approach to Teacher Role in Distance Education;

1. Teachers must be aware of learner autonomy. Teachers must inform students about their individual differences.
2. To communicate knowledge, the teacher should provide actual and current facts. In other words, a teacher should be well-educated and a lifelong learner so that they can give information and provide tangible examples and summaries of subjects for students' ongoing learning.
3. Teachers should emphasise the relevance of students' ideas. They should provide students with a research environment in which they

can search for and assess their content experiences while maintaining self-control.

4. Teachers should be aware of their students' individual differences and provide course materials that reflect this awareness.

5. Teachers should be aware of the students' prerequisite content skills in order to construct new knowledge. Furthermore, a teacher should be aware of how a learner might learn using tactics.

6. Teachers are the primary communicators in establishing teacher-student relationship. To properly execute distance education, teachers should have technological and communication skills.

7. Courses should be implemented using a student-centered learning approach. Students should take responsibility for their study and seek advice from their teachers. As a result, the teacher should provide specific times, locations, and chances for contact.

8. With their supervision, teachers should assist pupils in their self-development and responsibility.

9. Teachers should provide a collaborative learning environment with engaging discussion groups so that students can learn related materials easily and permanently.

10. Teachers should provide appropriate feedback to students and assist them in making connections between subjects. Furthermore, professors should assist pupils in locating their fields.

The Constructivist Approach to Student Role in Distance Education;

1. Students should interact with teachers. So that they will receive appropriate and the real feedback on their self-directed subjects and they will be free to consult with teachers for accuracy and evaluation. Through technology help, students can engage in collaborative learning with their classmates.
2. Students are in charge of their own education. They should determine what they wish to learn and conduct independent research on their chosen topic.
3. Instead of relying on accessible data, students should conduct study to find answers to data problems. As a result, they should conduct research and a high intensive study.
4. Students should be able to solve problems. They should use what they've learned to issues and devise solutions tactics based on relevant data.
5. Students should be well-informed about technology so that they do not experience communication hurdles as a result of it. They should also use technology to construct learning with a variety of materials.
6. “Students should continue to learn throughout their lives. Whatever instruction was completed, the pupils should know how to access and use the material. If the information is urgent, they should get it right away.

The roles of student and instructor were specified above in the constructivist method. To construct an efficient distant education process out of interaction issues, communicators should be aware of these roles” (Isman, 1999). All kinds of approximations show that instructors and students share the traits of being self-responsible, self-evaluators, and individualistic communicators as active positions in their respective jobs. Distance Education reflects their positions as instructors of computer-assisted programmes that cause communicational issues in terms of comprehending and accessing information. Therefore we can understand that Distance education creates a home-atmosphere learning, lecturing, eliminates time and distance, increases self-responsibility and evaluation for self-development, and reflects worldwide high technical benefits to all mankind and educational areas, regardless of communicational boundaries.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we can say that distance education evolved and became well-known as a result of some specific developments, such as: the economic and social contexts have changed; the number of unemployed workers is increasing, and they all need to be retrained; knowledge has become one of the most important economic forces; knowledge is rapidly expanding, and its life span is becoming increasingly shorter; These types of advancements in educational sectors open up new avenues for quick, efficient learning through distance education.

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CHAPTER 4

LIKE A FISH OUT OF WATER: FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY IN ONLINE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES DURING COVID-19 ISOLATION

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INTRODUCTION

Nearly a year ago, the Covid-19 epidemic has not only turned into an unexpected pandemic but also has caused an obligatory transformation in education systems. In several countries, educational institutions including universities had to cancel F2F formal education for public health and adopted a new distant online education system called “emergency remote education” (Hodges et. al., 2020) without compromising curricula, syllabi, and weekly class hours. Online education is not a new practice, yet remote education is a different form that is adopted in emergencies. While online education is more specific, organized, and well designed, remote education does not exactly inhabit such pedagogical prerequisites due to its “urgent” nature (Russell, 2020). Emergency remote education (ERE) is persisting and a specific deadline cannot be predicted. During ERE, one of the most affected fields of education was foreign language (FL) learning which requires a communicative and a social classroom environment by its nature. The advantages of F2F classroom communication such as eye contact, kinesics or body language faded away in emergency remote education. Instead, new educational anxieties emerged such as internet shortage, lack of opportunity to reach better hardware and software, online tests, isolation and discomfort caused by the lack of physical existence of peers and instructors. When the social and communicative nature of foreign language education is considered, problems in ERE are observable. This study aimed to examine foreign language anxiety (FLA) levels in the ERE context and to compare it to F2F classroom anxiety. Since the current obligatory condition has

continued for several months without any predictable deadline, the current study is significant as our results might provide insights to benefit best from this online system.

1. FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY (FLA) AND ERE

In general, anxiety is a common subjective feeling of uneasiness, discomfort and worry often accompanied by some physiological symptoms such as fatigue, muscular tension, restlessness and headache causing individuals to get disoriented by arousing the autonomic nervous system (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). FLA is a special type of anxiety that manifests itself in a foreign language learning context (Brown, 2007, p.162). For a few decades, several researchers paid considerable attention to FLA and its relation to learning and L2 communication. Although some researchers considered FLA as a result of poor foreign language achievement but not the cause of it (Sparks and Ganschow, 2000), it has long been accepted as both the result and cause of low foreign language learning performance (MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz, 2001). The FLA concept is considered to be a part of the affective filter along with some other concepts such as motivation, attitudes, risk-taking, and self-confidence (Krashen, 1982). In case of anxiety, simply a filter is raised in learner's minds that blocks linguistic input from entering which is also known as the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982). The filter has a significant psychological function that can facilitate or inhibit the processing and reception of FL input throughout the FL learning process (Krashen, 1985). Although minimal amounts of FLA have

been considered facilitative, it has been mostly associated with poor FL learning performance. Some common FLA symptoms among FL learners are characterized by an unwillingness to communicate in FL, shyness, lack of self-confidence in FL context, fear of failure, the reluctance of cooperation, and fear of being criticized.

30 years of FLA research has proposed abundant evidence on FL learning and anxiety in F2Fclassroom context but could not present sufficient findings in online classrooms. Recent Covid-19 based pedagogical conditions have made online classroom FLA research necessary since FLA not only emerges in F2Fclassrooms but also may manifest itself in online learning platforms (Russell, 2018; Pichette, 2009). In this respect, a few studies on FLA in online classrooms worth noting.

The study by Pichette (2009) aimed to compare the FLA levels of learners in F2Fand online education contexts regarding CA, reading, and writing anxiety. 186 French university students in Canada learning either English or Spanish from 3 different proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate and advanced) participated in his study. Three instruments were used in the study: For general anxiety and CA, the FLCAS, for reading anxiety, the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999), and for writing anxiety the Daly–Miller Writing Apprehension Test (Daly and Miller, 1975) were administered. The results showed no difference between anxiety levels in two contexts when all three types of anxiety levels were combined. On the other hand, Pichette found out that more experienced learners

(2 semesters and above) tended to be less anxious in both contexts especially regarding writing and reading when compared to their less experienced counterparts.

In a more recent study, Bárkányi and Melchor-Couto (2017) investigated learner attitudes, self-efficacy, and FLA in Spanish Language Massive Online Courses at beginner proficiency level (LMOOC). LMOOCs encompass web-based partially free online courses aiming to serve learners who are interested in developing their skills in a foreign language. Quantitative data was collected from 301 learners of Spanish but pre- and post-course questionnaires (11 items) data could not be matched due to anonymity. Qualitative data was obtained through open-ended questions in the related discussion forum of LMOOC. Their results indicated positive results towards LMOOC and low anxiety in speaking courses as they were shielded by computers. However, a majority of learners also reported that they feel intimidated, uncomfortable and embarrassed as they were required to record themselves during courses and to post it.

Recently, Russell (2018) examined the effect of a pedagogical intervention on lowering online course FLA. 33 learners of Spanish as a foreign language participated in the study and attended a peer support discussion group in which learners discussed their anxiety and online conversational experience. Learners' FLA level was measured via FLCAS in the beginning and at the end of the study to see any improvement. Russell assigned learners to four synchronous online conversations with native speakers using the *TalkAbroad*

(www.talkabroad.com). It is an online conversation platform via which learners can engage in oral communication with native speakers of the target language. In every 4 weeks, learners used this platform and communicate with native speakers for 30 minutes. Native speakers were allowed to give explicit feedback when needed and to ask for clarification. The examination of peer support discussion revealed that a majority of the participants felt anxious in the online course and showed high levels of online CA. The results of the two FLCAS administered showed positive results of the intervention; learners' anxiety levels were significantly lower at the end of the course when compared to the beginning of the semester (Russell, 2018, p. 62). Russell's study yielded positive results but most importantly presented abundant evidence on online-based FLA which emerged in online platforms especially in the case of oral communication.

The consensus is that FLA somehow emerges in online platforms but we still do not have enough evidence on how it shows itself, especially in the ERE period. FLA was popularly measured by Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and it owed its popularity among researchers to its reliability shown in several studies (Arnaiz and Guillen, 2012; Dewaele, 2013; Sparks and Patton, 2013). This 33-item 5-point Likert scale was designed on three main components of FLA for F2F classroom contexts. Communication apprehension (CA) refers to anxiety triggered by FL communication while fear of negative evaluation can be considered as anxiety caused by high sensitivity

towards criticism of others. Test anxiety can be described as the type of FL anxiety that arouses during FL exams. However, FLCAS as a quantitative instrument has not been optimized for online EFL learning contexts yet; hence, this study was based on three components of FLCAS from a qualitative perspective. The current study aimed to explore FLA primarily with qualitative procedures based on FLCAS's three components mentioned above. Answers for the research questions below were sought:

1. What is the FL classroom participation rate in ERE?
2. What are the triggers of FLA in online EFL courses in terms of CA, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety?

2. METHOD

2.1. Design

This study has a qualitative design. We adopted this design since online classroom FLA in ERE is quite a new and a recent practice lacking reliable quantitative instruments. Hence, the entire data was obtained through semi-structured interviews.

2.2. Ethics Statement

The criteria about how to carry out studies involving what could be considered a vulnerable population was given considerable attention. The identities of all the participants in addition to the answers provided in the interviews were kept anonymous. The consent form explained the purpose of the study, the process of data collection, and that the participants can withdraw from the study at any time. Also,

their consent for audio-recording the sessions and quoting them in the final manuscript was sought.

2.3. Participants

The random sampling method was adopted in accordance with the research aims. The participation in the study had a voluntary basis and all participants filled and signed an online consent form covering instructions. All participants have been involving in online EFL courses for 2 semesters since March 2019 when all universities ended their F2F education with a governmental decision due to the Covid-19 isolation. 60 learners in the same ELT department (25 men and 35 women) at an age range of 18 to 24 were randomly invited for semi-structured interviews and 54 participants accepted the invitation. All participants were given extra course credit for their participation.

2.4. The Current Online EFL Course Setting

All participants in the current study have been using the same online platform provided by the same university for online courses and exams since March 2019. On average, all participants were attendings 16 hours of EFL courses weekly. The platform is strong enough to carry on courses; however, the classes are crowded (about 50 to 70 students per class) which does not allow every student to turn on cameras simultaneously. Additionally, the internet speed that students have at their homes is not homogenous which causes serious lags and crashes when all cameras were turned on. Moreover, some learners from conservative families do not prefer to turn on cameras at home. Lack of a private room and having a crowded family are some other

issues that cause learners to be severely reluctant to turn on their cameras. It also was not practical for an instructor to observe more than 50 student cameras on a single screen both during courses and exams due to technical and privacy issues. Thus, only the instructor cam is active in all online courses. For online exams, all students start at the same predetermined hour in the system and are given the same time limit. When an exam is completed, the students are obliged to click “send” within the time limit given.

2.5. Instruments

A semi-structured interview containing open-ended questions was used to collect qualitative data of the study. In the development of the guide, the dimensions in the FLCAS (CA, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and Test Anxiety) and the relevant literature were taken into account. Hence, we determined 3 themes (CA, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and Test Anxiety) in advance. The interview questions were subjected to a pilot test before starting the study and the necessary adjustments and additions were made. The findings obtained in the preliminary study were not included in the analysis. At the beginning of the interviews, learners were also asked about their classroom participation rate and style.

The interviews were conducted online via “Zoom Application” by the corresponding author who had 9 years of research experience in the field along with a Ph.D. degree in foreign language education and research. The interviewer had no personal relationship with the participants. Each interview lasted about 15 to 20 minutes and was

audio-recorded. The IDs of the participants were kept anonymous by giving each participant a label as “Sx” (S1, S2, S3...).

2.6. Data Analysis

Percentages were analyzed for participation rate during online courses. The recorded audio data was transcribed verbatim by the researchers. Content analysis was conducted to determine the themes. The 6-step thematic analysis method was followed in the content analysis: (1) The interviewer and the coder made repeated readings. (2) A basic level code list has been created depending on the predetermined themes. (3) Relationships between codes were determined. (4) The interviewer and the coder scrutinized the transcriptions to determine the quotations of the participants. (5) The relationships between themes and codes were determined. (6) The findings were presented in the form of a narrative, with the necessary attention being paid to make the narration short, logical, and attractive. Braun & Clark (2006) thematic analysis

3. FINDINGS

Finding 1: Rate of Online Classroom Participation

For the first research question, the participants were asked about their online EFL course participation rate and style as the first question of the semi-structure interview. Learner participation rate and type in online classrooms were shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Participation rate and type in online FL courses

	<i>f</i>	Percent
I use written language (chat)	25	46.3%
I write in FL	12	22.2%
I write in my native language	13	24%
I use my microphone and prefer oral participation	21	38.9%
I speak in FL	14	25.9%
I speak in my native language	7	13%
I never participated neither written nor oral	8	14.8%
Total	54	100

Table 1 showed that oral participation rate in online courses was around 39% and only 26% of this participation was in EFL while 13% of the participants persisted using their native language. On the other hand, around 46% of the participants preferred written communication either in FL or in their native language. About 15% of the participants never participated neither written nor oral. In this respect, the online classroom participation rate is about 85%; however, only 26% of this rate was with oral communication in EFL.

Findings 2: Underlying Reasons of FLA in Online EFL Courses

The following questions of the semi-structured interview was based on 3 main constructs of FLCAS (Horwitz et. al., 1986): CA, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Each construct was regarded as a theme and related codes were analyzed. Each participant was coded

with IDs (S1, S2, S3...) to ensure confidentiality. The first construct was CA which referred to the type of anxiety emerged during oral communication in EFL.

Table 2. Codes for CA in ERE

Theme	Codes	f	%
CA	Hardware and Software Problems	7	12.9
	Social Environment and Family	5	9.2
	Introverted Personality	7	12.9
	Lack of physical communication quality and non-verbal language	22	40.7

A small part of learners (12.9%, N=7) reported that they mainly did not engage in oral communication and felt uncomfortable due to hardware and software problems.

I feel very anxious about a probable internet outage or slow down while I speak in the online courses. That's why I always hesitate to join the courses with my microphone (S11, translated by the author(s)).

The internet connection is very problematic in my district. I only listen silently during the courses... sometimes I write in the chat box. I sometimes feel tense with the idea that the instructor would want me to speak (S17, translated by the author(s)).

Only 9.2% (N=5) of learners mentioned that they felt anxious during the courses and avoided oral communication due to their social environment and family members at home. They were annoyed about any sound intervention by family members when they turn on their mics. Hence, they showed unwillingness to communicate in EFL.

Our house is crowded. At any moment, one of my family members can enter my room and say something irrelevant. I don't want it to happen; I may feel embarrassed. That's why I generally use the chatbox. I do not turn on my mic (S31, translated by the author(s).

My family members still have no idea what online education is. They really do not want to understand that they may be heard by my peers during lessons. So, I do not turn on my mic. I do not want my friends to hear my mom yelling at me! (S37, translated by the author(s).

12.9% (N=7) of the participants explained their reluctance of oral communication during online courses with their personality traits. They reported that they had always been shy, introverted and silent in F2F classrooms and this introversion also showed itself in online settings.

I am simply shy. I avoid oral participation during online courses. I feel I need to be more relaxed in online courses as no one sees me, but I just cannot. It is very hard for me to turn on my mic and speak (S10, translated by the author(s).

Indeed, there is no reason for me to avoid oral communication. I do not just because I am very shy. I feel embarrassed to turn on the mic and speak (S44, translated by the author(s).

A considerable part of learners (40.7%, N=22) stated that they found online classrooms “unreal”. They reported that online classrooms were far from being real since they could not see the faces and mimics of their peers and instructors. Additionally, they mentioned that lack

of non-verbal language such as eye contact, kinesics, and body language caused reluctance to speak. They also reported that they could not perceive the emotional reactions of their peers and the instructor in online classrooms which created an stressful and uncomfortable communicative environment.

Speaking in online courses feels just like talking to a blank space...just feels nothing. I cannot see the mimics of my peers and the instructor clearly. I feel strange and I feel nervous. Do I speak properly, what do they think, what my instructor thinks...I just cannot see it? This is a real problem (S36, translated by the author(s).

I feel as if I talk to a machine. It is annoying not being able to see reactions...mimics. I cannot perceive how they feel while I am speaking. I feel tense because of it. I do not understand clearly what others think, feel. I simply do not see them...feel them. (S25, translated by the author(s).

In a F2F classroom, you see people around, you feel their physical existence. You can easily perceive what they think about your speech. Their reactions... also instructor's...I understand that it is such a comfort...but in online classrooms...it is hard to perceive, predict...what others are thinking...are they laughing...angry? Or am I misunderstood? It feels very annoying (S49, translated by the author(s).

Firstly, online classrooms are unpredictable. In F2F classrooms, I was able to predict when my instructor wanted me to participate. I did not have to interfere while another friend of mine was speaking. But in an

online classroom, anything may happen. I may interrupt my friend or we may start talking at the same time. I cannot predict what will happen after a minute. It is very annoying (S22, translated by the author(s)).

The next construct from FLCAS was fear of negative evaluation which referred to the type of FLA characterized by reluctance to engage oral communication to avoid criticisms by the peers of the instructor.

Table 3. Codes for fear of negative evaluation in Online EFL Courses

Theme	Codes	f	%
Fear of negative evaluation	Lack of linguistic competence	32	59.1
	Fear of giving wrong answers	5	9.2

59.1% (N=32) of the participants reported that they feel reluctant to engage in oral communication due to their lack of linguistic competence including grammar and syntax errors along with pronunciation problems. These learners mainly avoided oral communication in online settings since they lack self-esteem and thought other students were more proficient.

I feel that I am far behind my peers. They have better pronunciation. I fear that the instructor would criticize me if I pronounce a word wrong. I do not want to feel humiliated (S18, translated by the author(s)).

I couldn't develop a good pronunciation yet. I even cannot pronounce some simple words properly. So, I do not take risks. If I have to participate, I use the chatbox (S7, translated by the author(s)).

Sometimes I have no idea about the topic and the course progresses spontaneously. It annoys me. If I knew the topic and were prepared, I would design and memorize some sentences. But I fear that I could not immediately form a proper sentence when asked suddenly. So, I fear that my hardworking friends would laugh at me. I do not want to feel silly... (S5, translated by the author(s)).

Actually, I know everybody in the class. Everyone knows each other. I am sure there is no problem with being laughed at or mocked in the classroom. But in reality, it does not feel like that. Some of my friends are good at pronunciation. I am sure they will make fun of me. If a silly situation comes up, we also continue it in our class WhatsApp groups. They also write there...me also...sometimes. The mockery goes on in WhatsApp. I do not want to be a topic of such mockery (S41, translated by the author (s)).

9.2% (N=5) of the participants stated that they fear giving a wrong answer to a simple question and being mocked by other learners.

I fear giving a wrong answer to a simple question that everyone can answer. I am sure that our instructors are sympathetic in case of wrong answers but I cannot think the same for my friends (S26, translated by the author(s)). I do not want to feel awkward.

I feel ashamed when I give a wrong answer. It feels as if I didn't listen to the lesson and I do not want to feel embarrassed in front of my instructors. It is normal to make mistakes but I still feel that everyone will laugh at me (S9, translated by the author(s)).

The final component to be held was test anxiety which emerges during EFL tests causing nervousness and discomfort.

Table 4. Codes for Test Anxiety in ERE

Theme	Codes	f	%
Test Anxiety	Internet connection problems	51	94.4
	Power cut	49	90.7
	Inability to deliver online exam properly	35	64.8
	Online test equality and justice	42	77.7

The test anxiety theme revealed intense concerns when compared to other two components. The majority of learners were found to have experienced test anxiety during online EFL exams. A dominant majority of the participants experienced test anxiety due to technical problems during online tests. 94.24% (N=51) of the learners reported that they felt anxious during exams due to any possible internet connection problem. Similarly, 90.7% (N=49) stated that they fear any possible electricity failure or power cut during exams.

During the online exams, I fear internet disconnection most. Thankfully, I haven't had such a problem yet. I may also connect my mobile internet in my mobile phone. But I still feel anxious about it all the time during online exams (S29, translated by the author(s)).

It is as if I will experience internet connection issues during online exams every time. It makes me nervous. I always control the internet connection before exams and take some precautions. But the possibility of internet disconnection still annoys me (S33, translated by the author(s)).

I have never experienced a power cut in my district. Maybe it happened only a few times. But still, it is as if a power cut would happen when I sit for an exam. I do not even want to think about it (S4, translated by the author(s)).

64.8% (N=35) of the participants stated that they feel nervous about not being able to use given time efficiently during online exams. They also reported that they were annoyed by possible delivery problems.

Even though I complete my online exam without any problems, I feel anxious because I am not sure if my answers have been successfully delivered to my instructor...face to face exams were much better. At least, I was able to submit my exam to the instructor's hands. (S20, translated by the author(s)).

In the online tests, we need to submit the exam in the given limited time. Otherwise, the system rejects it. Indeed, the system is not human...it is just a software. During the exam, I cannot stop looking at the watch every time. It annoys me so much...I feel tense. I think about time more than the exam itself (S2, translated by the author(s)).

Most of the participants (77.7%; N=42) feel suspicious about their peers and the fairness of the online tests. They reported that they were

highly annoyed with the possibility of cheating as the students could not be observed efficiently during online tests.

I study hard for exams for several days. I knew some of my friends do not study much. During the exam, they secretly cooperate and answer questions together. They mostly use WhatsApp...The instructor cannot see them. Sometimes they search for an answer quickly on the internet. Our classroom is very crowded and I know it is hard to establish a reliable observation system...then here you go...they get the same score as me...sometimes higher. This is not fair; I do not trust online exams...not a bit! (S21, translated by the author(s).

Online tests seem more comfortable but there are serious problems. I feel anxious about the thought that my friends would obtain a higher mark by cheating than me. Maybe I am overthinking but I am sure someone is cheating and getting high marks without study. I do not think it is fair. (S23, translated by the author(s).

In general, results of the semi-structured interviews indicated that the three components of FLCAS emerged in online EFL courses in varying degrees.

4. DISCUSSION

Confirming (Russell, 2018; Pichette, 2009), our findings revealed symptoms of FLA in online EFL settings during Covid-19 isolation. In general, lack of non-verbal language, academic worries, and technical issues were found to be the main triggers of FLA in online classrooms.

In our study, although the learner participation rate seemed at around 85%, the oral participation rate in EFL was found to have been quite low (around 25%). We inferred that learners suffered from CA and showed reluctance to engage in oral communication primarily due to the lack of physical contact and non-verbal language in online settings. CA in FL is characterized by severe reluctancy of oral communication in FL; thus, such learners could not efficiently comprehend oral messages and produce little L2 output (Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert, 1999). According to McCroskey (1977), the causes of CA may never be fully known. But commonly, it has been thought that it has hereditary and environmental roots (McCroskey and Richmond, 1982) which usually manifested itself in FL contexts and could be simplified under the term “shyness”. But in our research, only a small part of learners linked their CA to their shy personality (12%) while a majority of them emphasized the lack of non-verbal language and physical quality. Hence, we inferred that while shyness might be a dominant cause of CA in F2F classrooms, it was not the primary trigger of CA in online settings.

These inferences showed that CA in the online classrooms was not personality-based but related to the quality of online communication. Non-verbal language was considered to have an important role in maintaining communication in FL. According to Cosnier (2008), during verbal interaction, “gestures that accompany discourse’ (non-verbal units we use during communication) and the “gestures that monitor interaction” (non-verbal units we demonstrate while listening) are vital parts of a healthy communication. In this respect,

facial expressions or gestures inhabit several empathic and interactional functions such as organizing speech exchange, turn-taking behavior, guiding discourse, and encouraging speech with nods or smiles which are also strong socio-affective indicators. These blending non-verbal behaviors greatly contribute to the interpersonal relationship between teachers and learners. The results of the study by Develotte, Guichon, and Vincent (2010) confirmed this by investigating webcam behaviors of foreign language teacher-trainees and non-verbal language effect on communication in an online platform. Their results showed that when teacher-trainees utilize and use their webcam effectively, it contributed to the socio-affective dimension of pedagogical communication and provided better progress in interpersonal relationships during online courses. Efficient utilization of webcam created a feeling of presence as it conveyed non-verbal language to students in online platforms and developed the quality of the pedagogical interaction. In this regard, our primary finding was that lack of non-verbal language triggered CA in ERE classrooms. Although instructors turned on their cameras in most ERE courses, we inferred that it was not sufficient to suppress CA. Most likely, learners in the ERE classroom should have also turned on their cameras which was not applicable due to technical, sociological, and personal reasons explained before.

Secondly, FL learners in ERE classrooms showed an acute sensitivity of being criticized by their peers or the instructor mainly due to pronunciation and grammatical worries. In F2F context, fear of negative evaluation derives from possible criticisms which causes

communication reluctancy in FL (Horwitz, 1986; Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002). We found out that the same sensitivity to criticism persisted in online settings. Hence, our findings related to this construct did not demonstrate a difference; it could be inferred that reasons of fear of negative evaluation also emerged in online EFL settings.

And finally, our findings related to test anxiety demonstrated some interesting differences when compared to the related literature on F2F classroom tests. Previous FLA research in F2F classroom context showed that FL test anxiety primarily derived from fear of failure, (Horwitz and Young, 1991), test validity (Young, 1999), task difficulty, self-efficacy and lack of preparation for a test (Aydın, Yavuz & Yesilyurt, 2006). These factors seemed to have shifted form moderately in our study. Our findings indicated that FL learners became test anxious due to various technical issues. They mainly fear internet connection problems, power cut during the online exam, and the inability to deliver online exams due to system error. Beside technical issues, learners in the ERE context were also annoyed by the probability of cheating which would spoil fair play in online exams. Cheating in online tests which undermines online test validity is a common problem (Tippins, 2009). An online test taker may exploit tests in several different ways and engage in cheating due to security flaws and even share the online test or answers with other test takers (Lievens & Burke, 2011). Hence, our findings revealed that learners were highly anxious about test validity and fair play issues in online tests.

CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The result of this study demonstrated that FLA emerged in ERE contexts. The main triggers of FLA were found to be lack of non-verbal communication, academic inefficacy, technical problems and validity issues in online tests. A deadline for the Covid-19 pandemic has not yet been foreseen and most likely ERE systems will continue for more than expected. Thus, our implications depending on current results might be beneficial for EFL instructors to develop an anxiety-free online EFL classroom setting.

- Language instructors should always keep in my that online language classrooms may have different dynamics and FLA may also emerge in online settings. Hence classroom activities should be in line with online opportunities. The instructor camera should be active and clear during courses
- Since FLA may emerge in online settings, instructors may prefer to think that some learners may be reluctant to participate as in traditional classrooms. Several distractors and stressors may exist such as family, other peers, and technological opportunities.
- Keeping FLA in mind, online courses can be carried out with short intervals each interval starting with a short warm-up. These warm-up activities can help to block excessive cognitive load reducing stress.

- Online group discussions should be promoted as group work, peer feedback and scaffolding may decrease fear of negative evaluation.
- If possible, instructors may prefer task-based group activities which may help learners to overcome the feeling of pandemic isolation. Each of the tasks should have a specific duration which may encourage learners to study cooperatively.
- Since learners suffering from FLA may feel reluctant to communicate with the instructor during online courses, instructors should give precise and simple instructions about homework and encourage learners to contact when needed.
- Relaxation activities such as breathing exercises accompanied by soft music should be advised.
- Language instructors should not build a distance with various communication apps and keep in contact with the students when needed. Such an attitude may help learners feel less anxious during online courses. Students can also be motivated to roll in different foreign language learning apps and websites such as Mixxer, Busuu, or Speaky.
- Online exams should be reliable and test durations should be planned carefully. If possible, instructors can design a test item pool that guarantees different questions for each student

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CHAPTER 5
A REVIEW ON CHALLENGES AND STRUGGLES OF EARLY
CHILDHOOD ESL TEACHING-LEARNING

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INTRODUCTION

There seems to be an increasing interest in acquiring and instructing second language (Dixon et al., 2012). This is partly due because of English's enormous global reach, but it's also due to such a surge in interest in learning second language. As we know already the early years of life are a crucial time for learning and growth. Young kids gain languages and many other cognitive abilities at a high rate throughout their first few years. Young adolescents at this age are also highly open to second - language acquisition. Children who study a second language at a young age are much more willing and able to articulate or pronounce second language vocabulary like a native English speaker and subsequently grasp the foreign language's complicated grammar structure. Young kids might be less self-aware than older children and adults in making mistakes. this aspect makes them to be a quick absorber of a language. (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 1994).

Furthermore, second language learning of Children may benefit from improved operational and cognitive performance, as well as language comprehension (Bialystok & Viswanathan, 2009). Kids learn a variety of cultures and enhance their cultural understanding and knowledge of diverse cultural customs and behaviour by acquiring a new language. As a result of this action, they become much more respectful of variety and different kind of civilizations. This early experiences in childhood enables the learning of a second/L2 or foreign language very smooth and also sows the seeds for future growth, development,

and interest towards learning a foreign language. In order to learn a language effectively, it is ideal to have a dynamic and diverse linguistic environment.

Like a result, as with acquiring a first language, children require several opportunities to just be actively involved and communicate with others. It can be difficult in a second language classroom since children who are studying a second language in a foreign language environment generally have minimal exposure to English language outside of the school. One method to address this is to use new technology to improve learning by allowing youngsters to communicate and mix with native or proficient speakers of English language. Technology advancements are playing an ever-increasing and critical role among young children of this generation.

This is an article made with a review on many elements of young children's second language teaching and learning in proposing an innovative method for teaching English utilising digital interactive technology. These tools can help in the utilisation to create collaborative relationships between early years of childhood classes and native or proficient language speakers. The presentation will begin with an introduction of how young kids acquire languages, followed by a discussion of various techniques that instructors may use to promote language acquisition in the second language classroom utilising digital interactive technology. For collaborative early English language teaching/learning with young kids, a theme-based or content approach is a viable strategy. Finally, various teaching or

learning styles in the two cultures will be explored, as this is an essential factor to consider when forming collaborative teaching partnerships in different cultures.

Language Learning

Typically, children learn their first language (L1) while actively engaged in activities such as exploring their environment and engaging with others. They progressively acquire not just linguistic competency, vocabulary, and principles of grammar of the language, but also competence in communication, through engaging and conversing with the other individuals of their culture. This fact allows the learners to use language in appropriate context of socio-cultural ambient. Culture and language are inextricably linked. Children generally grow into proficient speakers in their mother tongue by the age of four or five, and they have also become culturally assimilated towards their specific socio-cultural community. They are learning the basics of language or how to use correctly in many circumstances and with other individuals at the same time.

It's crucial to remember that first language acquisition doesn't end at around this age; it continues to expand and evolve until late adolescence. When studying a language as a second language, on the other hand, there are several substantial obstacles. that is, children are deprived of some kind of experience as it was with while learning a mother tongue. Children require chances to be deeply involved and participate in high immersive or interactive speaking competence in

the language classroom, just as they do while studying their native language. For an early years of childhood educator, this is a big issue.

Technological aids may be used in innovative ways to improve possibilities to communicate and engage in real and meaningful ways with native and fluent English speakers of the appropriate foreign language. We may be more inventive and imaginative in the way we approach or handle second language skills thanks to such new tools. It enables us to form connections and relationships between L2 students and native or fluent speakers of the second language being studied. It is a prime important that learners experiential orbit is utilised to create a second language acquisition. For which, teachers who are playing a partnering role in English language learning must be from the orbit of the native speakers of that particular language (Cuevas, 1996; McLaughlin, 1984).

Teachers may expand on subject and activity which the students already are acquainted with it and find interesting. This preceding expertise and abilities have included a comprehension of a variety of topics and content knowledge, such as arithmetic and reading. Whenever a kid learns to read in their mother tongue, their awareness and expertise naturally migrate to other language, even if the vernaculars and writing methods are very different, as they are in English and other language. Independent variables that impact second language acquisition must also be considered. Independent variations in mindset, temperament, gender, study habits, and ambition, among other factors, all have an impact on language acquisition (Bialystok &

Hakuta, 1994; McLaughlin, 1984; Wong Fillmore, 1991; Tabors, 1997). The passion to know and communicate in a foreign language, as well as ambition, are critical variables. Children must be inspired and enthusiastic about enhancing communication in a foreign language (Tabors, 1997). Relevant and inspiring causes for communication may be generated by developing collaborative tasks in partner schools.

Facilitation of Language Learning with the Help of Technologies

Because of the fast advancement of digital technology, we can be more creative and imaginative in how we instruct second or foreign language. It may be used to improve language acquisition by providing more possibilities for interaction with native or fluent English speakers and feedback in the chosen language. This direct interaction and encounter with native or proficient English speakers help students acquire the language modules (vocabulary and grammatical structure), as well as the heritage and cultural understanding and competencies required to converse successfully and properly in the target language. Furthermore, this exposure expands and develops the understanding and comprehension of other language and culture among young children and teachers. In the 12 classroom, technological advances may be employed to boost student enthusiasm and involvement. Children frequently employ a range of technology in their daily activities in the home. It is one of the reasons why modern technologies must also be used in the classroom. The Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) is one device that has shown to be a

famous and successful aid in teaching and learning in the L2 classroom (Weimer, 2001; Xu & Moloney, 2011).

Beeland, Smith, Hardman, & Higgins (2002 & 2006) claim that the visual component of the IWB is the major cause for actively motivating participation in the learning experience. It has been discovered that allowing learners to share and debate their works improves interest and participation in the learning experience. This sort of technologies may be utilised to allow youngsters to fully participate in a variety of activities for various objectives (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). Email, Android or apple apps, and social media tools including such Facebook, You Tube Channels, Skype, if accessible, can all be utilised to supplement linguistic or L2 language exercises. Virtual technologies of world, like Minecraft, have grown prominent in language learning and teaching, especially among grownups as well as among older kids. The tasks and aims associated with the usage of these technology can be arranged in such a way that collegial collaboration is encouraged. Digital books and videogames can be quite beneficial to early childhood. These sorts of exercises may be displayed this onto whiteboard interaction to start engaging the entire class and groups of students actively, or they would be utilised for children's development on transportable devices to study and review the subject.

It is crucial to emphasise, however, that instructors must be given training and assistance in order for using technologies to optimize pedagogical approaches, since these tools/technologies are just

valuable tools for improving language teaching and learning process in the classroom. Just like Betcher and Lee (2009) stress up, the teacher must be able to creatively and meaningfully employ these tools to actively involve students in the learning processes.

Instruction Based on Content

Content-based training is a very effective method of teaching young people a foreign or second language (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Snow 1999). By use of subject material as a medium for learning and teaching a foreign or second language is referred to as contents. The second language is taught as part of an academic course or topic. As a result, second-language students concurrently study language and its material as content. This material as content, thus in accordance with Genesee (1994), can be any concept or idea that the students find interesting or important. Learning the target language's cultural knowledge is also recognised as an important component of the process (Huang, 2003).

For early childhood learners, a theme-based method has been shown to be an efficient tool of second language learning and teaching. Such teaching method, that is well suited for usage with early childhood learners and those individuals with low L2 competence, can integrate tangible and strongly contextualised information (Archibald et al., 2006; Met, 1998; Stryker & Leaver 1997). Children can utilise the learning strategies to learn the target language in relevant circumstances when using a theme-based strategy. Entire content related material is contextualised as a result of this method, making it

much easier to digest and function as meaningful support for language development for early childhood learners. It has been shown that integrating second language learning in a relevant setting is an efficient means of encouraging youngsters and fostering the enhancement level of Second - language abilities (Snow Met, & Genesee, 1989).

A strategy such as theme-based approach could be created and arranged to prioritise the learners' likes and requirements (Snow, 1999). Children tend to be engaged and motivated if their preferences are considered into account (Valentine & Repath-Martos, 1997). The material of the native/first language and second language can indeed be coordinated so that the first language and second language subject content reinforces one another (Snow et al., 1989; Snow, 2001). Incorporation of topic content in the first language and second language can indeed help the children to conceptualise and contextualise their second language learning, establish contacts, and strengthen learning in the first language and second language if done carefully and thoughtfully.

As a result, interest and learning may be enhanced. Teachers may combine a range of linguistic ideas into a subject area that really are exciting and relevant to the students, as well as giving them a purpose to use the communication, by designing themed modules. Thematic classes combine language, subject, and cultural activities that enable students to practise the second language in various settings. After deciding on a theme, a number of English language-related

activities might be arranged around it. Preliminary language classes and exercises can really be conducted individually by each partnering instructor ahead of the collaborative interaction classroom instruction. Key terms, vocabularies, and grammatical constructions that are important and beneficial for the intended collaborative interaction sessions can be taught explicitly to children (Short, 1994, 1997).

New theories and ideas can also be presented or explored during their native language classes before being presented or reviewed in their L2 learning sessions. Partner teachers can choose from a variety of intriguing and intriguing themes or concepts that are appropriate for early childhood learners. This adds information on wildlife, foodstuffs, and ourselves and more especially our everyday lives. Take, for example, the subject of animals, which may be explored in partner classes as shown in Figure 1. First, the partnering instructors collaborate to develop activities centred on the content and dialect to be studied. Previous to the scheduled interactive celebrative session, the partnering instructors perform several preparatory exercises on the content.

For example, the youngsters may look up information about their desired animal, such as where it resides, what it consumes, what sounds it produces, and also what colour or shade it is, among other things. They might next try drawing or painting their desired animal and mark it. The instructor also can practise the conversational language that would be utilised in the celebrative session by reviewing

through it with the students whether they are fluent in the language or not, by listening to audio recordings. The partner classes take shifts showing their images or drawings of their absolute favourites/animal in the interactive collaborative session, by using established interactive languages, for example,

Hello!

What exactly could it be? It's just a.....

What would it consume? It consumes.....

What colour is that really? How many are there?

Goodbye!

Supplemental follow-up exercises can really be executed just after collaborative session, for instance, youngsters can review repertoire that is vocabulary knowledge, through a game which they can as well discuss with other group of students or class, by which they can create an e - book of their own animal pictures with the identities and noise levels they produce, as well as they could go on a paddock trip to the zoo or a wildlife reserved park and start taking video and photos snippets to submit to the other group of students or class.

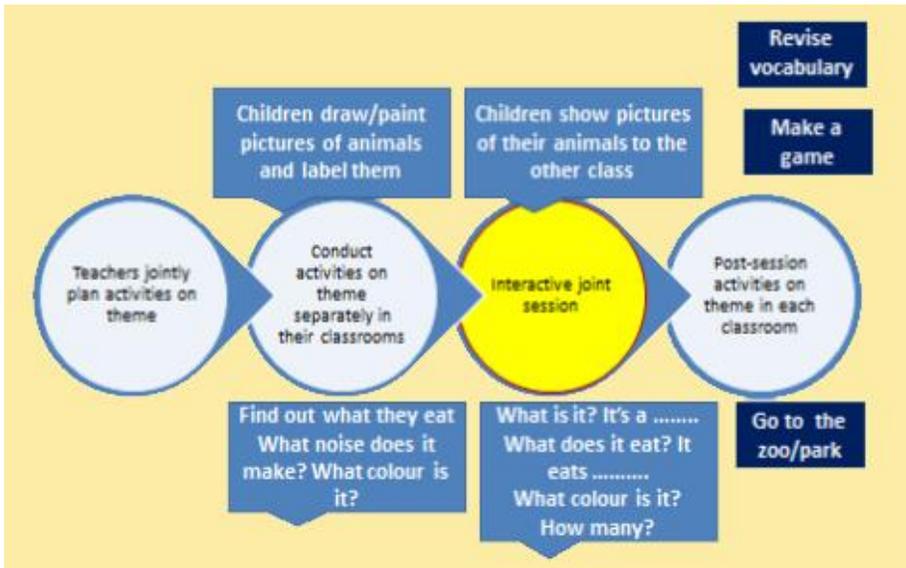


Figure 1. A potential developmental trajectory for a combined animal thematic study in early childhood classes.

Teaching-Learning Approaches across Different Cultures

According to a widely accepted Western viewpoint, second language acquisition and instruction should be extremely participatory and child-centered rather than teacher-centered. Children are provided with opportunity to solve issues and learn about the world in which they live with this method. Children who discover how and where to acquire new knowledge and apply, analyse, and resolve issues in a child-centered setting where exploration in learning is used to learn how to cope up with the issues related with communication; and that new information becomes accessible. This method is based on knowledge construction with the help of teaching methods, which builds on child's past experience and knowledge (Cuevas, 1996). Language is an excellent example of a subject where children arrive at

preschool with such a wealth of past experience and knowledge (Clark, 2000).

Social interaction in language acquisition is thought to be important for children's learning and development. Furthermore, in Western early childhood language learning settings, a balance amongst official instruction and child-initiated learning processes is emphasised (Tang & Maxwell, 2007). Learning and teaching in schools and preschools, on the other hand, may be more conventional and teacher-centered. Teachers may be focused with formal instruction and curriculum designed delivery. When Tang and Maxwell (2007) studied two local Chinese preschools, they discovered that the preferred method was to educate the entire class utilising a more formal instruction of teaching technique. Teachers use this method for a variety of reasons, including larger classes. Various teaching methods and classroom management with assessments are likely to occur while teaching across cultures. This implies that when instructors collaborate on lesson design and planning, they must be adaptive and open to diverse teaching techniques and methods.

CONCLUSION

The objective of this study is to present a novel method to foreign or second language teaching and learning in early childhood classrooms. It is suggested that, digital interactive technology may be utilised in all the countries to form collaborative/joint relationships between instructors and students in early childhood classrooms. This will allow youngsters to communicate and engage in interaction with classmates

who are natural communicators of the foreign language in question. A topic or theme-based strategy is an excellent way for working with early childhood learners and individuals with limited second-language competence.

This method also creates an interesting and relevant environment for learning languages. Both mother tongue and second language content may be simplified so that learning in both the languages is reinforced and integrated. Children will gain a better knowledge of the many cultures connected with every language as a result of this method. Diverse methods of teaching and learning are inclined to produce when instructors collaborate throughout and across classrooms in various cultural settings, therefore teachers must be flexible and adaptable in their methodology or approach. Partner teachers may develop unique and relevant methods for students to engage and learn English as a second language in their individual classrooms through in this joint or collaborative initiative.

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CHAPTER 6

TWO CASES IN SLA: STRUGGLES TO LEARN L2 AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS NATIVELIKENESS

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While Starting

Teaching English as a second or foreign language involves many things like teaching theories, teaching concepts, teaching media, as well as teaching methods. It also involves research about how the second language is learned by different individuals in different contexts. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) course in general is designed to assist the students to understand the theories, concepts, as well as the cognitive and social mechanisms underlying these language acquisition phenomena. Along the way, students also study the factors affecting the process of learning a second language including age, aptitude, the role of the first language, individual learner differences, cultural and sociolinguistic factors as well.

This book chapter is the compilation of final papers written by English Language Education Program (ELEP) students of UKSW Salatiga, Indonesia, who took the SLA course. They were encouraged to reflect on how the second language (L2) theories and individual learners' differences affecting the process of the L2 learning by observing students from various levels and backgrounds. The process in learning English as second language is vividly described through challenges and problems faced by the L2 learners. The conclusion and suggested solutions were drawn based on the observation to recognize the major theoretical positions in SLA.

We are grateful for the opportunity to publish our students' final papers by Ispec Publisher. We wish Ispec Publisher success in the

future. We also have high hopes that the readers including teachers and students of English find this book useful.

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Struggles Dealing with L2 Learning: Junior High School and Senior High School Student's Perspectives

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INTRODUCTION

Second Language Acquisition is a study on how learners learn a second language after discovering their first language. Some factors are affecting how learners acquire their second language. These factors are called individual learner differences, including differences in age, learning style, aptitude, motivation, and personality (Ellis, 1985). These factors contribute both to the success or failure of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). One of the individual differences that play a significant role in second language learning is age.

Hu (2016) states that younger language learners are more successful than adult learners acquiring a second language. Hu's statement is in line with the Critical Period Hypothesis. Initially discussed in the late 1960s by Eric Lenneberg, the Critical Period Hypothesis declares that language acquisition must happen before puberty to reach native-like fluency. Moreover, Lenneberg also add that there is a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired easier. Beyond

this period, a language is more challenging to acquire. In other words, this theory states that early age is the best age for language acquisition.

Although some researchers believe that young learners are better at acquiring a second language, another researcher believes older are better. It illustrates that older language learners are more successful and efficient than young learners. Some studies have been done to support this view. Ekstrand (1976) states that age will improve the L2 learning ability. Since this condition happens, the role of age in acquiring a second language between younger and adult learners is still debatable.

Reflecting on the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) course, there are advantages that we can apply for our future careers. This course opens our minds about teaching English as a second language in Indonesia. As future teachers, we need to understand how students acquire or learn a second or foreign language to plan and teach English as a second language successfully. Other than that, we also learn that teachers need to accommodate the different learning styles in their lessons. Furthermore, having a solid understanding of teaching methods in language acquisition and learning theories will contribute to effective lesson planning and teaching.

In this paper, we focus on age differences because of some reasons. First of all, it is an interesting topic since it happens around us. Age may affect the learners' learning style. Likewise, there are sufficient references related to this topic, and it is still a debatable issue in SLA. A study on this topic can indeed be good research and a reference for

readers, especially those who are interested or dealing with SLA. In addition, it can be beneficial for both the teachers and the future teachers out there. We also determined to find the learners' struggles in learning English as their second language and how they overcome the struggles. It makes this research different from others.

Furthermore, there are some assumptions toward this topic. First, we assume that age differences affect someone's second language (L2) learning style as every person at a certain age has different background knowledge and purposes in learning an L2. Therefore, we believe that a first-grade student of Junior High School (JHS) and a third-grade student of Senior High School (SHS) have different styles in learning English as their L2.

Second, we all know that K13 limits the English learning activities for elementary students. Thus, the first grade JHS students may only have English as an extracurricular or this will be the first time they learn English formally in their current grade.

Third, we argue that third grade SHS student is probably more mature than the previous participant. The student also may be more focused on his/her future, whether the language is an important skill to get a job or a requirement to enroll in a prestigious university. Hence, those reasons can motivate the participant to learn English.

The research question of this paper is "What are the struggles experienced by a first-grade student of JHS and a third-grade student of SHS in learning L2 (English) and how do they overcome them?" We interviewed two participants to collect the data. The questions

were designed to find out the struggles in learning English and their ways to overcome the struggles. We used the Indonesian language to interview both participants individually and recorded the sessions. Hopefully, by reading this study, readers will understand JHS and SHS students' struggles in learning L2 and how they deal with their struggles.

Theoretical Foundation

Age differences have become controversial topics among researchers in the educational field, specifically in second language acquisition (SLA). Some researchers believed that younger learners are better learners than adults, while other researchers claimed the opposite. According to Birdsong and Vanhove (2016), younger learners are often connected to orally-related skills and effortless language processing. Barac and Bialystok (2011, as cited in Ozfidan & Burlbaw, 2019) state that teenagers are better at listening skills and syntax. Meanwhile, Ozfidan and Burlbaw (2019) argue that late or older learners excel in writing and reading skills. Therefore, each group has specific language skills that they can learn at best. However, in this particular topic, researchers will be more focused on the adolescents or in this case, the struggles that the Junior and Senior High School students face while learning L2.

In general, students in Indonesia whose schools implemented the K13 curriculum receive second language learning or English as the main subject at the age of 13 years old. Thus, the students have little exposure to English before they reach a particular age. Such a

situation may cause trouble for the learning process. Lestari, Firtiani, and Erdina (2017) find that students had difficulties in learning vocabulary. Furthermore, they mention that students have struggled in terms of reading comprehension due to inadequate vocabulary mastery. In line with this result, Ibrahim (2020) adds that students with little vocabulary knowledge will have a hard time understanding the meaning of words. He also mentions that students have trouble using the appropriate synonym of words. Therefore, mastering vocabulary is essential for the students to comprehend English.

According to the result of Hmouma's study in 2014, students' errors are caused by L1 intervention and overgeneralization that made students apply anything that had to do with the language to smoothen the L2 learning process. Furthermore, Puspita (2019) finds that students often make errors in grammar in terms of the subject-verb agreement during speaking, errors in tenses or grammatical structures, relative clauses, and interlanguage interference. Such experience is also found in Ebrahimpourtaher and Eissaie's study (2015), as cited in Ancheta & Perez, 2017) in which Iranian learners acknowledge the code-switching utilization to facilitate grammar and vocabulary comprehension albeit they regarded grammar as the most complex and at the same time the least functional fragment in L2 acquisition.

Some researchers also find that several studies to overcome the struggles experienced by the students in junior high school and senior high school. According to Amir, Salija, and Weda (2019), "To overcome those problems, the teachers apply the top-down strategy

and vocabulary enrichment as the treatments.” In addition, Swary’s study in 2014 shows that the teacher should 1) give motivation and stimulus questions to the students so that the students can develop their ideas; and 2) choose the most suitable learning method for the students. Still, according to Swary’s study, there are some findings that students can do to overcome their struggle in learning English: 1) students should do more practice; 2) students should be brave in expressing their ideas, and 3) not be afraid in making mistakes.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the findings gained from a deep interview with a first-year JHS student and the last year SHS student. This part begins with brief information about the students’ backgrounds. Then, this part explains the struggles that the students’ experience and is followed by their ways to overcome the struggles as additional information.

Participants’ Background

The first participant (Student A) was 13 years old student in the first year of JHS in Kanisius Girisonta Junior High School. He has learned English since he was in kindergarten. He started learning English by memorizing vocabulary such as mentioning the name of fruits, singing songs, and praying. He learned English because English was a compulsory subject at his school. However, he also liked to expand his understanding in English. That was his motivation in learning English

Next, the second participant (Student B) was a 17 years old student who was in the third year of SHS at Bangka Belitung Island. Same as Student A, he has learned English since he was in kindergarten. He said English is the international language. Thus, if he learned English, it could ease him in communication, getting information, playing games, and watching movies.

The Struggles Experienced by The Students

Both of them, Student A and Student B experienced struggles in learning English. Fortunately, they also had found the solutions to the struggles. The struggles and the solutions were explained below.

Lack of Instruction

During this covid 19, Student A was doing online learning. He stated that sometimes he was confused if the teacher did not give him instructions on the assignment. “Sometimes I get confused when the teacher gives an assignment without instructions.” (Student A, offline interview, 5th April 2021). Then, he usually asks his peers or teacher. He was not nervous while asking his teacher because his English teacher is also his student’s advisor. One of our group members, Agnes, experienced a similar situation. However, she said that she was more comfortable asking friends rather than teachers.

Inadequate Vocabulary

Student A stated that he got confused in the reading and writing lessons because there were many new words. This statement is in line with Ibrahim (2020), he states that students with little knowledge of

vocabulary will have a hard time understanding the meaning of words. Student A also mentioned that students also had trouble using the appropriate synonym of words. Then, he liked to make a vocabulary note (*Figure 1*). After collecting the vocabulary, he tried to memorize it. “I usually underline the difficult word and collect it in my vocabulary notes. After that, I search the meaning and try to memorize it” (Student A, offline interview, 5th April 2021). One of the group members, Clara, also faced the same problem. Then, her teacher taught her to underline the unknown word and collect it on a piece of paper. Every day, she needed to memorize at least five new vocabularies. This method was helpful for her to improve her vocabulary skills.

M. A. Lintang. J. A
20-7a Hal 2

Father	X ayah
Mother	X ibu
Grand father	X kakek
Grand mother	X nenek
Daughter	X anak perempuan
Son	X anak laki laki
Brother	X saudara laki laki
Sister	X saudara perempuan
niece	X keponakan perempuan
Nephew	X keponakan laki laki
Cousin	X sepupu
Uncle	X paman
aunt	X bibi
Sibling	X saudara laki laki / perempuan kandung
Father in law	X Ayah merca
Mother in law	X ibu merca
Son in law	X menantu laki laki
Daughter in law	X menantu perempuan
Brother in law	X saudara laki laki ipar
Sister in law	X saudara perempuan ipar
Step mother	X ibu tiri
Step father	X ayah tiri
Husband	X suami
wife	X istri
Child	X anak

Figure 1: A's Vocabulary Note

The same as the first interviewee, Student B also experienced difficulties in enriching his vocabulary. Remembering the words was difficult since there were only a few English words that similar to Indonesian. He always uses *Google Translate* (GT) to help him find the intended vocabulary.

Grammatical Difficulties

Understanding tenses in grammatical matters became a difficult struggle experienced by Student A and Student B. “It is the most difficult material in learning English.” (Student A, direct interview, 5th April 2021). Student B (online interview, 6th April 2021) adds, “I find it difficult to decide which tenses I should use in the particular context.” In order to overcome it, Student A and Student B tried to search for examples on the internet. Without any hesitation, Student A also asked his teacher or friends. Then, he wrote the grammar explanation given by his teacher in his book (*picture 2*). He used Indonesian to write the note since it would be more understandable for him.

Asking teachers and friends like what Student A did was amazing by one of the group members, Lydia. She did not have any courage to ask something she did not know when she was in JHS. She was very afraid to be bullied by her friends because she did not understand something that her friends considered easy. However, it changed a little bit when she was in university. She tried to be out of her comfort zone and asked the lecturer and even some friends. She was still being bullied and mocked by some friends, but she did not pay too much attention to the bullies and focused more on her study at her age.

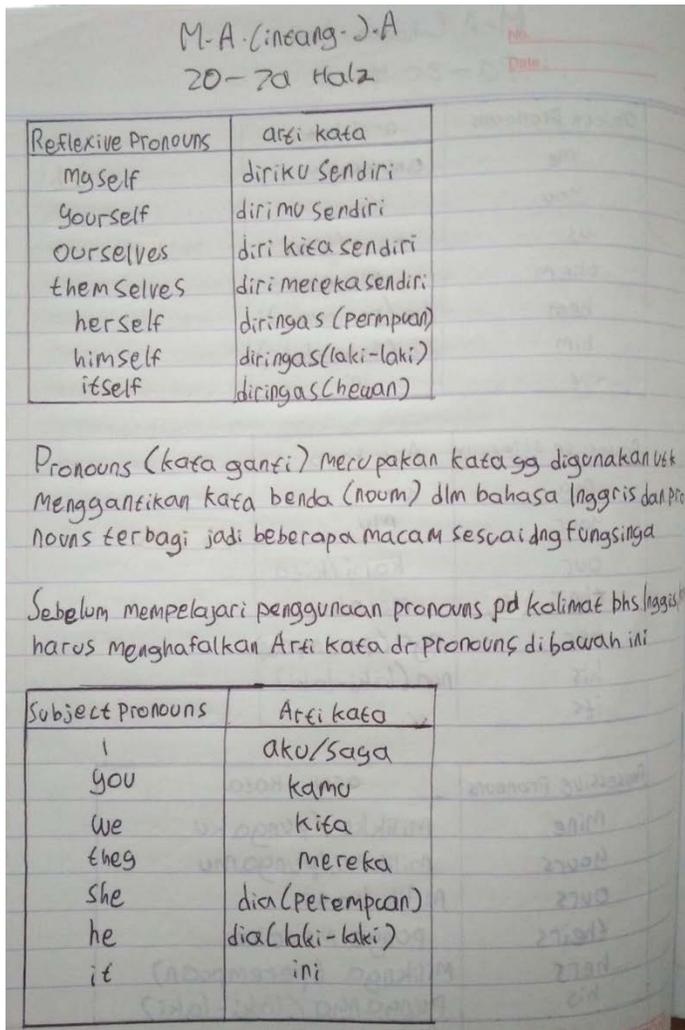


Figure 2: Student A's Grammar Notes

Reading and Writing Skills

Student B said that he had difficulties in improving his reading skills. The struggles were connected by the previous problem where he struggled to memorize the vocabulary and its meaning. "There were too many words that I do not understand the meaning and the context

used in a passage.” (Student B, online interview, 6th April 2021). Consequently, he did not know the meaning of the text he read. He also faced difficulty in choosing the words to express his thoughts in his writing tasks. It made writing became an arduous task for him. When facing these struggles, he again used GT for help and rarely opened the printed dictionary. Student A faced the same difficulties as student B. He stated that in writing class, he had to translate a paragraph. While doing this assignment, he experienced difficulties remembering vocabulary in English. He then tried to open a dictionary to find out the appropriate vocabulary. “The teacher sometimes asked me to translate one paragraph of a story. I also asked to fill in the blank with appropriate words. If I do not know the word in English, I usually open an online dictionary” (Student A, offline interview, 5th April 2021). In terms of reading, Student A had difficulty understanding the questions in the reading comprehension. He had trouble on how to answer closed and open questions. “In the English book, the teacher asked me to read the text first and then answer the questions. It is not easy for me to understand the question.” (Student A, offline interview, 5th April 2021).

Speaking and Listening Skills

Besides having an impact on the reading and writing skills, lack of vocabulary also affected student B's speaking and listening skills. Student B admitted that the biggest problem was caused by the words that were pronounced quite differently compared to the way he pronounced them in his Indonesian dialects. This interference

hindered him in having better speaking and listening skills. Even so, he proudly said that he was not shy to make mistakes, and he had aplomb self-confidence. Whenever he wanted to know how to pronounce the particular words, he once again used GT. Furthermore, to improve his listening skills, he preferred to listen to many English dialogues in movies he liked without subtitles. He thought this strategy was more effective than listening to GT especially if he had more spare time.

CONCLUSION

There are three leading causes that make both participants struggling in learning English as a second language. Those are unclear instructions given by the teacher, inadequate vocabulary, and grammatical difficulties. Both admitted that the struggles that inhibited their SLA the most were enriching the vocabulary and understanding the grammatical rules. Although student A, the first-year JHS student, does not get the four skills materials (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) yet. Fortunately, the teacher does not emphasize all skills but she only focuses on grammar and enriching vocabulary during the online learning. Meanwhile, student B, the third-year SHS student, finds that his limited vocabulary knowledge made it hard to understand the text and express his thoughts in writing. Besides, he added that it is hard to understand what other speakers say because they pronounce the words differently. Yet, he admitted that at his age, English is not necessarily used as daily communication. Students at his age still prefer to use the local or

Indonesian language. Thus, this low English exposure made him not fluent enough in using English, both oral and written.

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STRUGGLES DEALING WITH L2 LEARNING: JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT'S

Perspectives

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INTRODUCTION

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a one-semester elective course offered for the senior year students of the English Language Education program (ELEP), Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), UKSW, Indonesia. Just like the course name, throughout the semester, students will learn about the theories of SLA and try to look into the recent issues and studies within the field. This paper is written as the final assignment for the course, and here, the student writers tried to share their understanding about SLA which they had learned from the course. The writers also discussed the issues of attitudes and motivation related to the native-like standard within the context of EFL in Indonesia.

During the course, the students were expected to understand the process of acquiring a second language which was done through learning the theoretical concepts behind the process of SLA, observing others' experiences in learning a second language, and reflecting on

their own experiences as second language learners. By doing this, the students were equipped with the knowledge on how the process of second language acquisition occurred and the theoretical views around SLA which would eventually help them if they become language teachers in the future or in their lifelong journey as language learners.

Among the theoretical concepts that the students learned from the course were the factors which might affect one's second language acquisition process. These factors were categorized as the "Individual Learners Differences (ILD)" in SLA. Some of the key factors in ILD are age, attitude, and motivation. Numerous studies have tried to investigate these three factors, but one of the most renowned theories on these two factors was proposed by Gardner in 1985 which classified the two kinds of attitudes in SLA and its relation with students' motivation to learn the second language. These two factors of attitude and motivation and how the two factors relate will be the main focus of this paper.

Literature Review

According to Gardner (1985, as cited in Gholami, 2012), there are two kinds of attitudes in SLA: (1) Attitudes toward the speakers of the language, and (2) Attitudes toward how the language could be learned and applied by the learners. While the latter focuses more on how second language learners view the use and practicality of the language, the former focuses on learners' views toward the native speakers of the language, as well as the community and the culture of the speakers.

When talking about attitudes toward the native speakers of the language, it is also possible to relate them with one of the common issues in SLA which is the native-like standard or the native-like competence in which second language learners would often try to achieve during their second language learning process.

Earlier research in SLA had tried to investigate how native-likeness took part in the process of SLA. However, the researchers tended to focus more on the native-like competence and how age holds a central role in determining the probability to achieve that native-like competence. This is related to the common belief in SLA, which states that that earlier age and exposure of the language would make it possible to achieve better proficiency and the native-like competence of the language (Taylor, 1990; Snow, 1993; Khalifa, 2012; Foster, Bolibaug, & Katula, 2013).

Outside the frame of SLA, several studies (Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Sasayama, 2013; Monfared & Khatib, 2018) have tried to figure out how students and teachers from various Asian countries view English language with the native-like standard (often referred to as *Standard English*) compared with the one which has the local varieties of the speakers (often referred as *World Englishes*). The findings of the study mostly pointed into mixed results in which the participants viewed the *Standard English* as necessary and more favorable than the local English variants. They felt more comfortable with and preferred the local English when it comes to communicating with other second-language speakers. The Japanese student participants of Sasayama's

study (2013) even stated that they hoped someday the Japanese variant of English (Japanese English) would be accepted internationally.

In a country like Indonesia where English is a foreign language, the native-like competence might become a standard set by language teachers and institutions in which students are required to achieve. This might result in a diverse attitude among the students toward that native-like standard in their experience of learning English.

It is important to note that the findings of the study done by Foster et al. (2013) have pointed out that positive attitudes toward the second language do not have any relation with how a second language learner could successfully achieve native-like competence. The findings are consistent with the concept of attitudes in SLA where learners' attitudes do not have a direct influence on their learning, but it has an impact on their motivation (Spolsky, 1989, as in Gholami, 2012). Thus, it could be said that when a second language learner has a positive attitude toward English, he/she would be more motivated to learn English compared with the other learners who do not have that positive attitude.

This paper would try to explore the issue of native-likeness among second language learners in Indonesia, the relationship between learners' attitude toward the native-like standard, and their motivation.

This study was guided by the following questions:

- (1) How do EFL Undergraduate students in Indonesia view the native-like standard which might be possible to present during their experience in learning English as their second language?
- (2) Does the students' view toward the native-like standard affect their motivation to English?
- (3) What kinds of solutions that teachers can give to help the students whose motivation is affected by their attitudes toward the native-like standard?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants

To answer the questions addressed, five senior students from batch 2017 of the English Language Education Program of the Faculty of Language and Arts, UKSW Indonesia were asked to share their experience in learning English as their second language. All of them are female in their early twenties. Most of them came from Salatiga, Central Java (Participants C, D, E) with the other two come from Palu, Central Sulawesi (Participant A) and Timor, East Nusa Tenggara (Participant E). The detailed information of the participants is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The Participants' Background

Participant	Age	Gender	Nationality	Origins	Language(s) spoken
A	21	F	Indonesian	Palu, Central Sulawesi	Bahasa Indonesia, English, Javanese, Mandonese, Palunese
B	20	F	Indonesian	Timor, East Nusa Tenggara (NTT)	Bahasa Indonesia, English, Savunese, Timorese
C	22	F	Indonesian	Salatiga, Central Java	Bahasa Indonesia, Javanese, English
D	23	F	Indonesian	Salatiga, Central Java	Bahasa Indonesia, Javanese, English
E	22	F	Indonesian	Salatiga, Central Java	Bahasa Indonesia, Javanese, English

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The participants were asked to share their experiences through semi-structured interviews in March 2021. Each of the interview took around 10-15 minutes for each participant and the participants could use either English or Indonesian so that they would feel more comfortable and able to answer the questions. Then, the results of the interviews were transcribed, observed, and analyzed carefully to answer the questions of this paper. After that, the participants' answers were linked to the theories and findings from the previous studies.

DISCUSSION

A. Attitude toward native-likeness

Native-likeness is not necessary for communicating in English. Most of the participants (A, C, D, and E) mentioned that native-likeness was not necessary for second language learning. Participant C stated that a native-like standard was not necessary because the key point in learning a second language was to be able to communicate and people could understand the meaning well. Participant C pointed out:

Extract 1:

It is not a necessary thing to be able to speak like a native. In my opinion, the most important thing when we speak using English is we can deliver the message clearly so that the interlocutor can understand what we are trying to say.

This is in line with the result of Monfared and Khatib's (2018) study that most of the Indian group teachers viewed that the meaning that we could deliver when communicating with others is more important than our ability to deliver the message with a native-like accent.

Moreover, the limitations of target language exposure served as a hindering factor for participants A and E to achieve the native-like standard in speaking. Commenting on this, participant A stated that:

Extract 2:

We won't be able to speak like a native [speaker] because we have an accent and we do it in a different environment so I think we can't be like a native speaker.

The variety of English accents or what is usually called as *World Englishes* proves that now people have the privilege to speak English using their accent. Thus, Participants A, D, and E further stated that native-likeness was not important and people who do not speak English as their first language should be confident and proud of their accents. Participant D stated that:

Extract 3:

Some English speakers come from Asia, Europe, or even Africa continents who have different accents which might influence their pronunciation in English and it will have different varieties of English accents, and actually, that's okay if we can't be native-like and we should be confident with it.

This is relevant with Sifakis (2015) and Sifakis' (2014) ideas as cited in Monfared and Khatib (2018) that non-native English speakers who perceive the variety of *World Englishes* well will affect their attitude to their English language variety. Native-likeness is necessary as a standard in learning English as a second language

On the other hand, participant B had a different view toward the native-likeness in which she perceived that the native-like standard was essential in second language learning. She stated that in learning English as a second language, native-likeness is an important standard in determining language attainment as well as in the career field. This somehow is true because all of the participants were taking the English Language Education program in which they were being equipped and prepared to become future teachers. Acknowledging the native-like standard in English is paramount for English teachers in

Indonesia, because the students would expect their teacher to give them examples of the English language with some native-like quality which could be in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar.

Further analysis of the interview transcript of participant B could also explain her view toward the native-like standard. Unlike the other participants, throughout the interview, participant B did not mention the concept of *World Englishes*. Instead, she referred back to her experience when learning English at primary and secondary school where her English teachers "forced" her and the other peers to speak as native-like as possible, which resulted in making her feel quite "depressed" at that time.

This suggests that the social background of the participants might also affect their views toward native-likeness in learning English. While most of the participants who came from Java and Sulawesi might have the opportunity to know the concept of *World Englishes* and get taught by teachers who did not emphasize much on the native-like standard, participant B might not get that chance in East Nusa Tenggara and instead were faced with teachers who set a pretty high standard for native-like competence.

B. Participants' perceptions toward native-likeness and their motivation

The participants showed different responses on how the standard of being native-like affects their motivation. Although participant A said earlier that being native-like is not necessary, she believed that a

native-like standard still could motivate learners to learn a language. The desire to achieve native-likeness pushed learners to speak the language fluently.

Having the same response as participant A, participant B also showed positive responses to native likeness on language learners' motivation. She added that:

Extract 4:

Yes, the native-likeness standard quite motivated me in learning English from elementary school until in the higher education field. So, as a learner, we assume to produce language closer to native. And speaking English like a native also became a pride for us or as a great achievement in learning English. However, it often gives high pressure on learners who have problems in dialect. So, for them, it is quite challenging to attain native-like.

This suggests that although the native-like standard in learning English might be demanding and depressing for the students, in some ways, it could motivate them to learn English more and harder so that they can achieve that standard. Other than that, being able to achieve that native-like standard might also give a feeling of accomplishment and pride in the learners' self. This was what participant A felt when people complimented her ability to speak with a good American accent which made her feel more motivated to learn English more. This is in line with what Cook (2013) proposed that second language learners could feel proud when they somehow could possess the native-like competence which makes them feel that they too could belong in the native speakers' community.

Participants C and D had different views from the previous participant. They saw that native-likeness did not affect learners' motivation to learn a language. Participant C stated:

Extract 5:

I do not think that the native-likeness standard affects my motivation in my language learning because just like my perception of native-likeness previously, I do not think that it is a very important thing for me as a second language learner.

Participant C then said that her biggest motivation to learn English was her interest in learning English. She also added that she wanted to be able to communicate using English accurately and fluently using her accent. This is similar to participant D, she said:

Extract 6:

As long as you can speak clearly, confidently and the person who you are talking to can understand your utterances, I think it is fairly good.

These findings are relevant to Sasayama's (2013) result where the participants perceived English as a communication tool and their accent should not be a big problem as long as it did not interfere with the conversation they were having.

Besides that, what participants C and D have shared also reflects on what Gardner (1985) had proposed about the two kinds of attitudes in second language learning and how, as Spolsky (1989) also proposed, that those attitudes might affect students' motivation to learn. Although participants C and D might not have a very positive attitude

toward the speakers of the English (which in this case relates with the native-like standard of the English speakers), they still had high motivation to learn English because they had good attitudes toward how the English language could be learned and applied. They wanted to be able to learn communication, and therefore they were very motivated to learn the language to achieve that goal.

CONCLUSION

This paper aims to investigate the attitudes of Indonesian EFL Undergraduate students towards the native-like standard in their experience learning English as a second language. This paper also tries to figure out whether their attitudes influenced their motivation in learning the language. The data showed that most of the student participants did not view the native-like standard as necessary, because they wanted to be able to use English for communication and they felt that with the emerging concept of world Englishes, they should be proud and not feel ashamed with their identity as non-native speakers of English.

The findings also suggest that the social background of the participants might also affect their attitudes toward the native-like standard. The participants who came from places with more speakers of English as the second language (like from Java) might put less emphasis on the native-like standard of English compared with their peers who came from a place where the speakers of English as a foreign language was way more than those as the second language (like from East Nusa Tenggara).

It was also revealed that native-likeness could motivate the participants to learn English more. Although the native-like standard which the teachers set might put high pressure on students to learn English, it could also motivate them to learn better and try harder to achieve that standard. Furthermore, when at some points students were able to achieve that native-like standard, they would feel proud because they could accomplish something from their hard work.

On the other hand, the participants who did not have a very good attitude toward the native-like standard still showed great motivation to learn English because they had good attitudes on how they wanted to learn English to be able to use the language for communication.

From the findings of this paper, the writers could suggest that when dealing with or setting a native-like standard in learning English for their students, especially in Indonesia, teachers first need to consider the students' attitude toward the native-like standard. To consider that attitude, teachers should also consider the social background of the students and not overgeneralize the students' attitudes, because each student might have a different experience and attitude toward the issue.

In considering how the students' attitudes affect their motivation to learn, teachers not only include their attitudes towards the issue of native-like standard, but also the attitudes on how they would learn and apply the language because the participants from this paper have shown that when students have a positive attitude towards either the speakers of the language or how the language could be learned and

used, they would also have great motivation to learn English as their second language.

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Glossary

Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)	A theory in second language acquisition which claims that the period between infancy and puberty is the best time to learn a language; proposed by Penfield and Roberts, and refined by Lenneberg.
Individual Learner Differences (ILD)	In the theory of SLA, individual differences factors are said to have influences on the success of one's second language acquisition. The factors are, for example, age, motivation, aptitude, attitude, and gender.
Language Acquisition (LA)	The process of acquiring a second language; this term refers to naturalistic language learning.
Language Interference	Factors from L1 (mother tongue) that negatively influences the process of acquiring and learning a second language.
Language Learning (LL)	The process of developing the ability to communicate using target language.
Language Transfer	The replication of linguistic features from the L1 to the L2
Motivation	A desire to initiate and maintain goal-oriented behavior in learning a second language
Nativelikesness	The quality of speaking or using a second language perfectly just like a native speaker
Second Language (L2)	A language learned by a person after his or her first native language
World Englishes	A term that refers to the differences in the English language used throughout the world

CHAPTER 7
**BELIEFS OF MUSIC TEACHERS' SELF-
EFFICIENCY IN THE DISTANCE LEARNING
PROCESS**

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INTRODUCTION

Distance learning has become a necessity for educational institutions due to the global pandemic crisis. Music teachers, like other fields, have started to carry out their activities with this model. Music teachers, like other fields, have started to carry out their activities with this model. In this new situation, how do music teachers evaluate their professional competence? In this study, beliefs of music teachers' self-efficacy in the distance learning process were questioned.

Bandura defines self-efficacy as the belief that one has sufficient skills to do a job (Kurbanoglu, 2004). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs make great efforts to achieve success, do not give up easily in unfavorable situations, are persistent and patient (Aşkar & Umay, 2001). The formation of self-efficacy beliefs can positively affect the behaviors of individuals, their perspectives on events, their goals, and most importantly, their success (Çolak, Yorulmaz, & Altinkurt, 2017). For this reason, it can be said that self-efficacy belief is an important phenomenon for teaching and learning.

Bandura (1993) states that students with low self-efficacy are particularly vulnerable to achievement anxiety. On the other hand, the key feature in the formation of self-confident teachers in their field is seen as self-efficacy (Ekici, 2008).

Since the emergence of the concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), it has received great attention in the field of education (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). In parallel, many studies have been conducted on self-efficacy in the field of music.

Biasutti and Concina (2018) conducted a study to determine the predictors of music teachers' self-efficacy. The research was carried out with a quantitative approach as well as a questionnaire was applied to 160 music teachers. As a result of the research, beliefs about musical talent, social skills related to expressing negative emotions, professional seniority, and gender were found to be predictors of self-efficacy.

West and Frey-Clark, (2019) examined the self-efficacy of music teachers who started their profession in traditional and alternative ways. The study group consisted of 143 music teachers. In the research, it was found that the self-efficacy of the music teachers who started their profession with the traditional or alternative way was at a similar level. In addition, it has been determined that professional seniority is an important factor in self-efficacy.

Purpose

This study, it was tried to examine the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers who have been using the distance learning model. Depending on the purpose of the research, answers to the following questions were sought:

- What are the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers?
- Do music students' self-efficacy beliefs differ according to their professional seniority, gender, and the type of school they work in?

METHOD

Survey model was used in the conduct of this research. The survey model is “the research conducted on relatively larger samples compared to other studies, in which the opinions of the participants about a subject or event or their characteristics such as interests, skills, abilities, and attitudes are determined” (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel 2016, p. 177).

Participants

The study group of this research consists of music teachers in Ankara/Çankaya. It is aimed to reach all music teachers working in Çankaya in the 2020-2021 academic year (Meb, 2020). Information about the study group reached is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Study Group

	Group	f	%
Professional seniority	0-5	12	28.5
	6-10	17	40.5
	11-20	13	31.0
Gender	Female	31	73.8
	Male	11	26.2
School Type	Public	26	61.9
	Private	16	38.1
Total		42	100

Table 1 gives information about 42 music teachers who gave positive answers and formed the study group. The highest level of participation among the groups was among those with 6-10 professional seniority (40.5%), female (73.8%), and those working in public schools (61.9%).

Data Collection

The Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Çolak, Yorulmaz, and Altinkurt, (2017) was used as a data collection tool in the research. The scale consists of 4 factors and 27 items. The factors are Academic Self-efficacy (5 items), Professional Self-efficacy (7 items), Social Self-efficacy (8 items), Intellectual Self-efficacy (7 items). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale is 0.93.

Items of the Teacher Self-Efficacy Belief Scale are scored in the range of Disagree (1), Agree (5). There is no reverse-scored item on the scale. The increase in the scores obtained from each factor or the whole scale indicates that the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs towards that factor increase. The scale was transferred to Google forms and delivered to the study group online.

Analysis of Data

Statistical analyzes used in the research were made with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 21 package program. The results of the normality test performed to decide which types of analyzes to be performed are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Normality Test Results

Factor	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	Shapiro-Wilk
1	.001	.001
2	.000	.000
3	.001	.001
4	.020	.031
General	.147	.056

Normality test results are given in Table 2. According to the test results, a normal distribution was achieved across the scale. For this reason, parametric tests were used in the analysis of the overall scale. The t-test was used for independent samples in the variables of gender and school type. One-way ANOVA test was used in the variable of professional seniority. There was no normal distribution in the factor dimension. Therefore, Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests, which are non-parametric, were used for the analyzes in the factor dimension. The effect sizes of the differences obtained in the analyzes were also calculated.

FINDINGS

The first sub-problem of the research is as follows: What are the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers? The test scores of the data collected from 42 music teachers are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Test Scores

Group	n	\bar{x}
0-5	12	3.57
6-10	17	4.07
11-20	13	4.48
Female	31	4.05
Male	11	4.05
Public	26	3.99
Private	16	4.16
General	42	4.05

As seen in Table 3, the arithmetic mean of music teachers' self-efficacy beliefs was calculated as 4.05. According to this result, it can be said that music teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are at a high level.

The highest score was observed in the group of teachers with high professional seniority. Results were similar in gender and school type variables. The group with the lowest score was seen in teachers who were just starting the profession.

When the factor averages were examined, it was seen that academic self-efficacy was 4.12, professional self-efficacy was 4.25, social self-efficacy was 4.22, and intellectual self-efficacy was 3.57.

The second sub-problem of the research is as follows: Do music students' self-efficacy beliefs differ according to their professional seniority, gender, and the type of school they work in?

The independent sample t-test results for the gender variable are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Gender Variable t-test Results

	Gender	N	\bar{x}	df	t	p
General	Female	31	4.059	40	.34	.97
	Male	11	4.053			

As shown in Table 4, there is no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy beliefs of female and male teachers ($p > 0.05$).

Mann-Whitney U test results based on factors are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Mann-Whitney U Test Results by Factors

Factor	Group	N	Mean Rank	p
Academic Self-efficacy	Female	31	20.10	.20
	Male	11	20.45	
Professional Self-efficacy	Female	31	21.10	.71
	Male	11	22.64	
Social Self-efficacy	Female	31	22.81	.24
	Male	11	17.82	
Intellectual Self-efficacy	Female	31	22.18	.56
	Male	11	19.59	

It can be seen from the data in Table 5 that no statistically significant difference was found for the gender variable based on factors ($p>0.05$).

The independent sample t-test results for the type of school variable are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Type of School Variable t-test Results

	Type of School	N	\bar{x}	df	t	p
General	Public	26	3.99	40	1.01	.28
	Private	16	4.16			

As seen in Table 6, there is no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy beliefs of public and private school teachers ($p>0.05$).

Mann-Whitney U test results based on factors are given in Table 7.

Table 7. Mann-Whitney U Test Results by Factors

Factor	Group	N	Mean Rank	p
Academic Self-Efficacy	Public	26	21.25	.86
	Private	16	21.91	
Professional Self-Efficacy	Public	26	20.79	.62
	Private	16	22.66	
Social Self-Efficacy	Public	26	18.79	.06
	Private	16	25.91	
Intellectual Self-Efficacy	Public	26	20.94	.70
	Private	16	22.41	

From the table above we can see, no statistically significant difference was found for the type of school variable based on factors ($p>0.05$).

One-Way ANOVA test results for the professional seniority variable are given in Table 8.

Table 8. Professional Seniority Variable One-Way ANOVA Results

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	5.17	2	2.58		
Within Groups	4.57	39	.11	22.06	.000
Total	9.75	41			

As it can be seen from Table 8, the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers differ according to their professional seniority ($p<0.05$).

Table 9. Tukey's HSD Test Results

		Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-5	6-10	,12915	,001	-,8147	-,1853
	11-20	,13713	,000	-1,2443	-,5762
6-10	0-5	,12915	,001	,1853	,8147
	11-20	,12620	,007	-,7177	-,1028
11-20	0-5	,13713	,000	,5762	1,2443
	6-10	,12620	,007	,1028	,7177

As seen in Table 9, Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons found that it differed significantly between all groups ($p<0.05$). The Kruskal Wallis test result, which was conducted to examine the effect of the professional seniority variable on the factors, is given in Table 10.

Table 10. Kruskal Wallis Test Results

	f1ort	f2ort	f3ort	f4ort
Chi-Square	16,137	13,853	14,535	24,363
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	,000	,001	,001	,000

From the graph above can be seen that music teachers' self-efficacy beliefs differ in each factor according to their professional seniority. ($p < 0.05$).

The Games-Howell post hoc test was used to determine between which groups the detected difference was. A significant difference was found in academic and professional self-efficacy factors in favor of teachers with 6-10 and 11-20 years of seniority, and in social and intellectual self-efficacy factors in favor of teachers with only 11-20 years of seniority.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers who have been using the distance learning model were examined. A survey model was used in the study and the Teacher Self-Efficacy Belief scale was used as a data collection tool. Forty-two music teachers working in Ankara Cankaya formed the study group of the research. The survey was administered online. The data collection process took place in April and May 2021.

In the first sub-problem of the research, the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers were questioned. In the examination, the arithmetic mean of self-efficacy beliefs was measured as 4.05. The highest score was observed in teachers with 11-20 years of professional seniority ($\bar{x}=4.48$), and the lowest score was observed in teachers with 0-5 years of professional seniority ($\bar{x}=3.57$). According to this result, it can be said that the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers are high.

Looking at the factor averages, teachers believe most in their professional self-efficacy ($\bar{x}=4.25$) and least believe in their intellectual self-efficacy ($\bar{x}=3.61$).

In the second sub-problem of the study, it was questioned whether the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers changed according to their gender, school type, and professional seniority. In the examination, it was determined that the variables of gender and school type did not affect the self-efficacy beliefs of music teachers. This result was the same for all factors.

When the variable of professional seniority was examined, a statistically significant difference was found. As the professional seniority of music teachers increases, their self-efficacy beliefs also increase.

In terms of academic self-efficacy and professional self-efficacy beliefs, the scores of teachers working for 6-10 and 11-20 years were similar. The scores of the teachers who have been working for six or more years were found to be statistically significant and higher than the teachers working for 0-5 years.

Considering the social self-efficacy and intellectual self-efficacy, the scores of the teachers who have been working for eleven or more years were found to be higher than the other teachers.

This study showed that music teachers who had to use the distance learning model perceived themselves as highly competent in academic, professional, social, and intellectual self-efficacy.

Suggestions for future research;

- Working with larger teachers groups
- Comparison of self-efficacy beliefs with other teacher groups
- Conducting qualitative research on intellectual self-efficacy
- The effect of the graduated university on self-efficacy

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CHAPTER 8
MUSIC STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS
E-LEARNING

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INTRODUCTION

With the advances in information and communication technologies, the daily life of human beings is changing very rapidly. Access to information is faster and easier than at any other time in history. Technological advances affecting every aspect of daily life also cause significant changes in the field of education.

Distance learning, which provides out-of-class learning opportunities, started to be called electronic learning (e-learning) with the inclusion of computer and communication technologies. For many years, scientific studies on the use of the e-learning model with various methods and scenarios have been put forward. Studies conducted over 40 years show that the e-learning model is very beneficial in many ways. With the e-learning model, time and place restrictions are eliminated and learning needs can be answered at any time. E-learning contributes positively to the academic success and motivation of learners (Harandi, 2015; Mothibi, 2015). Despite this situation, it can be said that there are disagreements among educators about how the transition from the traditional classroom model to the e-learning model will take place or whether such a transformation is really needed. For this reason, e-learning has not completely replaced the traditional classroom model. Instead of a sharp transformation, hybrid models such as blended learning, flipped classroom, etc. came to the fore.

With the emergence of the global Covid-19 pandemic in 2020, e-learning has necessarily become the main agenda item of the education system. Many countries have switched to the e-learning model to prevent the spread of the pandemic. Education began to be carried out with the e-learning model at every level and in every field. In Turkey, the transition to the e-learning system was made in a short time at all levels in March 2020. Thus, the opportunity to collect and analyze data about the appearance of full-scale e-learning use in practice emerged.

The individual's reaction to any object, event, or situation based on their experiences is called attitude (İnceoğlu, 2010). In this context, the subject of this study is to examine the attitudes of music department students who have started to carry out their education entirely with e-learning.

Purpose

In this study, the attitudes of undergraduate music students towards e-learning were tried to be examined. Depending on the purpose of the research, answers to the following questions were sought:

- What are the attitudes of music students towards e-learning?
- Do music students' attitudes towards e-learning differ according to their gender, grade level, and musical instrument types?

Significance

This study was conducted with students who continue their university education with compulsory e-learning. All of the students in the study group used the e-learning model. This experience took place on a full-time and compulsory basis, without factors such as students' wishes or tendencies. Therefore; It can be said that this study is important because it is one of the pioneering studies in which the e-learning model is used in the field of music without restrictions such as preference or tendency.

METHOD

Survey model was used in the conduct of this research. The survey model is “the research conducted on relatively larger samples compared to other studies, in which the opinions of the participants about a subject or event or their characteristics such as interests, skills, abilities, and attitudes are determined” (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel 2016, p. 177).

Participants

The study group of this research consists of undergraduate students of Gazi University Music Education Department, Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University Turkish Music State Conservatory, and Hacettepe University State Conservatory in the 2019-2020 academic year. The accessibility factor was taken into account for the selection of the study group. For this reason, music department students are limited to Ankara. The oldest universities providing education in different

musical fields in Ankara were included in the study. It is aimed to reach all registered students (YÖK, 2020). Information on the number of students that can be reached according to the targeted study group is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of Students Reached

University	Department	Registered students	Reached students	%
Gazi	Music Education	232	91	39.2
Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli	Turkish Music State Conservatory	149	39	26.2
Hacettepe	State Conservatory	189	66	34.9
Total		570	196	34.4

As seen in Table 1, 34.4% of the students enrolled in the music departments of the selected universities in the 2019-2020 academic year were reached.

Table 2. Study Group

	Group	f	%
University	Gazi University	91	46.4
	Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University	39	19.9
	Hacettepe University	66	33.7
Gender	Female	125	63.8
	Male	71	36.2
Grade	1	74	37.8
	2	61	31.1
	3	38	19.4
	4	23	11.7
Musical Instrument	Western Music	136	69.4
	Turkish Music	60	30.6
Total		196	100

In Table 2, information about 196 music students who could be reached and who made up the study group by giving a positive answer and participating in the study are given. The highest level of participation was observed in the students of the music education

department, the lowest level of participation was observed in the students who received Turkish music education.

Data Collection

The Attitude Scale towards E-learning developed by Haznedar and Baran (2012) was used to solve the sub-problems determined in the research. The scale applied after obtaining the necessary permissions consists of 2 factors and 20 items. The scale was developed with 567 participants and its reliability coefficient is 0.92. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha was calculated as .93. The expressions in the scale, which was created as a 5-point Likert type, were changed in this study. The grading used in the scale was formed as “Strongly Disagree = 1”, “Disagree = 2”, “Undecided = 3”, “Agree = 4”, “Strongly Agree = 5”. The scale was transferred to Google forms and delivered to the study group online. Research data were collected in March 2020.

Analysis of Data

Statistical analyzes used in the research were made with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 21 package program. Normality test was performed to decide which type of analysis to be performed. In the control, it was determined that normality was not achieved both in the dimension of the variables and throughout the scale. For this reason, the Mann Whitney U test for gender and musical instrument type variables; Kruskal Wallis test were applied for the grade variable. Statements containing negative emotion components were reverse coded and analyzes were carried out. The effect sizes of the differences obtained in the analyzes were also

calculated. The arithmetic means obtained from the test were interpreted according to the array width of 0.80.

FINDINGS

The first sub-problem of the research is as follows: What are the attitudes of music students towards e-learning? The test scores of the data collected from 196 students are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Test Scores

	n	\bar{x}
Gazi University	91	3.78
Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University	39	3.16
Hacettepe University	66	3.72
Total	196	3.64

As seen in Table 3, the arithmetic mean of music students' attitude scores towards e-learning was calculated as 3.64. The result obtained is at the level of "agree" in the rating scale. According to this result, it can be said that students' attitudes towards e-learning are at a good level.

At the level of universities, the attitude scores of the students of the Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University Turkish Music State Conservatory were measured as "undecided", that is, at the intermediate level. The student scores of the other two universities are good.

The second sub-problem of the research is as follows: Do music students' attitudes towards e-learning differ according to their gender, grade level, and musical instrument types?

Table 4. Mann Whitney U Test Results

Variable	Group	n	\bar{x}	S	p
Gender	Female	125	3.57	.62	.02
	Male	71	3.75	.79	
Musical Instrument Types	Turkish Music	60	3.39	.80	.00
	Western Music	136	3.75	.61	

In Table 4, the results of the Mann Whitney U Test conducted to determine whether music students' attitudes towards e-learning change according to their gender and musical instrument types are given.

When the gender variable is examined; It was determined that the test scores of male students ($\bar{x}=3.75$) differed significantly compared to the test scores of female students ($\bar{x}=3.57$) ($p<0.05$). The calculated effect size ($r=0.15$) shows that this difference is low.

When the musical instrument type variable is examined; It was determined that the test scores of the students who played the Western Music instrument ($\bar{x}=3.75$) differed significantly according to the test scores ($\bar{x}=3.39$) of the students who played the Turkish Music instrument ($p<0.05$). The calculated effect size ($r=0.18$) shows that this difference is low.

The effect of music students' grade levels on their attitudes towards e-learning was examined with the Kruskal Wallis test.

Table 5. Kruskal Wallis Test Results

	Group	n	\bar{x}	Mean Rank	df	X ²	p
Grade	1	74	3.61	98,39	3	1,55	,67
	2	61	3.58	93,11			
	3	38	3.78	107,70			
	4	23	3.64	97,96			

When Table 5 is examined, it has been determined that music students' attitudes towards e-learning do not differ significantly according to their grade levels ($p>0.05$).

CONCLUSION

In this study, the attitudes of undergraduate music students towards e-learning were examined. E-learning has become an important element for learners at all levels, especially with the covid-19 pandemic. In many countries, face-to-face education was suspended and education continued in e-learning environments. Since March 2020 in Turkey, educations in universities have been carried out with the e-learning method. This study was conducted according to data collected in March 2020, when students started to use e-learning environments officially.

According to the scale scores obtained as a result of the research, students' attitudes towards e-learning are at a good level. Music undergraduate students responded positively to e-learning education programs. It can be said that the first reaction of music students, whose aural and performance curriculum is intense, to the conduct of music lessons with e-learning environments is high.

It was determined that the attitudes of the students who received Turkish music education were lower than the other students ($\bar{x}=3.16$). There are lessons related to Turkish music within the music education program. Despite this situation, the attitude scores of the music education students ($\bar{x}=3.78$) were measured to be slightly higher than the scores of the students receiving western music education ($\bar{x}=3.72$).

In this case, the lower attitudes of Turkish music students towards e-learning cannot be explained solely by the type of music education they receive. The fact that the number of Turkish music students was less than other groups may have caused this situation. Factors affecting students' attitude scores; e-learning environments used, tutorial approaches, readiness levels can be examined in new studies from different perspectives.

In the analysis made by gender of music students, it was concluded that male students had higher attitudes towards e-learning than female students. When we look at the literature, there are studies in which the technology use levels of men are higher (Liaw & Huang, 2011). On the other hand, some studies on current music technologies have found results in favor of women (Demirtaş, 2021). Today, it is emphasized that the effect of the gender variable on technology use has decreased (Rhema & Miliszewska, 2014). In this study, it was concluded that males have higher attitudes towards e-learning. With this result, the scores of the women were also calculated at a good level. The calculated effect size also shows that the difference is quite low.

In the examination made according to the musical instrument type; It was concluded that students who play a western music instrument have higher attitudes towards e-learning than students who play a Turkish music instrument. When different e-learning environments such as music-related software, mobile applications, and videos are examined, it is seen that the ones prepared according to western music

standards are more. For this reason, it can be assumed that students who play western music instruments may have higher levels of readiness for e-learning environments.

In the analysis made according to the grade level variable, it was concluded that the grade level of education did not affect the attitudes towards e-learning. Similarly, there are studies in which grade level and age factors do not affect on attitudes towards e-learning (Akcil & Bastas 2021; Suri & Sharma 2013).

Suggestions for future research;

- Working with larger student groups
- Conducting studies on groups using the e-learning model for a long time
- Analysis of readiness levels of students studying Turkish music and western music
- Conducting studies on groups of different ages and education levels.

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CHAPTER 9

**THE UTILITY OF QR CODES AMIDST THE PANDEMIC
(CORONA VIRUS, COVID -19) IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHING**

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While Starting

This study explores the utility of QR codes amidst the pandemic (Covid -19) in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). The background and emergence of QR codes are included in the paper so that readers can contextualize the study. The spread of Corona virus has affected every field of life including education. The virus started from China in December, 2019 and was declared as a global pandemic on 11 March, 2020 by the WHO ² (World Health Organization). To curb the the spread of Covid-19 , many precautionary measures such as maitaining social distance, avoding touch of the surface and wearing masks etc. are recommended. The use of QR codes has been increased during the pandemic. It is being used in business , education, tourism industry, health sector, entertainment and many more during the pandemic. This paper investigates how QR codes could be integrated and utilized effectively in English Language Teaching (ELT) during the pandemic to implement the saftey measures to control the spread of Covid-19. Some sample exercises and activities of teaching English using QR codes are part of the study. A survey is also conducted to get the feedback of English language teachers about the scope, utility and integration of QR codes in ELT. Some suggestions and recommendations are made in the light of the results of the survey.

² (n.d.). Retrieved from WHO coronavirus disease (COVID-19) dashboard. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2020. Available online: <https://covid19.who.int/> (last cited: [05-07-2020]).

The integration of QR codes in ELT grabs the attention of technology enthusiastic learners. It makes the access of information very easy, safe and fast during the pandemic.

INTRODUCTION

QR codes stand for ‘quick response codes’. They are two-dimensional barcodes which are used to accumulate and store information to be accessed quickly. They could be linked to variety of things such as websites, online videos, audio files, images, documents, text messages, and contact details including email accounts, phone number etc. QR codes can be used in English Language Teaching during the pandemic (Covid 19) in order to stay safe and provide access to the students to many learning resources and activities. QR codes could be used effectively in English language teaching and learning either face to face or online. The purpose of this study is to present the ways how QR codes can be integrated in English Language teaching during the pandemic for the safety of the faculty and the pupils and create a general awareness among English language teacher about its use in English Language Teaching.

THE REEMERGENCE OF QR CODES TECHNOLOGY AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DURING THE PANDEMIC

QR codes (Quick Response Codes) is not a new technology. It was first introduced by a Japanese auto company, Toyota in 1994 to track the manufacturing process of the vehicles and auto parts (Abeywardena, 2017; Kossey, Berger & Brown, 2015). Later, it was

commercialized in 2011 by telecommunication companies, and many industries which started using the QR Codes for the benefits it offers.

Smart phones became the huge supporters for the QR code commercial use (Barcode to 2D 2010). They made the use of QR codes in marketing easy, smooth and accessible to all.

The innovative teachers started integrating it in teaching for better involvement of students in learning process but limited research on educational use of QR codes is done (Chapple, Weir, & San Martin, 2017). Furthermore, there are fewer studies done on the use of QR codes in the field of English Language Teaching (Thorne, 2016).

In the current situation, when the world is adopting every possible measure to curb the spread of Covid-19, the QR codes technology has gained popularity due to its utility and efficiency. Earlier, the use of QR codes was limited to marketing and personal use, but during the pandemic - Covid 19, QR codes are being used intensively in different fields other than marketing.

This technology could be used as an aid to grab and hold the attention of the learners in a safe and secure environment during the pandemic either in face to face or online learning. The integration of QR codes in English Language Teaching will not only make the lectures more interesting, effective and well-planned, but also it is safe due to least physical touch involved in it.

Bakla A. (2018) has presented some practical uses of QR codes in teaching English language skills. He also stressed that the use of QR

codes in teaching English could be as limited as the creativity of the teachers who use them in the class.

Dourda, K., Bratitsis, T., Griva, E., & Papadopoulou, P. (2014) offers an educational strategy proposal combining two teaching approaches namely Game-based Learning (GBL) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). QR codes technology was used in the strategy to teach primary school learners English.

Learners like to use smart devices as a quick and comfortable source of information and entertainment. The growing passion for using smart phones for everything could be manipulated for teaching English as a second or foreign language through variety of activities. Introducing the practice of QR codes in ELT can help in creating a dynamic and innovative learning atmosphere in the EFL classroom where learners can make use of their smart devices.

Jeon, Y. (2015) advocates in his study that the use of QR codes in teaching English can make English class more interesting and motivating.

QR codes can be utilized in preparing number of activities according to the nature and requirement of different language skills. QR codes can be incorporated effectively in activities based on vocabulary skills, writing assignments, speaking tasks, grammar, listening tracks, reading comprehension and picture description etc. It depends upon the creativity and skill of the instructor in preparing and planning a lecture. Incorporating QR codes in ELT also leads learners to inculcate 21st century learning skills (The University of Houston).

When they operate their smart devices for learning English, they practice digital literacy automatically. In case if the smart devices are not working properly for some of the students, they try to fix the problem with the help of their instructor and peers. Consequently, they will learn how to communicate effectively, solve a problem and collaborate with one another to be a successful learner. There is always a scope of innovation and creativity when technology is used in learning and teaching process.

INTEGRATION OF QR CODES IN TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

Writing is the most advanced stage and skill of learning a language. Sometimes, it seems to the learners the most challenging skill because they have to work on vocabulary, grammar, content, coherence and organization of the ideas simultaneously. Many students feel bored practicing writing skills. In this scenario, designing writing tasks with the help of QR codes may prove significantly a life saver for the ESL instructor to grab the attention of the learners. It will ultimately lead to develop the interest of the learners in the writing skill. Scanning the QR code in Figure 1 will connect to a URL where a sample writing assignment with the supporting material is provided. Students can explore the material themselves. This material helps them to complete their writing tasks smoothly and efficiently.



Figure 1. A Sample of QR Codes Writing Assignment

Speaking is another challenging productive skill which involves vocabulary, accent, pronunciation, fluency, interaction, and confidence. Integrating writing and speaking skills through QR codes could be a rewarding activity. Learners will get a chance to use new vocabulary while writing and speaking. This will enable them to build up their vocabulary. Such activities will also boost their confidence in learning a language. Scanning QR code in figure 2 will give them a topic for speaking activity.



Figure 2. QR Codes Speaking Activity

QR codes can also be linked with audio tracks. Scanning QR code given in figure 3 enables learners to access audio tracks in seconds. They can open and play audio tracks on their smart phones. This will ease the access to the listening tracks and they will enjoy learning process more.



Figure 3. Audio Tracks

FEEDBACK GIVEN BY TEACHERS ABOUT THE USE OF QR CODES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DURING THE PANDEMIC

The opinion of the teachers who used QR codes is also part of this survey. Twenty five university instructors responded on a likert scale about the role of QR codes in ELT during the pandemic.

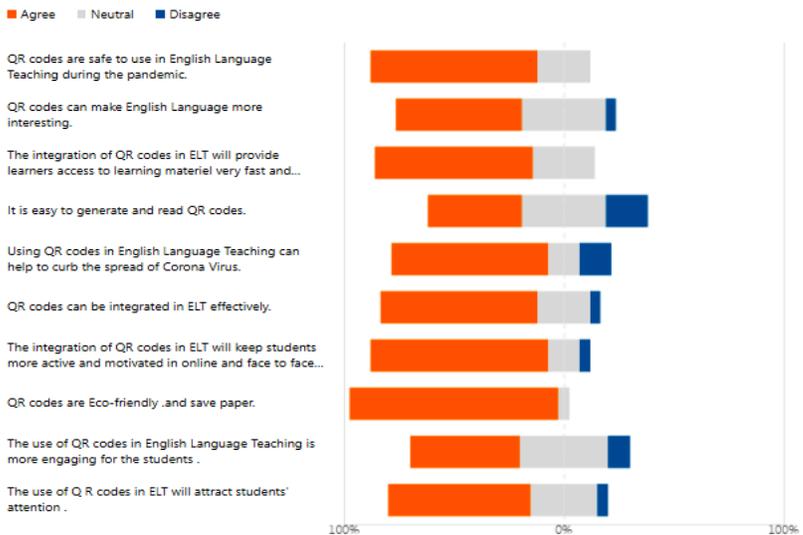


Figure 5. The Role of QR Codes in ELT during the Pandemic, Covid -19

The respondents of the survey have given their feedback about the safety and integration of QR codes in ELT during the pandemic. An open ended question about the utility, scope and integration of QR codes in ELT is also part of the survey. Some teachers suggested that QR codes can be used in ELT even after the pandemic due to the benefits which they offer. QR codes will make students more technology friendly and confident to integrate in learning English. One respondent says that using technology like QR codes in ELT will help to develop adaptability of the current situation among learners because pandemic is still around and in some countries there is fresh wave of infected cases. Another ELT instructor is of the view that QR codes technology facilitates the learning and teaching process and helps giving extra assignments in a safe and secure way that guarantees no transmission of infection.

The result of this survey is of great importance. It highlights the significance of QR codes in ELT during the pandemic. QR codes can provide access to many learning resources in ELT during and post pandemic scenario in a safe manner. Moreover, it is very easy to generate as many QR code as an instructor wants. They are free and also eco-friendly. They can save from printing papers for many things.

GENERATING AND DECODING QR CODES

Many websites and mobile applications generate variety of QR codes. These codes can be downloaded and shared with the students via available channels or Learning Management Systems (LMS). Students need to install a QR Reader to decode the linguistic task in the

activity. The latest smart devices have built in QR codes scanners or QR readers.



Figure 4. QR Code Generator

The website in the above QR code can generate any number of QR codes. Moreover, it is free. There are also other plenty of applications available on Android and IOS stores which create QR codes free of cost.

I-nigma is a high speed and efficient QR code reader. Students can download it in their smart devices to decode the assignment questions. In this way, they can make effective use their smart phones while learning English. It would also be a novel experience for them to use QR codes for learning a language.

CONCLUSION

English language teaching and learning has evolved due to Covid 19. The integration of QR codes in ELT serves multipurpose. On the one hand, it enables learners to use this technology effectively in learning English; on the other hand, it helps to curb the spread of Covid-19 due to least physical touch involved in it. It also provides learners a fast

access to different learning resources. Nothing can replace the power of human brain. Technology is the brain child of human. Hence, the ultimate goal is to integrate technology productively with traditional teaching either face to face or online in EFL classroom during the pandemic where technology enthusiastic learners could be benefited to the maximum. Merging QR codes in ELT is one of the numerous ways to evoke interest in learning a new language. They will not only engage students positively but also enable students to learn 21st century learning skills (The University of Houston) while learning English.

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CHAPTER 10
**PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF THE CORONAVIRUS
DISEASE PANDEMIC ON PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers play the most important role in the development of our society. They are not only responsible for educating children but also shaping the world around us. The coronavirus disease of 2019 (COVID-19) made the role of the teachers more challenging and had put more stress in their lives as they not only thought of the educating children, but the safety of the students and their families as well. Teachers are going through a particularly uncertain time in terms of their professional lives and work. Rapid moves to online delivery methods to keep students engaged in learning –from early childhood to year 8 –have led to significantly increased workloads for teachers working not only to move teaching content and materials into online space, but also to become sufficiently adept at navigating the required software. The impact on teachers and students is uneven–in some contexts, for example, many students not having internet connectivity and not having access to online teaching that made the job challenging and required lots of patience as the expectation from the ministry of education and the parents were high.

In many schools, moving to online space presents considerable difficulties as teachers struggle to adapt to what might well be a "new normal" for quite some time as COVID-19 has forced many countries around the globe to adopt early quarantine steps as a main disease control mechanism so schools around the country are closed (Rubin, Wessely,2020). Apart from physical suffering, the outcomes of this quarantine on mental health and well-being at both the personal and

population levels are manifold. Driven mass quarantine used by national lockout systems may cause mass hysteria, anxiety, and distress due to factors such as feeling cornered and losing control. This can be stepped up where households need to be divided, due to the uncertainty of disease progression, inadequate supplies of basic essentials, financial losses, increased risk levels, which are typically magnified by vague information and inappropriate media communication in the early phase of the pandemic (Maunder, Hunter, Vincent, Bennett, Peladeau, Leszcz.2003). Past outbreaks have recorded that the psychological impact of quarantine can vary from immediate effects, such as irritability, fear of contracting and transmitting infection to family members, indignation, confusion, frustration, isolation, rejection, anxiety, depression, insomnia, despair, to extreme consequences, including suicide (Jeong, Yim, Song, Ki, Min, Cho, Chae, 2016). Suspected isolated cases may suffer from anxiety due to health uncertainty and obsessive - compulsive symptoms, such as repeated temperature checks and sterilization (Li, Yang, Liu, Zhao, Zhang, Zhang, 2016). Consequences such as posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) have been reported, with symptoms positively associated with quarantine duration (Reynolds, Garay, Deamond, Moran, Gold, Styra, 2008). Post-quarantine psychological effects may include significant socio - economic deprivation and psychological symptoms due to financial setbacks (Brooks, Webster, Smith, Woods, Wessely, Greenberg, 2020). Another very important aspect is stigmatization and community disapproval of the quarantine cordon in the form of discrimination,

suspicious and ignored neighborhood, property poverty, occupational bias, and withdrawal from social activities even after epidemics have been controlled (Brooks, Webster, Smith, Forest, Wessely, Greenberg, 2020). HCPs are therefore expected to be more stigmatized than the general population for being quarantined and gradually psychologically disturbed. Children who are (or suspected to be) infected with COVID-19 and need isolation or quarantine may require special attention to respond to their fear, anxiety and other psychological effects (Liu, Bao, Huang, Shi, Lu 2020).

Fiji confirmed the first case at the mid of March, Immediately the travel was banned and further imposed on the United States, Europe, and United Kingdom. The government has passed a rule that all travelers arriving in or returning to Fiji from outside the country must be self-isolated for 14 days. On 20 March, all schools and non-essential businesses in Lautoka were closed at midnight, as the first case of the lockdown of the city had links to that city. Some other nationals who traveled from India found positive. The government has taken firm measures, putting the lives and well-being of its citizens above the economy. While the country was hit by the pandemic and was in good control the government had closed all schools to see that the children are safe as schools can become easy place for transmission of the disease. Teachers were expected to go to schools during the lockdown and prepare worksheets which were to be picked up by parents. (pacific news June 2020). Teachers were prone to come under coronavirus anxiety, and obsession as anyone can be having the disease whom they encounter with other persons. Teachers knew that

when the schools reopen the syllabus was to be completed. Experience teachers know that children would return after 3 months and most of the things taught would have to be revised.

METHOD

The research style followed in this study was a systematic survey method. Studies have been conducted with primary physical education and sports teachers.

Participants

The total sample consists of 375 primary physical education and sports teachers of Fiji voluntarily took part in the survey. This sample consisted of 208 males and 162 females with age ranging from 20 to 55 years, 71 teachers were single, and 299 teachers were married, twenty teachers lived alone, 101 lived with parents 174 lived with spouse and 75 teachers had a joint extended family. There were 335 who were Indo-Fijians (Indians of Fijian decent) and 35 I-taukai (Natives of Fiji). Moreover, 63 teachers lived in rural areas, and 248 in urban and 59 in semi urban.

Tools

An online google form was prepared to collect data. This form consists number of questionnaires. The adopted questionnaires encompass many facets of the socio-demographic details of the participants, including gender, age, marital status, ethnicity and lifestyle.

The coronavirus anxiety scale (CAS) is a self-report mental health screener of dysfunctional anxiety associated with the coronavirus crisis. Because a significant number of people experience clinically significant fear and anxiety during an infectious disease outbreak, the CAS was developed to help clinicians and researchers efficiently identify cases of individuals functionally impaired by coronavirus-related anxiety. Each item of the CAS is rated on a 5-point scale, from 0 (not at all) to 4 (nearly every day), based on experiences over the past two weeks. A CAS total score ≥ 9 indicates probable dysfunctional coronavirus-related anxiety. Elevated scores on a particular item or a high total scale score (≥ 9) may indicate problematic symptoms for the individual that might warrant further assessment and/or treatment.

The Obsession with COVID-19 Scale (OCS) is a self-report mental health screener of persistent and disturbed thinking about COVID-19. The OCS was developed on two large samples of adults ($n = 775$; $n = 398$) residing across the United States. The OCS is a reliable instrument ($\alpha > .83$), with solid factorial (single factor) and construct (correlated with coronavirus anxiety, spiritual crisis, alcohol/drug coping, extreme hopelessness, and suicidal ideation) validity. Each item of the OCS is rated on a 5-point scale, from 0 (not at all) to 4 (nearly every day), based on experiences over the past two weeks. This scaling format is consistent with the DSM-5's cross-cutting symptom measure. An OCS total score ≥ 7 indicates probable dysfunctional thinking about COVID-19. Elevated scores on a particular item or a high total scale score (≥ 7) may indicate

problematic symptoms for the individual that might warrant further assessment and/or treatment.

Procedure

Google form link was sent to teachers using the social media platform such as WhatsApp, Viber, Facebook messenger and email. As they open the link, first of all they give their voluntary consent for this study. if they agree than they followed by other demographic details, which measured several variables, including experience, gender, family type, ethnicity, age, marital status, the coronavirus anxiety scale, and the Obsession with COVID-19 Scale questionnaires.

Statistical Techniques

Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS for windows, version-21 (IBM Crop. USA). The data has usually been circulated. Descriptive analyzes were conducted for socio-demographic characteristics. The analysis of the variance test was extended to the differences between different types of psychological parameters. The significance level was set at 0.05 level

RESULTS

Table-1 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their gender for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameters	Males(N=208) Mean ± SD	Females(N=162) Mean ± SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	2.90 ± 3.72	2.91 ± 3.39	.001	0.979
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	3.48 ± 3.19	3.40 ± 2.89	.061	0.804

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale between males and females, the results indicated in table-1. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale between males and female's findings showed that there was insignificant difference (F= .001 and .061, Sig, = .979 and .804) for males and females respectively. The means scores of psychological parameters as coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear almost same for males and females' participants.

Table-2 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their age categories coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameters	Age (18-25) Mean ± SD	Age (26-35) Mean ± SD	Age (36-45) Mean ± SD	Age (46-55) Mean ± SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	3.20 ± 3.27	2.70 ± 3.22	3.40 ± 4.0	2.48 ± 3.58	1.35	0.258
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	3.84 ± 2.85	3.29 ± 2.93	3.70 ± 3.38	3.25 ± 2.67	0.627	0.598

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale among different age categories, the results indicated in table-2. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale among different age categories findings showed that there were insignificant differences ($F= 1.35$ and $.627$, $Sig. = .258$ and $.598$) respectively. The means scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear almost same for different age categories.

Table-3 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their marital status coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameters	Single(N=71) Mean \pm SD	Married(N=299) Mean \pm SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	2.69 \pm 3.2	2.96 \pm 3.66	0.326	0.568
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	2.61 \pm 2.30	3.65 \pm 3.18	6.740	0.010

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale as per their marital status of participants, the finding showed in table-3. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale between single and married participants, the results indicated that there was an insignificant difference ($F= .326$, $Sig. = .568$) for coronavirus anxiety scale. Whereas there was a significant difference also exist for obsession with COVID-19 scale ($F= 6.74$, $Sig.= .010$) respectively for single and married participants. The means scores of coronavirus anxiety scale appear almost same, while the obsession

with COVID-19 scale has varied means scores for single and married participants.

Table-4 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their living style for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameters	Alone (N=20) Mean ± SD	With Parents (N=101) Mean ± SD	With Spouse (N=174) Mean ± SD	Joint Family (N=75) Mean ± SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	2.20 ± 3.12	2.90 ± 3.55	3.31 ± 3.86	2.16 ± 2.89	2.130	0.096
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	2.75 ± 3.02	2.68 ± 2.54	4.17 ± 3.41	2.97 ± 2.43	6.600	0.000

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale as per their living style, the finding showed in table-4. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale among participants, the results indicated that there was an insignificant difference (F= 2.130, Sig. = .096) for coronavirus anxiety scale. Whereas there was a significant difference for obsession with COVID-19 scale (F=6.600, Sig. =.000 respectively) for their living style categories. The means scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear differently in all living style categories.

Table-5 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their ethnicity area for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameter	Indo-Fijian(N=335) Mean ± SD	Itaukai(N=35) Mean ± SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	2.75 ± 3.43	4.42 ± 4.51	7.104	0.008
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	3.41 ± 3.03	3.71 ± 3.33	0.297	0.586

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale as per their ethnicity group, the result showed in table-5. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale between Indo-Fijian and I-taukai group, the results revealed that there was a significant difference (F= 7.104, Sig. = .008) for coronavirus anxiety scale. Whereas, there was insignificant difference for obsession with COVID-19 scale (F=.297, Sig. = .586,) for their ethnicity group. The means scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear almost same for Indo-Fijian and I-taukai group.

Table-6 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their year of teaching experiences for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychological Parameters	<5 (N=51) Mean ±SD	5-10 (N=106) Mean± SD	11-15 (N=71) Mean ±SD	16-20 (N=38) Mean ±SD	>20 (N=104) Mean ±SD	F	Sig.
Coronavirus Anxiety Scale	2.67±3.31	2.69±3.23	2.52±2.81	2.95±3.84	3.50±4.31	1.080	0.366
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	3.04 ± .79	3.38± 3.07	3.69±3.37	2.92 ± 3.04	3.74 ±2.96	0.872	0.481

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale as per their year of experiences, the results showed in table-6. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale among different categories for their year of experiences, the results revealed that there was insignificant difference ($F= 1.080$ and 0.872 , $Sig. = .366$ and $.481$) for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale respectively. The means scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear differently in all years of experiences categories.

Table-7 The comparison amongst primary physical education teachers as per their living area coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale by ANOVA test

Psychologic al Parameters	Rural (N=63) Mean ± SD	Urban (N=248) Mean ± SD	Sami-urban (N=59) Mean ± S	F	Sig.
Coronavir us Anxiety Scale	3.25 ± 4.24	2.69 ± 3.30	3.44 ± 3.90	1.39 8	0.248
Obsession with COVID-19 Scale	2.85 ± 2.44	3.46 ± 3.17	4.00 ± 3.06	2.15 5	0.117

A comparative analysis has been conducted for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale as per their living area, the finding indicated in table-7. In order to measure coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale among different living areas, the findings exhibited that there were insignificant difference ($F= 1.398$ and 2.155 , $Sig. = .248$ and $.117$) for coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale respectively. The means

scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and obsession with COVID-19 scale appear differently in the living area's groups.

DISCUSSION

Gender determines the unequal power and control of men and women over the socio-economic determinants of their anxiety and obsession, their social position, status and care in society, and their vulnerability and exposure to specific mental health threats. In context of the COVID-19 pandemic, a study was conducted in general population during the outbreak of coronavirus and reported that the people who follow COVID-19 news are more anxious than who don't, women feel more anxious than men (Moghanibash, 2020). A study in China showed that more than a quarter of participants experienced moderate to severe anxiety symptoms, and women suffered from psychological stress and distress, anxiety, and depression (Wang et al.,2020)The coronavirus pandemic is a shock for the country so the amount of anxiety and obsession faced by males and females were almost same as the warning from World Health Origination and the trends which were seen in United States of America and Italy both males and females had similar means for the anxiety and obsession. As in another study, middle aged people reported a stronger anxiety associated with the current COVID-19 pandemic, possibly because this age group is facing greater family and job concerns (Moghanibash 2020). Available data suggest that social disconnectedness puts the older people at a greater risk of depression and anxiety (Santini et al 2020). Fare of unknown and uncertainty over the daily living,

contracting the virus or worry about spreading the infection to other family members and non-availability of ongoing medications etc. are contributing further to the heightened anxiety among the elderly (Mehra et al., 2020). Anxiety disorders start in childhood, adolescence, or early adulthood until they reach a peak in middle age, then tending to decrease again with older age (Bandelow & Michaelis 2015). In a study, with the increase in education level, the level of anxiety become higher due to the majority of female participants. The correlation also showed that younger age and higher education levels were associated with higher coronavirus anxiety (Wang et al., 2020) Anxiety thoughts affect girls more than boys; they have more metacognitive beliefs about the uncontrollability of worry, and they believe that worry must be avoided. On the other hand, positive beliefs in worry are more common in girls, and punishment and meta-concern are being implemented as control strategies for girls than boys. In our study, the anxiety rate was also directly associated with a high prevalence of coronavirus infection. These findings are matched with our findings. Coronavirus infection does not differentiate between geographical location, ethnicity, and religion; therefore, it is considered as a global issue and pandemic. If there is insufficient access to health care facilities, people will be victimized, so governments' international policies should not prevent aiding people. At present, Fiji is subject to less severe sanction under minimum pressure of anxiety and obsessions.

For the living style the obsession means for living alone was higher than with parents as support from family would provide some comfort

to the child. However, living with spouse obsession was much higher than living with parents alone or families which may be due to the physical contact which may occur with the partner. The findings are supported to the research by Phillips et al., which used single status as a reference group, a multinomial regression analysis, increased rates of panic disorder without agoraphobia, and lower rates of obsession with marital or stable cohabitation status (Phillips, Gunderson, Gunderson, McElroy & Carte 1998). The current research did not show significant difference on coronavirus anxiety and obsession with COVID-19 living areas. The mean scores of coronavirus anxiety scale and COVID-19 fixation appear differently in the living area categories. Urban areas have been depicted as places of transition, human isolation, insecurity and conflicting values, seen as a center of technological development and social dislocation, perceived by some as crime - ridden, riot-torn havens for individuals without strong loyalty and clear principles. On the other hand, rural areas have been depicted as environments of social stability, integration, supportive interpersonal networks, and consensus on moral and political issues; and, in addition, as esthetically superior to large cities(Li, Li, Xin,Wang &Yang 2020)

Main limitations of the present study were represented by the lack of specific psychometric assessment and its cross-sectional nature. In fact, the actual picture of psychologically suffered people may change during the current pandemic. Further research with specific psychometric measures and follow-up evaluation of the peoples is warranted to clarify the potential risk and consequences of the current

COVID-19 pandemic on coronavirus anxiety and Obsession with COVID-19 on peoples.

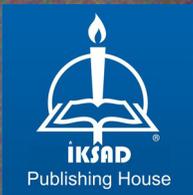
CONCLUSION

This study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Self-isolation was carried out for safety. Everyone suffered from high or low mental health complications. Anxiety and obsession disorders are the most common among people. The study found significant differences among different types of population. There is a need to provide psychological as well as pharmacological support to those who are suffer from anxiety and obsession. Family support, a good primary partner, a living place, the maturity level, and a good habit can provide some relief from anxiety during such pandemic. The research suggests that supports from the stakeholders are needed to minimize the effect of anxiety and obsession on people.

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