
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Gazi
1926

AN EVALUATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL 9TH GRADE ENGLISH PROGRAM AND 9TH GRADE COURSEBOOK ACTIVITIES FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF BLOOM'S REVISED TAXONOMY

Esra Öztürk

M.A. Thesis

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

GAZI UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

AUGUST 2019

TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

YAZARIN

Adı : Esra

Soyadı : Öztürk

Bölümü :İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

İmza :

Teslim tarihi :

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı: Ortaöğretim 9. Sınıf İngilizce Öğretim Program Kazanımlarının ve 9. Sınıf İngilizce Ders Kitabı Etkinliklerinin Yenilenmiş Bloom Taksonomisine Göre Değerlendirilmesi

İngilizce Adı: An Evaluation of Secondary School 9th Grade English Program and 9th Grade English Coursebook Activities From the Perspective of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Esra Öztürk

İmza:

JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

Esra Öztürk tarafından hazırlanan "An Evaluation of Secondary School 9th Grade English Program Outcomes and 9th Grade English Coursebook Activities From the Perspective of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy" adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği/ oy çokluğu ile Gazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı .....

(Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Gazi Üniversitesi)

Başkan: Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen .....

(Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Gazi Üniversitesi)

Üye: Dr. Öğretim Üyesi İsmail Fırat Altay .....

(Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Hacettepe Üniversitesi)

Tez savunma tarihi: 21 / 08 /2019

Bu tezin Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü .....

To everybody who loves learning and teaching

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The process of writing this thesis has been one of the most challenging periods of my life. I believe that it would be much harder without the support of people around me and I would like to express my gratitude to them.

First and the foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor Prof. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI who is the source of my academic inspiration with his unlimited energy, welcoming attitude towards his students and deep knowledge about the field. He challenged me to go beyond my horizon and; therefore, I feel myself very lucky for accomplishing this study under the guidance of him. I sincerely hope that one day I will reach the depth of knowledge and experience he has.

I owe special thanks to Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN, Dr. Ömer Gökhan ULUM and Dr. E. Gül ÇELEBİ İLHAN for their invaluable contribution. I am greatly indebted to Zeki TUMAN for his support and tolerance.

I would also like to express my sincere thanks to Serhat ÇALIK and to my dearest friends Vesile ERBAŞ, Begüm Tuğçe İSTEK, Sevra ÇİL, Elif Ilirjana YEŞİLGÜL and Hakan DEMİRALP who were always behind me, supported me and cheered me up in my difficult times. I feel myself really lucky for having them in my life.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my family. I owe deepest thanks to them for their endless encouragement, support, love and affection. I am the most fortunate person on Earth to have such a nice family. I wish to have them always beside me in every accomplishment of my life.

ORTAÖĞRETİM 9.SINIF İNGİLİZCE DERS PROGRAMININ VE DERS KİTABININ YENİLENMİŞ BLOOM TAKSONOMİSİNE GÖRE DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Esra Öztürk

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Ağustos 2019

ÖZ

Bloom taksonomisi program kazanımları, ders etkinlikleri ve sınav sorularının değerlendirilmesinde sıklıkla kullanılan sınıflandırmalardan biridir. 2001 yılında Bloom'un öğrencileri tarafından güncellenen taksonomi de orijinal taksonomi gibi birçok çalışmada kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada 2018 yılında güncellenen Ortaöğretim 9. sınıf İngilizce ders programındaki kazanım ifadeleri ile 9. sınıf İngilizce ders kitabındaki etkinliklerin Bloom taksonomisinin bilişsel süreç ve bilgi boyutuna göre değerlendirilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca, araştırmanın diğer bir amacı da yenilenmiş Bloom taksonomisinin bilişsel süreç ve bilgi boyutuna göre sınıflandırılmış kazanım ifadeleri ve ders kitabı etkinlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemektir. Karma yöntem çerçevesinde gerçekleştirilen çalışmada veriler döküman analizi kullanılarak toplanmış ve içerik analizi yoluyla da analiz edilmiştir. Ortaöğretim 9. sınıf İngilizce ders programı ve 9. sınıf İngilizce ders kitabı yararlanılan başlıca dökümanlardır. Ortaöğretim 9. sınıf İngilizce ders programındaki kazanım ifadeleri, Stanny (2016) tarafından geliştirilen ve fiillerin yenilenmiş taksonominin bilişsel süreç basamaklarına sınıflandırılmasını içeren fiil listesi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Öte yandan, ders kitabındaki etkinlikler ise öğrenciden hangi bilişsel basamakta işlem görmesi hedeflendiği tespit edilerek analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular betimleyici analiz çerçevesinde

yüzde ve sıklık değerleri hesaplanarak tablolaştırılmıştır. Ortaöğretim 9. sınıf İngilizce ders programı ve 9. sınıf İngilizce ders kitabı etkinliklerinin bilişsel süreç bakımından alt düzey düşünme becerileri olan ‘anlama’ ve ‘uygulama’ basamaklarında, bilgi boyutu bakımından ise kavramsal bilgi basamağında yoğunlaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Buna karşılık üst düzey düşünme becerilerine sınırlı olarak yer verildiği ve bilişötesi bilgi boyutuna ise hiç yer verilmediği görülmüştür. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına dayanarak öğretmenlere, program geliştiricilere ve ders kitabı yazarlarına önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Program değerlendirme, Bloom’un yenilenmiş taksonomisi, Bilişötesi bilgi, Üst düzey düşünme becerileri

Sayfa Adedi: 182

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı

AN EVALUATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL 9TH GRADE ENGLISH PROGRAM AND THE 9TH GRADE COURSEBOOK ACTIVITIES FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF BLOOM'S REVISED TAXONOMY

MA Thesis

Esra Öztürk

GAZI UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

August 2019

ABSTRACT

Bloom's taxonomy has always been one of the most frequently used categorization systems for classifying the outcome statements, classroom activities or exam questions. Like the original taxonomy, the revised taxonomy, which was redesigned by Bloom's students in 2001, has taken place in a number of studies. In this study it is aimed to evaluate the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities in the 9th grade English coursebook according to the cognitive process and the knowledge dimensions of Bloom's revised taxonomy. Besides, it is also aimed to detect the relationship between the outcome statements and the coursebook activities in terms of their distribution into the knowledge and cognitive process levels in the revised taxonomy. The study has been conducted in a mixed-method design. Data have been collected through document analysis and analyzed through content analysis. 9th grade English program and the 9th grade English coursebook are the main documents of the study. The outcome statements in the program have been analyzed through a verb list which was developed by Stanny (2016) through analyzing the categorizations according to the cognitive process dimensions in the revised taxonomy. The coursebook activities, on the other hand, have been analyzed through determining which cognitive process they aim to develop in learners. The frequency and the percentages of the findings have been calculated and

presented through tables. It has been detected that the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities are categorized into the lower order thinking skills in the cognitive process dimension and conceptual knowledge is the most focused category in the knowledge dimension of Bloom's revised taxonomy. Besides, it was detected that higher order thinking skills received limited attention and none of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities focused on developing metacognitive knowledge. In the light of the findings, suggestions have been given to teachers, program developers and coursebook writers.

Key Words: Program evaluation, Bloom's revised taxonomy, Metacognitive knowledge, Higher order thinking skills

Page Number: 180

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF THE TABLES

LIST OF THE FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MoNE	Ministry of National Education
EU	European Union
CEFR	Common European Framework of References
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
BRT	Bloom's Revised Taxonomy
OBT	Original Bloom's Taxonomy
HOTS	Higher Order Thinking Skills
LOTS	Lower Order Thinking Skills
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by providing the background information about the study titled as "An Evaluation of the 9th Grade English Language Program and the Coursebook Activities from the Perspective of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy" BRT, hereafter). Then, the problem statement, aim and importance of the study are explained. The research questions that the study aims to answer are provided along with the definitions of the key terms.

1.1. Background of the Study

Education has a multi-dimensional perspective the components of which are interrelated to each other. These components are teachers, students, materials and educational curricula. In order to have success, all of these components should be in harmony with each other through a careful planning and organization. Even a slight disorder in any of these components would most probably lead to a failure in the whole system. Therefore, a careful attention should be paid to each dimension. Curricula, being one of these components, are designed based on the needs of the current generation and possible needs of the next generations (Oblinger, D., Oblinger, N., & Lippincott, 2005). Therefore, they need to be updated by decision makers at certain times (Flinders & Thornton, 2004; Lewis, 2002) since the needs change by time (Bowe, Ball & Gold, 2017). In this regard, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE, hereafter) renewed all the curricula considering that present curricula were not qualified enough to fulfill the needs of the 21st century students. Along with the other subjects, English language curriculum has been renewed. The revision started with the English Language Program for 2nd -8th grades because many countries in Europe offer English at the primary level as advised by the EU.

The revision of the English Language Program for 2nd-8th Grades necessitated an update in the English Language Program for 9th-12th Grades. Therefore, MoNE decided to revise 9th-12th grades English Language Program after a long-term and comprehensive research conducted by experts, academicians and policy makers. At the end of the long discussions, the new English Language Program for 9th-12th Grades has been introduced to teachers, necessary alterations have been made and it has been put into practice.

The revised program is based on developing communicative competence by integrating authentic and meaningful tasks and focusing more on communication rather than the memorization of the structures. Therefore, English is seen as a vehicle for communication rather than a lesson to study. Besides, the role of the learners has been shifted from being passive agents to active participants. Learners are aimed to actively participate into the learning process through constructing the knowledge themselves both collaboratively and individually. In this regard, the program has been revised in a way that would involve learners as active participants of the learning process.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Teaching English has always been a problematic issue in Turkey. Lack of effective educational policies, instructional activities and traditional teaching methods can be shown as the reasons of failure in ELT (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013). To overcome this problem, several significant steps have been taken. Taking the global tendency to lower the age for learning foreign languages into consideration (Garton, 2014; Nguyen, 2011), Turkish government decided to adopt 4+4+4 educational system in 2013. As for English language teaching in particular, the new system dictates that teaching English must start at the 2nd grade rather at the 4th grade as it used to be. This has resulted in designing programs for the 2nd and 3rd grades, which has required a fundamental revision not only in the English language program for 2nd-8th grades but also in the English language program for the 9th-12th grades. Therefore, the outcome statements, the type and the flow of the activities, assignments, the nature of the assessment and assessment tools have been revised in line with the major philosophy that the new curriculum adopts.

Considering the revision in English language curriculum, a detailed analysis is necessary in order to determine its strengths, weaknesses and to what extent are its different components in harmony with each other. This research takes its source from this necessity

and it aims to categorize the outcome statements and the coursebook activities in the 9th grade English coursebook according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (BRT).

1.3. Aim of the Study

This study aims to evaluate the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities from the perspective of Bloom's revised taxonomy. By doing so, it aims to provide tangible information about to what extent is the 9th grade English program aligned with the knowledge and cognitive process dimensions of BRT. Moreover, by categorizing the activities in the coursebook, it aims to determine whether they are compatible with the learning outcomes and the revised version of Bloom's taxonomy. Since the coursebooks are the materials on which the teachers rely heavily, it is vital to effectively match the coursebooks with the identified needs of the students (Garinger, 2002). The reason for focusing on the 9th grade outcome statements and the coursebook activities is that 9th grade stands as a threshold level during which a general revision of the primary school and introduction to secondary school can be done (MoNE, 2018). Therefore, it is the grade level during which learners both have ample practice and a satisfactory level of English necessary to specialize in the following grades. In this scope following research questions are aimed to be answered by the end of the study:

1- What is the distribution of the outcomes in the 9th grade English program according to Bloom's revised taxonomy?
2- What is the distribution of the 9th grade coursebook activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy?
3- What is the relationship between the outcomes in the 9th grade English program and the 9th grade coursebook activities in terms of their distribution into Bloom's revised taxonomy?

1.4. Importance of the Study

Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) believe that systematic evaluation is at the heart of a program. Evaluating a program makes it possible to detect the level of alignment between the outcomes, activities, assessment tools and the major philosophy behind it. Besides, it enables teachers, policy makers and material developers to speak the same language since evaluation and categorization of the outcomes and activities according to a specific

taxonomy system makes the whole process more systematic. Being the most frequently used and referenced one compared to other classification systems; Bloom's taxonomy has proved to be essential. The structure of the revised taxonomy table matrix provides a clear, concise and visual representation of the alignment between standards educational goals, objectives, products, and activities. (Krathwohl, 2002). Moreover, it shows the six levels of cognitive process the highest three level of which (analyzing, evaluating, creating) is known as Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) while the lowest three level (remembering, understanding, applying) is labeled as Lower Order Thinking Skills (LOTS). The role of the students in the learning process determines the efficiency of instruction and even the cognitive levels which the learners engage in. Koch (2016) suggests that students tend to learn facts rather than deep concepts in a teacher-centered environment, so learning does not go beyond the lowest three levels of Bloom's taxonomy. However, when students take the role of active participants rather than the passive agents, they find the opportunity to plan, organize, analyze and reflect on the process, so the highest three levels are activated. Considering the focus on student-centered teaching in the new curriculum, it can be inferred that the new curriculum has been planned in a way to develop students' higher order thinking skills through well-designed learning outcomes and activities. However, the studies that have been conducted in Turkey and abroad show that the educational programs, coursebook activities and classroom activities are far from developing higher-order thinking skills –about which detailed information can be found under the title of the previous research on Bloom's taxonomy in Chapter II. Therefore, explicit teaching of HOTS has become a worldwide goal (Miri, David and Uri, 2007; Newmann, 1991; Williams, 2003). Therefore, the learning outcomes and the coursebook activities in the new program will be analyzed from the perspective of facilitating the growth of HOTS in learners. It is believed that the findings will shed light for curriculum developers, policy makers, coursebook writers and teachers.

1.5. Assumptions

In this study, it is assumed that the 9th grade English program is in the center of the teaching process. Materials are assumed to be prepared and the activities are assumed to be implemented according to the revised 9th grade English program. In this regard, the 9th grade English coursebook approved by the National Board of Education is assumed to be used by the teachers and the 9th graders.

1.6. Limitations

This study has the following limitations:

1- This study is limited to the outcome statements for four skills –reading, writing, speaking and listening- and pronunciation in the new 9th grade English program. The curriculum does not include target vocabulary items specific to each theme in order to avoid long verb lists which lead students to memorize them (MoNE, 2018). Instead, teachers and material developers are given the freedom to select the target vocabulary items to teach in relation to each theme and the needs of the learners. Grammatical structures, similarly, are not included in isolation. Rather, they are integrated into the four skills since the primary aim is to enable the learners to communicate fluently rather than exercising too much on accuracy.

2- Even though there are more than one classification systems in curriculum evaluation, this study is limited to BRT.

3- The learning activities are limited to the ones in the 9th grade English coursebook (Teenwise) which has been approved by National Board of Education.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Curriculum: A general term that is commonly used to mean 'what schools teach' and includes philosophical, social and administrative choices that contribute to the planning of an educational program (Eisner, 2002).

Curriculum Evaluation: Systematic process for collecting and analyzing all relevant information for the purpose of judging and assessing the effectiveness of the curriculum to promote improvement (Nichols, Shidaker, Johnson & Singer, 2006)

Coursebook: A textbook which provides the basic materials for a course and covers work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the four skills (Tomlinson, 1998).

Educational Program: A series of courses linked with some common goal or end product (Lynch, 1997).

Outcome: What a student is expected to know, understand, and/or be able to demonstrate after completion of a process of learning at the conclusion of a course (Kennedy, 2007)

Taxonomy: is the science of classification; laws and principles covering the classifying of objects (Merriam Webster Dictionary).

Higher Order Thinking Skills: The highest three skills –analyzing, evaluating and creating- in BRT (Andersen & Krathwohl, 2001; Chang & Mao, 1999; Pappas, Pierrakos & Nagel, 2012).

Lower Order Thinking Skills: The first three skills –remembering, understanding and applying- in BRT (Andersen & Krathwohl, 2001; Chang & Mao, 1999; Pappas et al., 2012).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, detailed information about the three basic constructs of this study will be given. To begin with, some definitions of the concept of the program evaluation will be provided. In addition, the scope of program evaluation will be discussed from various aspects such as evaluation purposes, approaches and types. Then, information about the basics of different program evaluation models will be presented. Moreover, a review of literature regarding program evaluation in foreign language teaching and Turkey's foreign language education policy will be shared. Following the basics of the new Secondary School English program, some program evaluation studies conducted in Turkey and abroad will be provided. Secondly, information about coursebook evaluation, the role of coursebooks in foreign language learning and previous research on coursebook evaluation will be shared. On the other hand, the literature on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy will cover what taxonomy means, the structure of the original taxonomy, the reasons that led to the revision of the taxonomy, the structure of the revised taxonomy and the differences between the original and the revised versions. After reviewing the literature about what curricular alignment means, the importance of higher order thinking skills and metacognition in foreign language learning, information about the previous research that have been conducted so far both in Turkey and abroad will be shared.

2.1. Definitions of Program and Program Evaluation

The literature is rich in terms of the definitions of 'program'. In the field of education, it refers to a comprehensive concept that has been defined in various ways. According to Weir and Roberts (1994) any educational activity that is organized on a continuing basis

can be defined as program. Another definition which mentions the key constructs of a program is that a program is a set of specific activities which have been designed for a purpose, with measurable goals and clarified objectives (Spaulding, 2008). When designing a program, the strategies to follow and the philosophical approach to adopt in order to meet the goals are specified.

Following the completion of design, any program becomes subject to evaluation for various purposes. In fact, the definition of the term of evaluation provides its purpose. In its simplest form, evaluation is determining the worth of something. However, the issue of how to determine is the source of concern. Therefore, different and more comprehensive definitions are provided in the literature. One of these definitions emphasizes the application of a set of pre-determined criteria to judge the merit of the evaluated (Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004). In another definition, however, a set of pre-determined criteria is replaced by knowledge gathered at the end of systematic investigations. According to this definition, evaluation is conducted through knowledge coming from systematic investigations, at the end of which decision makers arrive at an opinion about the efficiency of the thing evaluated (Owen, 2007; Weir & Roberts, 1994). Both definitions suggest that the purpose of evaluation is forming an opinion about the efficiency of something. However, care needs to be taken to the point that an opinion leads to an action. In the case of evaluation, arriving at an opinion about the efficiency of something results in taking the necessary steps to improve it.

In the light of these definitions of program and evaluation, it could be suggested that program evaluation is the systematic assessment of the operation and/or outcomes of a program, compared to a set of criteria in order to improve it (Weiss, 1998). Likewise, Spaulding (2008) believes that program evaluation refers to examining programs in order to judge their worth and make suggestions for improvement. In another definition provided by Lynch (2003) program evaluation serves as a means for reflection in addition to improvement. Therefore, program evaluation is a broad procedure which utilizes a set of pre-determined criteria and a source of information to evaluate the overall functionality of program and to provide opportunities for reflection, revision and enhancement. All these aspects are necessary for the effective implementation of a program. As suggested by Nunan (1990), no program is complete without an evaluation phase, which shows that program evaluation is a vital component of education. Therefore, must be included in the agenda of the policymakers in order for improvement.

2.2. Purposes of Program Evaluation

Conducting a program evaluation depends primarily on the purpose of evaluation. Just as there are various definitions of program evaluation, there are different purposes, as well. According to Dickens and Germaine (2014) program evaluation is conducted in order to explain the existing procedures and to obtain information to bring about innovation in them. That is, through evaluating a program one can form an opinion about its constructs and suggest changes for improvement.

Additionally, more comprehensive information about the purposes of program evaluation is provided as follows (Posavac & Carey, 2003):

1) to assess unmet needs
2) to document implementation
3) to measure results
4) to compare alternative programs
5) to provide information to maintain and develop quality
6) to detect negative side effects

Considering the wide scope of the list, it would be suitable to suggest that the six items in the list are in line with the two main functions of the program evaluation provided by Dickens and Germaine (2014). Both focus on the explanation and improvement dimensions.

From a different perspective, two main purposes of program evaluation are examining whether or not the pre-determined outcomes are achieved and detecting the level of alignment among the philosophy, goals, objectives and classroom activities (Rosenbusch, 1991). This study is conducted in order to check for the coherence among the outcome statements and coursebook activities in terms of their distribution into the knowledge and cognitive process levels in BRT. Therefore, it can be suggested that the perspective held by Rosenbusch is parallel to the aim of the study.

Specifically for English language teaching, the literature provides four purposes of language program evaluation (Murray & Christison, 2011):

1) progress-oriented: In this type of program evaluation, the primary aim is to determine whether progress has been made towards achieving the goals of the program. In this regard, the current status of language learning is compared with

the desired outcomes and the results provide the evaluator with an opinion about the efficiency of the program.

2) decision-oriented: This type of program evaluation is carried out with the aim of having a decision about the future developments and change. Therefore, the underlying intention in decision-oriented program evaluation is making a contribution to the improvement of the program.
3) research-oriented: Research-oriented program evaluation is conducted in order to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the program and how they affect the overall quality.
4) standards-oriented: This type of program evaluation is carried out for accreditation concerns. The aim is to demonstrate that the program has met certain standards. In this type of evaluation, the final decision of a licensed body is required.

When the aim of the current study is considered, it can be suggested that decision-oriented program evaluation is the most suitable one among the four types of program evaluation since the findings will not only provide the level of alignment among the components of the secondary school English program but also provide insights into the effectiveness of the program in terms of fostering higher order thinking skills and metacognition. Based on the findings, suggestions for improvement will be presented.

2.3. Program Evaluation Approaches

There is not a single ideal way of conducting program evaluation. The purpose of the evaluation, the nature of the program being evaluated, the individuals involved, the time and the resources available impact the evaluation process. Therefore, it is essential to follow a principled and systematic procedure during evaluation, which depends on the right approach adopted. There are several program evaluation approaches that result in many different program evaluation models. These approaches differ based on the purpose of the evaluation.

To begin with, Worthen and Sanders (1987) present one of the earliest categorizations of program evaluation approach as follows:

1) Objectives-Oriented Evaluation Approach: This evaluation approach focuses on determining to what extent the purposes of a program are achieved. Tyler (1942), with his behavioral objectives model, is known as the pioneer of this approach (Stufflebeam &

Shinklefield, 1985). According to Tyler (1942) the goals and the objectives of a program must be defined as a prerequisite of evaluation. Then, the evaluation focuses on determining whether or not the objectives have been attained. In the case of a mismatch, the reasons of failure are detected. Worthen and Sanders (1987) claim that objectives-oriented approach is systematic, logical, scientifically acceptable and ready to use by evaluators. In addition to its strengths, the objectives-oriented evaluation approach is not without criticisms. One of the drawbacks of this approach, as expressed by Stufflebeam and Shinklefield (1981) is that as not all of the objectives could be evaluated, the selection of the appropriate objectives to evaluate would be problematic. Notwithstanding the argument stated above, this study will adopt objectives-oriented approach since we believe that the goals and the objectives provide accurate and reliable information about the insights of the program. Regarding the argument of Stufflebeam and Shinklefield (1981) that not all of the objectives could be evaluated, the focus of this study is limited to the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the revised version of Bloom's taxonomy. Therefore, we believe that the study will generate reliable data since it will employ standardized and scientifically-accepted data collection tools.

2) Management-Oriented Evaluation Approach: Providing evaluative information to aid decision-making is the main purpose of this approach. Decisions concern the components of the program such as the participants involved, the desired goals and the context.

3) Consumer-Oriented Evaluation Approach: As its name suggests, this approach focuses on providing information about educational purchases. Hogan (2007) states that the consumer-oriented evaluation approach is mostly used by government agencies and consumer advocates who gather information to evaluate a product's effectiveness.

4) Expertise-Oriented Evaluation Approach: Being the oldest and the most frequently used evaluation approach, this approach relies primarily on professional expertise to judge an educational institution, program or product. The review process can be both formal and informal. If there is an established structure, published standards, review schedule, a team of experts and an impact as a result of the evaluation, this is a formal review. If the process is lack of any of these elements, it is named as informal review (Worthen, Sanders & Fitzpatrick, 1997).

5) Adversary- Oriented Evaluation Approach: The aim of this approach is to detect both the strengths and weaknesses of a program in a balanced manner. In other words, two

separate teams defend the weaknesses and strengths of the program and mutually agree on a common point. On one side, this approach is advantageous because it illuminates the program from various points. On the other side, as Worthen et al. (1997) state, it is not preferred since it focuses on the deficiencies. They argue that the center of evaluation should be improvement, not determination of guilt or innocence.

6) Participant-Oriented Evaluation Approach: As its name suggests, this approach stresses the importance of the participants into the evaluation process. That is, the evaluator and the stakeholders act in cooperation from start to finish. In terms of its disadvantages, Worthen et al. (1997) argue that the evaluation process may be impacted negatively because of the subjectivity of data and because there may be conflicts between the participants. Moreover, participants may manipulate the situation or withdraw at an important phase of the evaluation.

Another categorization of program evaluation approaches deals with the focus given to the product of a program and the process in which the program is implemented. In the former one, product-oriented approach, importance is attached to meeting the objectives of a program while process-oriented approach examines what is actually happening with the aim of improvement. According to Gredler (1996), process oriented approach provides internal stakeholders (learners, teachers) and external stakeholders (accreditation agencies, funding agencies) with valuable insights about the program.

Finally, the literature indicates one more categorization of approaches provided by Lynch (2003). In his categorization of evaluation approaches, Lynch lists three paradigms: Positivist, interpretivist (naturalistic) and mixed. In positivist approach, program evaluation is conducted irrespective of the evaluator. That is, it exists as an external and objective phenomenon. Therefore, experimental studies are conducted during the evaluation process and the focus is on the product. Unlike the positivist approach, in the interpretivist approach the program is considered as a social construct; therefore, the evaluator must engage with it in order to analyze it. Studies which involve observation, interview with the participants and documentation are conducted within this approach. Mixed approach, as its name suggests, utilizes both the positivist and the interpretivist approach during the evaluation process.

According to Thomas (2003) there is a shift of focus in program evaluation studies from improvement to accreditation, quality assurance, external review and so forth. Therefore, it

is clear that the purpose of evaluation and the approach adopted differ depending on the expectations of the stakeholders. After adopting an approach, the type of evaluation can be determined about which detailed information is provided as follows.

2.4. Types of Program Evaluation

There are different program evaluation types which show variety depending on the approach, purpose and the context of the program. Some basic types of program evaluation are provided as follows:

2.4.1. Formative vs. Summative Evaluation

These two types of evaluation differ in terms of their focus on the evaluation process. Even though Scriven (1991) is known as the person who introduced the term 'formative evaluation' to the literature, it was defined in detailed by Bloom (1971) as the type of systematic evaluation of the curriculum development, teaching and learning process with the aim of improvement. This definition indicates that formative evaluation is parallel to process-oriented approach which focuses on what is happening in the process of program evaluation. Typical questions that relate to formative evaluation are (Richards, 2001):

- Has enough time been spent on program objectives?
- How well is the coursebook being received?
- Is the methodology teachers are using appropriate?
- Are the teachers or learners having any problems with any aspect of the course?
- Are learners enjoying the program? What can be done to increase their motivation?
- Are learners getting sufficient practice work?
- Is the pacing of material adequate?

The evaluator sets out to improve the quality of the program through these questions during the process of program development. On the other hand, summative evaluation occurs at the end of a program to determine whether the program is successful or not (Brown, 1995). It seeks answers to the following questions:

- How effective was the course? Did it achieve the aims?
- What did the students learn?
- Did the materials work well?

- Were the objectives adequate?
- How appropriate were the teaching methods?
- What problems were encountered during the course?

According to Scriven (1991) the conclusion drawn from the summative evaluation refers to anything other than improvement since it follows the completion of the program. The distinction between these two types of evaluation is provided by Alderson and Scott (1992) as follows: "If the cook tastes the soup, that is formative. If the guests taste the soup, that is summative."

2.4.2. Ongoing vs. Short-term Evaluations

When evaluating a program, some researchers direct their attention to the end result (short-term evaluation) while others prefer following the performance of the learners constantly (ongoing evaluation). The preference depends on the aim of the evaluation. Some evaluators prefer to have an evaluative idea about the program merely through judging the end result within the framework of summative evaluation. Others, on the other hand, opt for a longitudinal evaluation which is conducted over time. Each type has its own advantages and limitations. Therefore, for an effective program evaluation, Brown (1995) suggests to utilize both types since they complement each other.

2.4.3. Qualitative vs. Quantitative Evaluation

Data for program evaluation can be gathered qualitatively, quantitatively or both. The evaluators who adopt a naturalistic (interpretivist) approach rely more on qualitative data collected through interviews, observations etc. Brown (1995) believes that qualitative data provides the evaluator with a broader perspective about the program. However, since it takes a long time most evaluators who adopt positivist perspective opt for quantitative methods. Richards (2001) suggests that certain themes can be detected through quantitative evaluation since it is possible to collect a large amount of data from a large number of people through surveys, test scores and student rankings. In addition to these two types, data can be collected both qualitatively and quantitatively as in the case of a mixed design.

When the context of the present study is considered, it can be said that data will be collected both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative data will be collected from program documents and quantitative data will be provided from the frequencies and the

percentages of the coursebook activities and the outcome statements based on their distribution into the revised taxonomy.

2.4. Program Evaluation Models

Based on the different program evaluation approaches, there are different program evaluation models in the literature. In this section, information about the basics of six different models is presented.

2.4.1. Tyler's Behavioral Objectives Model

Tyler's Behavioral Objectives Model is based on Gagne's (1965) learning theory which considers learning as environmentally dependent, scientifically measured and controlled (Uhland, 1994). According to Gagne (1965) learning takes place if there is observable change in behavior. In this regard, it can be deduced that Gagne focuses on the product rather than the process. Adopting the rationale behind Gagne's learning framework, Tyler (1974) developed behavioral objectives model through the answers given to the following questions:

1. What educational purposes should the provider seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

The answer to the first question represents the objectives of the program. Once the objectives are determined, methods, strategies and techniques are specified according to the needs of the learners and the objectives of the program. This process provides the answer to the second question. Then, the organization of the teaching process which involves the details of a program such as suggested materials and syllabus design stands for as the answer for the third question. Finally, the last question seeks the answer for evaluation and according to Tyler (1974) evaluation is based on determining to what extent the objectives have been achieved. Thus, it can be claimed that Tyler's model places emphasis on the output rather than the developmental process of learning. In this vein, conducting a pre-test and a post-test is necessary to detect the level of alignment between the objectives and the performance of the learners. If there is a lack of alignment, either the

objectives or the ways of educational experiences are revised. Tyler's Model has been criticized for its linear and systematic nature which neglects the dynamic and developmental process of learning. For that reason, Stufflebeam developed his CIPP (Context-Input-Process-Product) Model which was intended to serve for the limitations of Tyler's Behavioral Objectives Model.

2.4.2. Stufflebeam's CIPP Model

Stufflebeam (2003, p.9) defines program evaluation as a "systematic evaluation of the value of a program" within the paradigms of CIPP (Context-Input-Process-Product) Model. He noted that an effective evaluation requires identifying and guiding a decision, providing accountability information and advocating effective program methodologies (Stufflebeam, 2003). He based his model on management-oriented approach which considers evaluative information as an important component of decision-making. Therefore, it is essential that the information be unbiased to serve for a correct judgment about the current state of a program. Accordingly, a systematic analysis of multiple perspectives and collection of both qualitative and quantitative data are required (Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004). Basically, the CIPP model provides answers for the following questions (Rose & Nyre, 1977, p.21):

1) What objectives should be accomplished?
2) What procedures should be followed in order to accomplish the objectives?
3) Are the procedures working properly?
4) Are the objectives being achieved?

The answers of these questions are collected from the four dimensions of a program. These are context, input, process and product dimensions.

The aim of context evaluation is to identify the necessary information for determining the problems and needs in an educational context through surveys or interviews with stakeholders and participants. This step of the process is essential in that it sets the framework for the next phases. Once the needs and the problems are determined, the planning of the educational sources and the activities is conducted accordingly.

The next step involves the evaluation of input which aims to determine how to use the resources in order to attain the goals. These resources may include both staff and materials.

The outcome of input evaluation is an analysis of alternative procedural designs or strategies in terms of their potential costs and benefits. (Rose & Nyre, 1977)

The evaluation of the process, on the other hand, aims at detecting the alignment between the activities planned and applied. It addresses information about how well the implementation of the program is going and what, if any, obstacles conflict with the program's success. Stufflebeam (2003) argues that here the key factor is interaction. An evaluator cannot have an idea about the dynamics of the ongoing process if he does not agree to cooperate with the insiders. In this regard, interaction with the decision makers, teachers, learners and other participants is recommended (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004).

Lastly, product evaluation provides information to make an overall judgment about the worth of the program. This judgment may involve continuation, termination or modification of the program (Stufflebeam, 2003). In spite of its needlessly complex structure, the CIPP model has been used frequently in the field of program evaluation (Findlay, 1971). Its availability for providing evaluative information about different contexts has been shown as a reason of high preference (Rose & Nyre, 1977).

2.4.3. Kirkpatrick's Four Level Model (Framework)

Kirkpatrick's Four Level Model, which he calls it not a model but a framework (Kirkpatrick, 1996), is one of the most popular program evaluation models (Arthur, Bennett, Edens & Bell, 2003). According to Praslova (2010), the reason of its popularity is the fact that it provides both a rich context for understanding the role of various instruments and differentiated feedback regarding the effectiveness of the program.

The four levels of evaluation in Kirkpatrick's model are reaction, learning, behavior and result. The first two levels are considered internal since they focus on what occurs within the program. On the other hand, the last two levels are considered external because they focus on changes that occur outside of the program (Praslova, 2010).

The aim of the first level is to detect how learners react to the training which involves their reaction to the instructor, course and the environment (Kirkpatrick, 1959). In this regard, it can be said that unlike the other evaluation models, Kirkpatrick's model gives emphasis on the affective factors in evaluation. Data for this level is easy to collect, however, data for the other three levels are necessary for a complete evaluation.

In the learning level, evaluators aim at determining to what extent there is a change in knowledge, skills and attitudes of the learners (Kirkpatrick, 1959). The change may happen in cognitive domain, psychomotor domain or affective domain. Mostly, a pre-test and a post-test are employed in order to detect the change in the cognitive domain. Observation and performance tests are ideal for determining the change in the psychomotor domain and attitude tests are preferred for the changes in affective domain.

In the third level, which is behavior level, the evaluation focuses on the transfer of knowledge, skills and/or attitudes to real life. Allinger and Janak (1989) argue that level 3 measures learning and application. In other words, learning actually occurs if what has been learned is applied in the real life situations.

In the results level, the evaluators aim at identifying the final results of a program. Brewer (2011) claims that the definition of results depends on the goals of the program. Goals may include ends, reduction of costs, increase in quality or quantity of the production.

Kirkpatrick's framework has got both proponents and opponents. Wang (2010), being one of the proponents of this model, claims that it is simple, practical, effective, flexible and complete. On the other hand, Holton (1996) -who named his article as 'the flawed four level model'- criticizes the model from various aspects. First, he argues that Kirkpatrick's Four Level Model is not a model but taxonomy. Next, he states that intervening variables that affect learning are absent. Moreover, he argues that Kirkpatrick is unclear about the causal linkages in his work. In other words, according to Holton (1996) the statement that "learning occurs only if there is a change in behavior." signals a simple causal linkage even though Kirkpatrick (1976) stated earlier that the relationship between the levels is not linear. As a result, he proposes a different evaluation model which is made up of three constructs: learning, individual performance and organizational results. As a response to the proposed model, Kirkpatrick (1996) argues that it is surprising to detect so many similarities between his framework and the proposed model after all the criticisms that have been made. Despite the oppositions, Kirkpatrick's framework has been used in various areas in addition to educational evaluation (Wang, 2010).

2.4.4. Provus' Discrepancy Model

The Discrepancy Model gets its name from Provus' definition of evaluation. According to Provus (1969) evaluation is the process of determining the discrepancy between the actual

performance of the program and the program standards. Depending on the information yielded as a result of the evaluation, there are four options to choose from: The program can be terminated, it can be modified, it can continue as it is or the standards may be changed.

Provus (1969) believes that the main aim of the evaluation is to improve the programs and to ensure educational benefit. For that reason, he suggests that all of the components of a program be involved in the process of evaluation. Accordingly, he developed the following equation: I (P)= O. In the equation, I represents "input", P represents "process" and O is the "outcome". In other words, teachers, learners and the administrators are "input", their interaction is "process" and the result is the "outcome". Based on the equation, Provus (1969) claims that for an evaluation to serve its purpose, relationship between the components of the program be understood.

The Discrepancy Model involves five stages, each of which involves a comparison between the standards and the performance of three areas: input, process and output. The first stage emphasizes at design which includes objectives, learners, teachers and other components. The emerging design at this stage becomes the standard for the next stage. The second stage is installation. The aim of this stage is to measure to what extent the preconditions have been met. In other words, as its name suggests, whether or not the program is being implemented in the way it should be. The next stage is process evaluation in which the evaluator compares the performance with the standards. Buttram and Covert (1978) argue that stage two and stage three serve the purpose of improvement without which the summative evaluation of the program is not possible. In stage four, the discrepancies between the actual attainment of the program and the standards determined in the first stage are noted. In the final stage, a cost analysis is conducted. In other words, the program is compared with the other programs similar in nature in terms of its cost.

To sum up, the primary function of this model is to provide information to decision makers (Rose & Nyre, 1977). To serve its purpose, the discrepancy model clarifies the alternatives and the reasons for the decisions. Besides, the evaluator ensures that the necessary questions have been asked and the information used to answer these questions are relevant and accurate (Buttram & Covert, 1978).

2.4.5. Eisner's Educational Connoisseurship and Criticism Model

Educational Connoisseurship and Criticism Model was developed by Eisner which is based on expertise-oriented program approach. According to this approach, evaluation is grounded on the professional expertise of the evaluators (Eisner, 1976). Being qualitative in nature, this model is applied through formal and informal investigations. According to Eisner (1976) "Educational Connoisseurship" and "Educational Criticism" are the two basic concepts of this model. Connoisseurship, which means expertise, focuses on revealing the awareness of the qualifications of an object and emphasizes them. Criticism, contrary to its common negative meaning, focuses on the perception of the object. These two concepts complement each other in program evaluation. This model involves three main dimensions. These dimensions are:

1. Descriptive Dimension: According to Eisner (1976) descriptive dimension is related to describing the current state of the program. Its aim is to get information about the underlying philosophy of the program and its components.
2. Interpretative Dimension: In this dimension, the evaluator focuses on understanding the meaning of educational activities. For example, what it means an educational environment for learners or how the teachers interpret the participation of the learners to the activities etc. While interpreting, the evaluator utilizes his or her expertise knowledge which includes the knowledge of multiple theories, viewpoints, approaches and models (Eisner, 1985).
3. Evaluating Dimension: The educational significance of interpreted activities is evaluated in this dimension. At this point Yüksel (2010) argues that there should be some evaluative criteria on which to make judgments.

In brief, Eisner's model provides an overall view of the evaluation process through qualitative analysis.

2.4.6. Alkin's UCLA Model

The developer of the UCLA Model is Marvin Alkin who defines evaluation as "the process of gathering, organizing and analyzing data about the functionality of the program in order to provide useful information to decision makers" (1970, p16). Therefore, he based his model on a decision-oriented approach which has five decision categories.

The first category is called systems assessment in which evaluation is conducted in order to provide information about the current status of the system. Here the system refers to educational context, not the program. The difference between the current and the intended status of the context is identified and objectives are written in the form of the desired status. This stage is similar to the 'context' stage in CIPP model in that both focus on identifying the current status of what is being evaluated.

The second area is program planning in which the decision maker selects the most appropriate program according to the objectives determined in the previous level. At this stage the evaluator is responsible for providing the necessary information about the potential effectiveness of the different programs in terms of meeting the needs. Then, the evaluator selects from the alternatives presented.

The third area is called program implementation which focuses on determining whether the program is applied in the way it is supposed to be. In this regard, the outcomes of the program and their reflection in the educational settings are analyzed. In other words, evaluation is carried out with the aim of determining whether the educational settings reflect the program goals.

The fourth area is program improvement. Being a formative evaluation, this stage looks for information about to what extent the program is achieving its intended objectives and whether it has an impact on other programs. Therefore, it can be claimed that this stage has similar aims with the process level of the CIPP model.

The final category is program certification. Similar to the product level in CIPP model, in this stage decision about the overall worth of the program is given. Here the decision maker has four choices: to keep the program as it is, modify it, disseminate it or abolish it (Rose & Nyre, 1977).

All in all, UCLA model and CIPP model have many similarities. Both models are decision-oriented and both Marvin and Stufflebeam consider evaluation as the process of gathering information about the efficiency of the program for decision makers. According to their framework, evaluation provides authorities with the necessary information regarding the future of the program.

2.5. Program Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching

Studies related to foreign language program evaluation date back to 1960s. Indeed, according to Beretta (1992), until the late 1980s the studies related to foreign language program evaluation were too limited. These studies focused on demonstrating the advantage of one language teaching method over another (e.g. Keating, 1963).

Language program evaluation studies reached a peak during the 1980s and 1990s. Several books that shaped the modern foreign language program evaluation were published (Brown, 1995; Johnson, 1989; Lynch, 1996; Rea-Dickens & Germaine, 1992). The books made key contributions to the literature including the application of numerous data collection methods such as interviews, surveys, proficiency tests; the design of framework about conducting a program evaluation and providing an understanding of the roles of the different stakeholders in program evaluation.

At the beginning of the 21st century, program evaluation studies changed direction due to political and economic changes (Kiely & Rea-Dickens, 2005). During this phase, most of the studies were conducted for accountability concerns. Especially in the United Kingdom and North America program evaluation studies were conducted as a primary element of institutional accreditation (Norris, 2016). According to Norris and Watanabe (2013), the studies that were conducted during 2000s contributed to the field in terms of the following aspects:

- The stakeholders of the programs increased their ownership over and the awareness of evaluation.
- Cyclical, ongoing and process approaches gained importance rather than one-time reviews.
- Specific program elements such as teachers, objectives etc. were started to be analyzed in-depth.
- Triangulation of data was prioritized together with an emphasis on mixed-method.

In addition to accountability concerns, language program evaluation in the last decade focused on the improvement of the programs within formative evaluation (e.g. Fırat, 2016; Gholami & Qurbanzada, 2016; Peacock, 2009). Common aspects of these evaluations include the participation of teachers and other stakeholders, cycling process of directing

questions, gathering evidence, interpreting the findings, making decisions and asking new questions.

As Kiely & Rea-Dickens (2009) point out, programs are highly dynamic in nature. Therefore, trends in language program evaluation show variety in line with the developments in applied linguistics. For example, Godwin-Jones (2014) foresees that open access learning within technology-mediated education models such as Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) is suggestive of the changes in the direction of program evaluation. In this respect, it can be stated that the pedagogical aspects of the delivery of instruction in online teaching, the changing roles of the teachers and learners will be the subject of program evaluation in the near future. In fact, even today it is possible to come across above-mentioned studies (e.g. Benson et al., 2002; Mandinach, 2005), which indicates the change of focus in language program evaluation.

Regarding the past, present and future of language program evaluation, it can be concluded that program evaluation is an inseparable component of education. It is necessary for providing concrete evidence about the efficiency of the program, detecting the strengths and weaknesses and ensuring accountability.

2.6. Foreign Language Teaching in Turkey

The Turks' introduction to foreign languages dates back to the eighteenth century when the Ottoman Empire started to follow the military developments in the Western world. With the beginning of 'Tanzimat Period', during which westernization movements in the education system started, foreign language education was included in the curriculum (Kırkgöz, 2005). At that time many schools where the instruction was in foreign language were opened. French was the medium of instruction in most of the schools since it was the language of diplomacy, philosophy and science.

When the Turkish Republic was founded in 1923, modernization movements accelerated and closer connections were established with Europe and the USA. In the earlier years of the Turkish Republic many tertiary-level students were sent to European universities. As a result, they found the opportunity both to have expertise in their branch and to get acquainted with European languages particularly in French, English and German. Moreover, with the foundation of Middle East Technical University and Boğaziçi University another educational reform took place and English-medium instruction in

tertiary level started (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). As the European countries took the leading role in politics and economy, English was prioritized over other foreign languages, especially French (Kırkgöz, 2007), which resulted in English being an international language. Turkey, as in most of the other countries, included the teaching of English as a foreign language in its agenda Not only in tertiary level, but also in primary and secondary school levels, English was taught as the medium of instruction. Together with the reforms in education, numerous attempts have been made to optimize the success in English language teaching. Through 1997 Education Reform the duration of the compulsory education was extended to 8 years and students were introduced to English in Grade 4 (Sarıçoban, 2012). The aim of this innovation was to expose students to English longer and at an earlier age so that they could acquire it more successfully. The reform reflected itself in a positive way. Following the reform, teacher training departments were redesigned, the number of the methodology courses and the hours of the practicum studies increased and a new course named as 'Teaching English to Young Learners' was added to the program of ELT departments (Sarıçoban,2012). This was a necessity for prospective teachers and in-service teachers as well, in order to meet the distinct needs of the young learners.

In 2006 another curriculum renewal took place. As expressed by Nunan (1988) previously language teaching focused on the performance of the learner as the product of instruction. However, seeing that the memorized rules and the chunks produced by the learners as a result of the artificial contexts created in the classrooms did not reflect the language learning, the Ministry of Education renewed the curricula in 2006. The new curriculum adopted a process-oriented approach to language teaching which helps learners construct the knowledge themselves (MONE, 2006). Accordingly, significance was attached to the concepts of learning process, development of learning, knowledge construction, metacognition and autonomy because process-oriented approach focuses on the delivery of content within the process of instruction rather than the content itself. By doing so, it highlights the learning process in which learners come to an understanding by observing the others, discovering different methods, applying them in different contexts and learning in the end.

Another major reform in foreign language policy occurred in 2012 with the introduction of 4+4+4 system. The duration of the compulsory education was extended to 12 years and English was started to be introduced in the second grade. In this regard, English has been offered to second and third grade students two hours per week since 2012. Moreover, the

Ministry of Education announced that 5th grade learners are allowed to receive English up to 18 hours in a weekly schedule as long as the teachers and the school administration agree on a formal decision (MoNE, 2017).

When the steps taken throughout the history of the foreign language policy in Turkey are considered, it can be concluded that the change of direction, lowering the age of the introduction to English, increase in the classroom hours indicate the significance attached to learning English. However, each innovation in the policy needs an objective and detailed evaluation in order to take more sound steps towards achievement. Therefore, the current study has been conducted with the aim of evaluating the revised secondary school English program in terms of stimulating the higher order thinking skills and metacognition in learners. Before introducing the revised program, it is necessary to mention the intellectual capacities, personal and social needs of the adolescents to whom the program addresses. The following part has been included in order to provide detailed information about adolescents so that the revised program would better be evaluated in terms of its suitability to secondary school learners.

2.7. The Characteristics of Adolescent Learners

According to psychologist Erik Erikson (1968) adolescence is a stage in human life between childhood (6-10 years) and early adulthood (18-34 years) during which young people are in a search of identity. Adolescents are the most varied group of learners in the education system. They have different social, cultural and intellectual backgrounds. Therefore, it is really hard for teachers to organize a classroom atmosphere in which each and every learner would feel secure, encouraged and comfortable. To do so, it is essential that personal, social and intellectual features of the adolescents be understood.

The personal dimension of the adolescence shows that adolescents need to feel connected and fulfilled, that is, they believe that they can exceed the expectations of others (Kessler, 2000). On the other hand, Crawford (2007) claims that they feel discouraged in the case of a failure. Therefore, appropriate challenge factor is suggested to be included in learning environments. In this regard, Crawford (2007) thinks that their cognitive and affective capabilities are challenged when connections are made between difficult content areas and their personal experiences. As an extension of this, it can be said that the activities that reflect real-life should be included in the curricula.

Another essential point is that adolescents need to develop a sense of empowerment over their own learning management, which means that learning environment should be organized in a way to facilitate autonomy. Benson (2013) suggests that the key to facilitate learner autonomy is to enable learners to take greater control of their learning in almost every aspect of a learning environment. These aspects vary from teacher to curriculum and classroom practices. Involving the learners into decision-making process about the topic of assignments, for example, making them aware of the goals of instruction, giving them the opportunity to voice their opinion about a task, making them feel that their preferences and interests are valued are just a couple of ways to foster autonomy.

An important feature of adolescence from social perspective is the great importance attached to what others think. To put it differently, adolescents' well-being mostly depends on the opinions of the people around them, especially their peers'. They are eager to learn both what their peers think about them and what their opinions are about social events. Therefore, they should be encouraged to voice their opinions through persuasive writing, debating, role-playing etc (Crawford, 2007). Besides, it is essential that the instruction promote collaboration and cooperation in learners. In this regard, secondary school teachers are suggested to employ group activities and collaborative projects in which learners interact with their peers (Lambert & McCombs, 1998).

When it comes to the intellectual capacity of the adolescents, there are numerous points to consider. To begin with, adolescents are eager to produce solutions to problems, to share their viewpoint and to talk about abstract concepts. They are good at discovering the connection between the two separate events and can explain their reasoning (Ormond, 2000). Besides they successfully relate the new information with what they previously know (Flavell, 1992). Therefore, the instruction should follow an order in which the new information is built on the previous ones and the relationship between them should be made clear. Another intellectual feature of adolescents is that while they give priority to the perspectives of others, they pay attention to their own inner world, as well. As stated before, they are in search of an identity. They constantly try new things, judge their own reaction and reflect upon their experiences. Research shows that they do the same thing in terms of learning purposes (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000; Lambert & McCombs, 1998). During this period, they try different learning strategies and measure their impact on learning. Therefore, Lambert and McCombs (1998) conclude that adolescents are reflective learners. In this regard, it is suggested that the instruction be varied in terms of techniques

and materials. Since each and every individual has distinct and different background, it would not be appropriate to expect that they would respond uniformly to one style of teaching, one mode of assessment, one curriculum or one cultural perspective (Crawford, 2007). Utilizing different techniques and materials will provide learners with the opportunity to test their learning in different circumstances. Moreover, they should be provided with situations to self-evaluate themselves so that their reflective thinking would develop.

All in all, adolescents have distinct learning characteristics which need to be paid attention for effective teaching. So far, we have covered the basics of adolescent learners for whom the revised program has been prepared. In the light of the information presented in this section, we believe that the revised program will better be understood.

2.8. Revised Secondary School English Program

As previously stated, Turkish Ministry of Education initiated a significant revision in its foreign language policy. Following the global tendency of lowering the age for learning a foreign language (Garton, 2014; Nguyen, 2011), the Ministry of Education decided to introduce learners to English in the 2nd grade. Accordingly, a new program which includes English as a compulsory school subject for the 2nd and 3th grades was designed (MoNE, 2017). The updates and the revisions done in the Primary School English Program resulted in a revision in the Secondary School English Program, as well. The revised program is significant in terms of the following aspects.

To begin with, the revised program adopts an action-oriented approach which views English as a vehicle of communication rather than a subject of instruction (MoNE, 2018). In action-oriented approach learners are described as members of a society who have tasks to accomplish. In order to do so, they are induced to use English in its social context and for communication purposes. Therefore, they should be provided with activities within social context which require the use of language for interaction. In this regard, linguistic functions such as telling the time, making an invitation, ordering food etc. are embedded in activities which reflect social life (MoNE, 2018). Lier (2007) reveals that action-oriented approach is a combination of social-interactive and cognitive-reflective dimension. That is, action-oriented approach suggests a program design which fosters metacognition and reflective thinking in addition to interaction and communication. Therefore, it is essential

the learners be encouraged to take initiative for learning, be aware of their learning strategies and reflect on their learning process. All of these are possible with integrating the necessary activities and objectives into the curriculum, designing the learning process in a stimulating way and utilizing the suitable materials.

Next, the revised program supports the integration of four skills by giving the emphasis on communication rather than the grammatical structures. Lack of communicative competence has remained to be the problem of the learners in Turkey for years. In order to overcome this obstacle, the policymakers have decided to replace the previous program with one that aims to make learners successful communicators who can express themselves properly. Therefore, four skills are integrated with the emphasis is on speaking and listening skills to enable learners to practice communication and real life use of language (MoNE, 2018). Target vocabulary items are not provided since it would lead learners to rote memorization. Instead, meaningful learning which includes learning the vocabulary items within the related context together with appropriate collocations is emphasized. In this vein, the curriculum suggests to present maximum seven new vocabulary items per lesson. The teachers and the material developers are advised to select the target vocabulary items considering the needs of the learners and the topic of the theme. Language structures are not given emphasis throughout the curriculum. Rather, limited study of some complex language structures are dispersed within the curriculum (MoNE, 2018), which necessitates the presentation of them through reading and listening instead of as separate items. Oxford (2001) claims that learners are more exposed to real English through integrated teaching, which suggests the idea that English is not merely a school subject but a medium of communication for real-life purposes. Accordingly, Lucan (1981) states that the integration of four skills helps learners make connections, generalizations and transfer knowledge to different real-life situations. Considering the intellectual features of adolescent learners, it can be concluded that integrated approach is quite suitable in that it enhances reasoning in adolescent learners.

Another point to consider in the new program is that it employs a thematic organization of the units. According to Crawford (2007) thematic unit organization helps adolescent learners make thematic connections related to language and social life. When they learn the language within a related theme, language learning would be more meaningful and coherent. Themes provide a framework not only for teachers, but for learners as well. It would be easier for learners to understand why they are doing what they are doing. In turn,

they would better make transfer from one context to another as long as meaningful connections are built between skills and themes (Lipson, Valencia, Wixson & Peter, 1993). Another advantage of teaching with themes is that it encourages depth and breadth in learning (Pappas, Kiefer & Levstick, 1990). When learners focus on a certain theme through the integration of four skills, they would be more knowledgeable about that subject. Moreover, thematic organization has the additional benefit of promoting metacognitive awareness (Pappas et al, 1990). The opportunity of studying a theme deeply helps learners be aware of the knowledge and skill needed to learn, which results in recognizing and employing different learning strategies.

In the revised program the order of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages has been adopted to meet the needs of the learners. Council of Europe defines the CEFR as follows:

> The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis (Council of Europe, 2001, p.1).

That is, CEFR is a document which sets the standards for language learning. CEFR also defines the proficiency levels in language learning under the three branches as A for basic users, B for independent users and C for proficient users (Council of Europe, 2001). The levels are determined in order to create a common language among the course providers and examination organizers. What a language learner can do at each level has been specified in the "global scale" (Council of Europe, 2001, p.24).

CEFR has been developed within the paradigms of action-oriented approach. Action-oriented approach regards language as a means for communication and language users as "social agents" who have tasks to accomplish by using the language (Council of Europe, 2001, p 9). Therefore, in the global scale the CEFR levels have been designed to include these tasks and the attention has been directed to the fulfillment of the functions in order to move on the further levels.

In the revised secondary school program, students are accepted as A1/A2 level learners in the 9th grade and they are expected to graduate from the high school as B2+ level learners (MoNE, 2018). Even though students are aimed to be at A2 level when they graduate from

the 8th grade, they are accepted as A1 level learners when they start the high school depending on the differences in their background knowledge. For that reason, 9th grade can be seen as a threshold level during which a general wrap-up of primary school English curriculum can be done. The new program reveals that 9th grade teachers can be flexible depending on the background levels of their students. While some 9th grade learners may have a lower proficiency level, others may need less revision and more new input. In that case, the new program proposes that the teachers can adjust the difficulty level of the input according to the needs of the learners. However, it is underlined in the new program that 9th grade A1 level is more advanced in terms of the vocabulary and language structures it includes when compared to the A1 level in the primary school so that the learners would receive new input while revising the previous classes at the same time. Below is shown the CEFR levels intended for the learners to have at each grade:

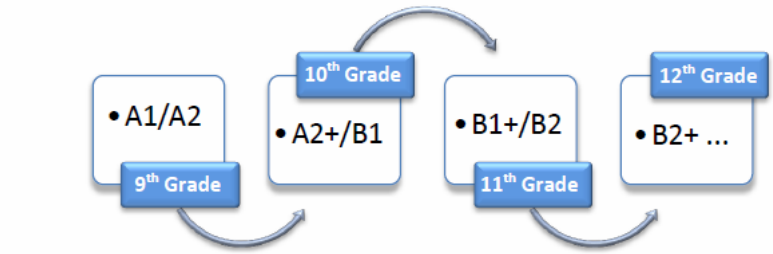


Figure 1. CEFR levels for each grade in secondary school. Ministry of National Education (2018). English Language Curriculum for Secondary School. Retrieved from http://mufredat. meb.gov.tr/ ProgramDetay. aspx?PID=342

The figure shows that as learners progress through the 12th grade, the level of proficiency gets higher and they are intended to graduate from the high school with a minimum CEFR B2+ level.

In terms of the suggested materials, the new program offers diversity from printed materials such as audio transcripts, brochures, newspapers to multimedia as DVDs, CDs, movies etc. Considering the numerous benefits of digital materials in terms of capturing the interest of the adolescents (Crawford, 2007), fostering autonomy (Reinders & Hubbard, 2012; Stepp-Greany,2002; Warschauer & Kern, 2000), boosting creativity (Vinagrodova, 2011), contextualizing learning (Gee & Hayes,2011), supporting motivation (Gee, 2003), presenting authentic language (Egbert, Hanson-Smith, & Chao, 2007; Lee, 2002), increasing participation (Şimşek, 2008) and more the authorities have decided to integrate multimedia tools into the program. In addition to encouraging the use of Internet and communication technologies in language learning, the program developers have integrated

topics like the importance of netiquette and the effective use of Internet into the curriculum in order to maximize the benefits of the use of technology. Thus, the learners would be conscious of the Internet usage and develop language learning at the same time. Along with the pedagogical benefits, Tomlinson (2003) argues that preferred instructional materials be attractive, authentic and culture-sensitive. Considering the easily distracted nature of the adolescents, the material developers are suggested to prepare materials that are both appealing and didactic.

Another point to mention about the revised curriculum is that it includes a mixture of alternative and traditional assessment. So far traditional assessment methods such as multiple question tests, fill-in items etc. have mostly been utilized for assessment. However, the need for the better assessment of the learner performance has required the integration of the alternative assessment methods into the program. Alternative assessment, which is also referred as authentic assessment, performance assessment, portfolio assessment and indirect assessment (Garcia & Pearson, 1994) means the evaluation of learners' performance through activities and tasks that represent curricula and real-life situations (Ataç, 2012). Oral interviews, writing samples, teacher observation, portfolios, projects and demonstrations are means of alternative assessment (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). Alternative assessment is different from traditional assessment in that it is based on the actual performances of the learners rather than the learners' responses to indirect means of assessment. Moreover, through alternative assessment learners can be assessed over time and therefore teachers have information about learners' progress throughout the instruction process. However, traditional assessment methods are one-shot in nature and they focus on the weaknesses of the learners on a specific subject. Therefore, they lack in providing ample information about the efficiency of the instruction. Considering all these drawbacks of employing a single method of assessment and the benefits of alternative assessment, the program developers integrated authentic assessment into the revised program. It is stated in the new program that there has been a mismatch between the nature of language learning process and assessment types. In other words, even if the instruction process includes communicative activities learners cannot be communicatively competent as long as their output is not assessed communicatively. Therefore, it is underlined that the dynamic, interactive and communicative nature of language use should be reflected in assessment. However, when the realities of our country –overpopulated classrooms, restricted class hours etc.- are taken into consideration, it can be argued that employing

only alternative assessment tools would be far from practicality. Hence the revised program suggests the combination of traditional and authentic assessment.

When the overall structure of the revised program and the press release about the program revision (MoNE, 2017) are considered, it can be concluded that the revision focuses on enabling learners to be reflective, autonomous and competent as a learner in general and a language learner in particular. Throughout the history of the foreign language policy of Turkey, it is clearly seen that concrete steps like lowering the age for learning foreign language, putting emphasis on communication, integrating multimedia tools and alternative assessment into instruction have been taken. However, evaluation of its components like outcome statements and coursebook activities is necessary order to make a strong comment about the efficiency of the revised program. For that reason, this study aims at determining the level of alliance between the outcome statements and the coursebook activites in terms of fostering metacognition and higher order thinking skills of the secondary school learners through Bloom's revised taxonomy.

2.7. Previous Studies Related to Program Evaluation

Since "evaluation is at the heart of a program" (Rea Dickins & Germaine, 1998, p.8), the literature is rich with program evaluation studies. In fact, program evaluation studies became one of the trend research areas after 2007 following the revision of the programs (Kurt & Erdoğan, 2015). Having reviewed the literature, we can state that program evaluation studies vary in terms of its scope, duration and focus. Some studies involve only teachers as participants and employ a single research methodology (e.g. Topkaya & Küçük, 2010) while others utilize multiple resources (e.g. Gürlen & Cihan, 2013; Peacock, 2009). It is believed that making an overall examination of the previous studies will illuminate the way of design related to the current study.

To start with, a longitudinal and detailed program evaluation study was conducted by Peacock (2009) with the aim of identifying the strengths and the weaknesses of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) program at the City University of Hong Kong. Questionnaires, interviews, essays and program documents provided a large amount of data for the study. The researcher constructed a questionnaire of 22 items by reviewing the literature. 65 junior students answered the questionnaire. Besides, individual interviews were held with 101 junior students. In the interviews students were asked for their opinions

about the strengths and weaknesses of the program and how it can be improved. Also, eight program teachers were interviewed. On the other hand, 35 third-year students expressed their opinions about whether the program reflects its philosophy through essays. Program documents were also analyzed by the researcher and a program teacher in order to determine the balance between pedagogical competence, linguistic competence and managerial competence provided in the courses. Lastly, short questionnaires were posted to alumni but only 20% of them were responded. The study provided valuable insights from the students, teachers and the former graduates. The analysis of the student questionnaires and interviews showed that the biggest limitation of the program was its being a three-year-long program. Students suggested that the program be extended to four years and courses for linguistic improvement and teaching practice be included. In fact. the program included practicum but it was not adequate as expressed by the students. This suggestion was backed up by the findings of the teacher interviews. The teachers stated that there was a balance between linguistic competence and managerial competence courses. According to the teachers, the program needs to promote the culture of teaching and sociological awareness. As for the strengths of the program, they expressed that the program promotes teacher reflection, teacher education and self-evaluation. The findings from the alumni questionnaires indicated that the program needs to be improved in terms of student counseling, information technology and classroom management courses.

Another program evaluation study was conducted by Topkaya and Küçük (2010) with the aim of revealing teachers' opinions about the 2006 English program for grades 4 and 5. Data were collected from 72 teachers -51 female, 21 male- in Istanbul through questionnaires. According to the findings, the teachers had positive opinions about the program but they found some aspects of the program inadequate. They stated that the implementation of the program was problematic due to overcrowded classes, loaded content and restricted class hours. Besides, they expressed that most of the schools did not have the necessary materials to conduct the activities properly. Therefore, they suggested stakeholders consider the realities of the country when designing a program. Also, teachers should receive more in-service training for successful implementation of the program.

One more evaluation study of the 5th grade English program, which was launched in 2006, belongs to Gürlen and Cihan (2013). The program was evaluated in terms of its content, suggested teaching and assessment strategies. The study adopted a mixed-method research design. Quantitative data were collected from 288 English teachers who worked in Ankara

during 2008-2009 educational term through surveys and qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews with 9 teachers. The findings revealed that the teachers found the statements of the objectives and the materials suitable for the intellectual level of the learners. Besides, when compared to the previous program, teachers expressed that the 2016 program were more learner-centered. However, they stated their concern for inadequate lesson hours and suggested that more time be allocated to study English more effectively. Also, they expressed that there were several suggested measurement and assessment tools in the program but the samples were not adequate. Therefore, it was suggested that more examples be provided in the next programs in order to ensure intelligibility.

A detailed study carried out by Fırat (2016) aimed at finding out whether the preparatory school programs followed by two state and two foundation universities in Ankara foster the learner autonomy. Program documents, syllabi and student handbooks were analyzed through content analysis and interviews were conducted with five instructors from each university. The programs were evaluated according to a framework developed by Reinders (2010). The findings indicated that the programs foster learner autonomy mostly or partly depending on the eight subcategories of the framework. It was revealed that only the third subcategory, which was about the freedom of selecting the materials, did not support learner autonomy. The findings related to the interviews with twenty participants showed the suggestions of the instructors about the redesign of learner portfolios, flexibility of assessment and self-assessment.

In her study Celen (2016) aimed to evaluate the practicum program in English language teaching department at a state university in terms of determining its strengths and weaknesses and to what extent it achieves English language teacher competencies. Data were collected from the surveys and the interviews. The answers that pre-service and in-service teachers provided to surveys were analyzed. Moreover, one-on-one interviews with the supervisors and focus group interviews with pre-service teachers were conducted. The findings revealed that practicum programs are beneficial for raising the awareness of student teachers in terms of assessment practices in the classroom and effective selection of learner activities. The strengths of the program were determined as classroom experiences at different grade levels, peer feedback, seminar discussions and good relationships with cooperating teachers while suggestions emphasized an earlier implementation of the course.

In the study conducted by Kandemir (2016) second grade English program was evaluated through participant oriented program evaluation approach. Mixed-method research design was preferred. The researcher developed a semi-structured individual interview form, semi-structured focus group interview form and a semi-structured classroom observation form. In the qualitative part of the research, six individual interviews with teachers, one individual interview with the school principal and two focus group interviews with students were carried out. Moreover, four different classes -16 hours for each- were observed. In the quantitative part, 104 English teachers participated to the survey which was designed to learn their opinions about the different aspects of the program. At the completion of the study, it was found out that the teachers had positive opinions about the program as long as some modifications regarding the lesson hours, materials and technological facilities be made.

An evaluation of the teacher education program at Farhangian University in Iran (Gholami & Qurbanzada, 2016) revealed significant findings. The aim of the study was to determine the relevance of the teacher education courses to real teaching contexts. Data collected from the three groups of the key stakeholders -pre-service teachers, in-service teachers and teacher educators- through Foreign Language Teacher Program Evaluation Questionnaire adapted from Peacock (2009). According to the results, there were some particular courses about which the three groups had different opinions. For example, a course named as 'Study Skills' was found to be irrelevant to real teaching contexts by pre-service and in-service teachers. However, the teacher educators believed that the course was necessary for efficient learning since the course content involved how to study efficiently, how to look up a word in a dictionary etc. Another disagreement belonged to the 'Phonology' course. While pre-service teachers considered the course necessary, the other two groups of stakeholders expressed that it was irrelevant and therefore be excluded from the program. As for the suggestions of the participants, all three groups expressed that practicum and classroom observation courses be included in the program.

Another program evaluation study was carried out in order to determine the quality of Measurement and Evaluation course in English language teaching department at a state university (Karakuş & Türkkan, 2017). The study was designed as a case study and adopted a qualitative research framework. 19 pre-service teachers who had taken the Measurement and Evaluation course and 5 lecturers who had taught the Measurement and Evaluation course at least for one year were interviewed. Data obtained from the

interviews were analyzed through content analysis. The findings revealed that the students were aware of the aims and attainments of the Measurement and Evaluation course. They found the content of the course comprehensive enough to get benefit throughout their teaching practices. Besides, they expressed the need for including a specific part to the course content titled as 'measurement instruments peculiar to the subject area' because they believed that they should learn how to conduct and evaluate vocabulary, reading and writing tests. Lecturers, on the other hand, stated the need for cooperating with the other departments.

Regarding the findings of the previous studies it can be concluded that program evaluation studies provide the researchers and the other stakeholders (teachers, program developers, material designers and students) with valuable findings about the efficiency of the programs. When the scope of the previous studies was analyzed, it was detected that some studies employed only one aspect of the program such as the quality of a course content while others had a wider scope. Besides, most of the studies utilized the opinions of the teachers and learners regarding the quality of the program (Celen, 2016; Gürlen & Cihan, 2013; Karakuş & Türkkan, 2017; Topkaya &Küçük, 2010) whereas only a limited number of them employed a structured framework in the literature when analyzing the program documents. (Fırat, 2016; Gholami & Qurbanzada, 2016). Therefore, in this study data will be collected from only the program documents (general aims, outcome statements, coursebook activities) and the collected data will be analyzed according to the framework of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy the structure of which provides a clear and visual alignment between the objectives, activities and assessment (Krathwohl, 2002).

2.8. The Role of Coursebooks in English Language Teaching

Ur (1996) defines coursebooks as textbooks of which the teacher and each student has a copy and which need to be followed systematically. Being the most frequently used instructional materials, coursebooks are indispensable both for the teachers and the students. Roberts (1996) claim that English Language Teaching (ELT) is a discipline that depends on a textbook to construct language practice, language theory and course content. This is true especially for Turkey where English is taught as a foreign language and as suggested by Arıkan (2008), curriculum is highly dependent on coursebooks. No matter how well-organized a language program is, without a coursebook there is always something missing. The advantages of coursebooks can be stated as follows:

First of all, as suggested by Ur (1996), coursebooks provide a structure to be followed. They focus on the important aspects of a language rather than trivial points. A coursebook which presents the necessary points in an organized way provides the learners with a framework to follow, which enables the teachers to use the instruction time efficiently. A coursebook which is in complete harmony with the curriculum outcomes serves as a concrete tool of the curriculum. When the teachers are equipped with a tool which serves as a concrete syllabus, they feel more secure (Cunningsworth, 1985). This is important especially for inexperienced teachers since they may feel confused when they cannot decide how to cover and organize the content. Not only the teachers but also the learners feel better when they have concrete material at hand. When they do not understand a point, learners use their coursebook as a reference source particularly for grammar and pronunciation (Cunningsworth, 1985).

Next, coursebooks serve as tangible proof of the learning process. As suggested by Tomlinson (2003) "a coursebook helps provide a route map both for teachers and learners, making it possible for them to look ahead to what will be done in a lesson as well as to look back on what has been done" (p.39). Moreover, coursebooks provide consistency in instruction. They promote the standardization both for presentation of the activities and assessment of the learning outcomes. Abdelwahab (2013) points out to this issue saying that "coursebooks can guarantee that students in different classes will receive similar content; therefore, they can be evaluated in the same way" (p.55). This is important particularly for the learners who come from different backgrounds. Regarding the aim of the Turkish Ministry of National Education to provide learners with equal opportunities of learning, it can be inferred that coursebooks serve this aim.

Another advantage of coursebooks for learners is that they pave the way for autonomy. Learners may have an idea about what they are going to cover in the next lesson so that they make necessary preparations. Moreover, by recycling the previous units and doing the additional tasks and activities in the coursebooks, they regulate the process according to their own needs and speed. Therefore, as suggested by Ur (1996) a learner without a coursebook is more teacher dependent.

All in all, the role of coursebooks in English language teaching can be summarized by Cunningsworth (1995, p.67) as follows: "Coursebooks are an effective resource for self-directed learning, presenting materials, as a reference for the students, a syllabus that

reflects the aims of the course and source of security for inexperienced teachers". However, the coursebooks which are not qualified enough to serve the instructional purposes may turn all above-mentioned advantages into potential disadvantages. These disadvantages, according to Richards (2001, p.255-256), are as follows:

When teachers depend heavily on the coursebooks, they possibly lose their instructional skills in time. However, as suggested by Grant (1987) it is the teacher who has the power to arrange, replace and adapt the activities in a coursebook depending on the needs and interests of the learners. In this regard, Cunningsworth (1995, p.7) says that; "It is generally accepted that the role of the coursebook is to be at the service of the teachers and the learners but not to be their master". After all, teaching a language does not necessarily mean teaching from a coursebook. Next, the coursebooks which contain inauthentic language do not adequately serve EFL purposes. In EFL countries, in which learners do not have the opportunity to practice the language in real life, instructional materials serve as the main source of input in addition to the teachers. Therefore, they should be designed efficiently so that learners would get the utmost benefit. Otherwise, it is a high probability that learners would fail because of inadequate and artificial input. Additionally, the coursebooks that do not reflect the learners' needs would not capture their interests as well, which would lead to failure in language learning.

2.9. Reasons for Coursebook Evaluation

It is beyond doubt that coursebooks serve as the backbone of foreign language materials in EFL classes. Therefore, as McGrath (2002) suggests, it influences what teachers teach and what learners learn. Since coursebooks have such an important role in shaping foreign language learning, coursebook evaluation has become an indispensible part of the field. The literature provides different viewpoints regarding the reasons of coursebook evaluation.

Sheldon (1987), for instance, claims that evaluation does not merely serve the practical aim for selecting the best material which is the most appropriate for teaching. According to him, materials evaluation has also an awareness raising role for teachers in terms of the nature of language teaching. Teachers establish their priorities in language teaching through materials evaluation. It is quite unlikely that a coursebook as a language teaching material is ideal in terms of each and every aspect of language teaching such as

methodology, content, design, organization etc. Following the evaluation, teachers may identify the weak and strong aspects of the material and have an idea about which criterion is more important than others. Taking into consideration the needs and expectations of the learners, they make a decision, which ultimately develops their awareness in language teaching. Moreover, they have an idea about which features of a given coursebook are better and which unsatisfactory features are easier to remedy. From this perspective, materials evaluation brings a positive view to language classes by contributing to the potential strengths of the coursebooks (Sheldon, 1987).

The awareness building role of materials evaluation in teachers is pointed out by Gearing (1999), as well. He suggests that while evaluating the material, the teachers get more knowledgeable about the content since they get more familiar with the material through analyzing both the activities and the overall organization of the coursebook. As a result, it can be claimed that materials evaluation makes both the materials and the teachers more efficient for instruction.

According to Cunningsworth (1995) there are several reasons for materials evaluation. First, evaluation takes place mostly for adaptation purposes. Secondly, evaluation is conducted in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the material. Then the weaknesses can be eliminated through adaptation or substitution**.** The aim of coursebook evaluation in the current study serves this aim of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the coursebook activities with regard to developing higher order thinking skills and metacognition in learners.

2.10. Coursebook Evaluation Policy in the Context of Turkey

In Turkey, coursebooks are delivered to state schools and evaluated by the MoNE. The evaluation is conducted by National Board of Education which is an official institution responsible for evaluating and approving the programs and educational materials. The details of coursebook evaluation process conducted by National Board of Education are as follows:

First, the coursebooks that will be evaluated are subjected to pre-evaluation. In the process of pre-evaluation, the coursebook is evaluated in terms of including the supplementary materials (i.e. workbook, teacher's book etc.) portrait of Atatürk, the Turkish flag, the Turkish national anthem in addition to the curriculum vitae of the author. When the

coursebook is approved for panelist evaluation, it is sent to the panelists who have been trained for evaluation by National Board of Education previously. The panelists are chosen from the teachers with at least 5-year-teaching-experience and from the field experts who hold a PhD degree at least. Each panelist evaluates the coursebook independently. The coursebooks are evaluated in terms of four criteria which are appropriateness for constitution, being scientific, fulfilling the objectives in the program and its visual and organizational structure. Following the evaluation of the coursebook regarding these four criteria, panelists upload their evaluation report to the database. Then, a date is announced for the panelists to discuss and defend their viewpoints related to the evaluation face to face. Next, the coursebook is subjected to a scale of 0-3 points. The coursebooks that receive at least 2 points from four criteria each are accepted for another evaluation conducted by the teachers and experts at National Board of Education. When it is approved, it becomes the coursebook for the next five years following the evaluation. Therefore, it can be claimed that teachers who would use the coursebook later do not have a say about its being appropriate or not. However, they have the opportunity to state the errors and deficiencies in the coursebook while using it. National Board of Education makes the necessary revision taking into consideration the feedback of the teachers. The revised version can be assessed on Education Informatics Network (EBA).

As it is clear from the information given about the coursebook selection and evaluation policy of Turkey, teachers can express their viewpoints about the weaknesses even after the coursebook is in use. Therefore, knowing how to evaluate the coursebooks is necessary in terms of identifying its strengths and weaknesses and making necessary adaptations.

2.11. Ways of Evaluating Coursebooks

The literature suggests different models for coursebook evaluation ranging from using a checklist to adopting a specific perspective. Information about different ways of coursebook evaluation is presented below.

2.11.1.Cunningsworth's Framework for Coursebook Evaluation

According to Cunningsworth (1995) the best way to conduct a coursebook evaluation is to prepare your own checklist based on the needs of the learners and the features of the coursebook evaluated. A checklist is an instrument which enables teachers to evaluate the

material in a practical way. In addition to ensuring practicality, Cunningsworth (1995) states that checklists systematize the evaluation procedure. In this regard, he offers a reference checklist composed of eight subtitles which address eight discrete areas in evaluation (1995, p.3). These subtitles and their focus points are (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.3):

- Aims and approaches: The questions under this subtitle aim to evaluate the coursebook in terms of detecting its alignment with the program objectives and learner needs. Since the current study focuses on identifying the level of consistency between the coursebook activities and program outcomes in terms of developing higher order thinking skills and metacognition in learners, it can be claimed that the perspective held in this item is in line with the aim of the current study. However, instead of Cunningworth's quick-reference checklist, this study employs Bloom's revised taxonomy table (Anderson et al., 2001) and the adapted version of a verb list developed by Stanny (2016).

- Design and organization: The sequence and organization of the content is evaluated in terms of their appropriateness for learners.

- Language content: This area aims at determining to what extent the coursebook is efficient in providing the grammatical structures, vocabulary items and pronunciation work addressing the learners' needs.

- Skills: The questions under this subtitle aim at finding out the coverage of four skills and their integration level.

- Topic: The topics of the activities are subjected to evaluation regarding their efficiency for building awareness in learners and capturing their interest.

- Methodology: The methodology adopted in the coursebook, the techniques and strategies used for presenting language items are evaluated. The evaluation is conducted based on the goals of the program and the needs of the learners.

- Teacher's books: In addition to the main coursebooks, the teacher's books are also evaluated since they are designed to guide the teachers through providing the appropriate techniques.

- Practical considerations: A coursebook with a sound content organization and methodology cannot be labeled as an ideal coursebook as long as it is not durable, easy to obtain and cost-effective. That's why practical considerations are also included in the checklist.

Studying the items in the checklist, one can state that Cunningsworth provides a comprehensive and systematic reference tool for coursebook evaluation.

2.11.2. Grant's Framework for Coursebook Evaluation

According to Grant (1987, p.119) "coursebook evaluation is an ongoing process which includes three stages as initial evaluation, detailed evaluation and in-use evaluation".

In initial evaluation teachers are only engaged in the preface and contents of the book. The purpose is to determine whether it is worth looking at more closely. In this regard, Grant suggests a practical test called "CATALYST". In the acronym, each letter represents a criterion which needs to be investigated in evaluation:

- Communicative
- Aims
- Teachability
- Availability
- Level
- Your impression
- Student interest
- Trying and testing

In the stage of detailed evaluation, the coursebook is evaluated in terms of its suitability to the aims and learners' needs. In order to ensure quality in coursebooks, in-use evaluation which means conducting constant evaluations at regular intervals is necessary (Grant, 1987).

2.11.3. Mc Donough and Shaw's Framework for Coursebook Evaluation

Mc Donough and Shaw (1993) suggest conducting a coursebook evaluation in three stages as external, internal and overall evaluation.

According to their framework of evaluation, external evaluation is related to evaluating the coursebook in terms of its cover, supplementary materials and contents table. Mc Donough and Shaw (1993, p.62) claim that the answers to following questions can be accessed through external evaluation (Mc Donough & Shaw,1993, p. 65-66):

- Who is the intended audience?
- What is the level of the learners?
- Is the coursebook for general users of English or English for specific purposes?
- Is the organization of the themes/ units in line with the program?

Moreover, external evaluation provides answers to more detailed questions such as:

- Are there any supplementary materials (i.e. teacher's book, videos, posters etc.)?
- Are there any supplementary tests for learners (diagnostic, progress, achievement) and are they appropriate for their level?
- Is there a vocabulary list?
- Is the layout clear and interesting?
- Is the coursebook culturally biased?
- Does the coursebook represent the minority groups in a balanced way or in a negative way?

Once the external evaluation is completed and the evaluators think that the coursebook is suitable for use and adaptation, internal evaluation begins (Mc Donough & Shaw, 1993). Unlike the external evaluation, internal evaluation focuses on the presentation and nature of skills and activities. The answers for following questions can be provided through internal evaluation:

- Are the four skills covered adequately and in an integrated way?
- Are the reading texts appropriate for learners in terms of their length and topic?

- Are the listening texts authentic or artificial?
- Do the speaking tasks offer real or artificial dialogues?
- Do the activities address learners with different learning styles?

Following the external and internal evaluation, overall evaluation takes place for determining the overall suitability of the material. There are four parameters to consider in overall evaluation (Mc Donough & Shaw,1993, p.70):

- The usability factor: Is the coursebook applicable for particular program?
- The generalizability factor: It would not be realistic to expect that a coursebook be suitable wholly for an individual or a group of learners. However, it would be possible to consider that some parts can be generalized to different groups of learners. In that case, the following factor takes the stage.
- The adaptability factor: It is expected that some parts of the activities be shortened, added or extracted in order to make them appropriate for the learners.
- The flexibility factor: It is important that the material be not rigid in use. In other words, it can be flexible enough to be integrated into different programs.

To sum up, it can be said that Mc Donough and Shaw provide a detailed evaluation framework for language coursebooks.

2.11.4. Hutchinson's Framework for Coursebook Evaluation

According to Hutchinson (1987) coursebook evaluation is a matching process. That is, the material should match with the needs of the intended audience. The procedure for evaluation is made up of four stages (Sheldon, 1987, p.41):

1- Define the criteria on which the evaluation will be based.

2- Analyze the nature and the underlying principles of the particular teaching/learning situation.

3- Analyze the nature and the underlying principles of the coursebook.

4- Compare the findings.

The intention of this type of coursebook evaluation is to ensure the consistency between the coursebook and the needs of the learners.

2.11.5. Ellis's Framework for Coursebook Evaluation

Ellis offers two types of materials evaluation named as predictive and retrospective evaluation (1996). Predictive evaluation is conducted in the case of selecting the best material from among many. As its name suggests, the aim is to guess the future performance of the material in terms of its suitability to learners. Ellis (1996) states that the efficiency of a material can be understood in two ways. One is through relying on the previous evaluations carried out by experts. The other is through using guidelines or a ready-made checklist varieties of which can be assessed easily (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1984; Mc Donough & Shaw, 1993). This way, a more systematic evaluation can be carried out.

Retrospective evaluation, on the other hand, is undertaken with the aim of identifying the efficiency of the material and whether it is worth to use again. It can be said that retrospective evaluation is conducted to test the validity of predictive evaluation. Ellis (1996) observed that there are few studies related to retrospective evaluation. He showed the reason as its being a comprehensive and daunting task for teachers. As a solution, he offered two approaches called as micro evaluation and macro evaluation.

In micro evaluation, a specific part of the material is selected and evaluated in detail. It serves as a way of action research which contributes to teacher development (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Micro evaluation sets the stage for macro evaluation which is the detailed evaluation of the overall material.

To conclude, the literature provides different models and viewpoints regarding the coursebook evaluation. It is quite natural that a single model cannot completely address the context of the material and the needs of the learners. Therefore, teachers are suggested to be flexible in terms of selecting the most appropriate model and making the necessary adaptations when carrying out the coursebook evaluation.

2.12. Educational Objectives and Curriculum Development

The answers to the following four questions play the major role in curriculum development. These are:

1) What educational purposes or objectives should be included in the curriculum?
2) What learning experiences can be provided to fulfill these objectives?
3) How should the learning experiences be organized in a way which helps learners contextualize the learning effectively and meaningfully?
4) How can the efficiency of learning experiences be evaluated?

According to Anderson et al. (1956) educational objectives are the statements which express the changes that are aimed to be made in learners. These changes range from the changes in thinking to learning and behavior. It is possible that many changes, both favorable and unfavorable, occur in learners during the learning process. What is critical is that the major objectives of the curriculum be clearly identified so that time and effort would not be wasted. Therefore, it takes a conscious effort and planning to determine the educational objectives. Various sources of information are utilized during the process of curriculum development. One of them is provided from the information about the learners which can be gained through the answers of the questions such as "What is their present level of development, what are their needs and interests? etc." Secondly, the demands that the community put on the learners should be taken into consideration. In that scope, the question "what are the things that are expected from the learners to perform?" guides the curriculum developers. Lastly, the nature of the subject matter is accepted as another source of information. The nature of the subject matter includes the questions of "What is the conception of the subject matter? What are the contributions of the subject matter to the learners and to the other subjects?" When these three sources of information are utilized, identifying the educational objectives would be more effective (Anderson et al., 1956).

2.13. Historical Development of the Taxonomy

The idea for building a taxonomy for classifying the educational objectives was formed at an informal meeting of college examiners attending the 1948 American Psychological Association Convention in Boston. Benjamin Bloom, Lorin Anderson, Max Engelhart, Walker Hill, David Krathwohl and Edward Furst were delegated for this task. After the long discussions it was agreed that the taxonomy should be an educational, logical, psychological classification system. Its educational part means that the borders between categories should be related to the distinctions teachers make in planning curricula and organizing the learning activities. Its being logical means that the terms related to the taxonomy should be clear and understandable. Finally, its psychological dimension means

that the taxonomy should be consistent with accepted psychological principles and theories.

Originally, the team planned to develop a classification system which has cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Later, they directed their attention only to the cognitive domain which deals with the recall and recognition of the knowledge and the intellectual skills because most of the work in curriculum development is related to this part. In that scope, they determined the categories, divided them into subcategories and defined them precisely in order to ease the communication between the teachers, material designers, administrators and anyone who would likely to use the taxonomy. The categories in the taxonomy follow a hierarchical order from simple to complex. This is based on the idea that two simple behaviors would form a complex behavior. Thus, an objective which falls into the synthesis category is more difficult to achieve than an objective in the comprehension category.

Having determined the categories and the subcategories, the team subjected them to a number of tests in order to make the taxonomy more comprehensive, valid and responsive to the needs of the teachers. In that scope, communicability was prioritized and the team worked on the classification of several objectives. Some alterations related to the categories and the subcategories were made as a result of the disagreements on the classification of the objectives. In addition to communicability, the team tried to ensure comprehensiveness which they expressed would never be finally determined. They tried to categorize some statements of objectives from different subjects and they have found out that there are few statements which could not be categorized. Although they had little difficulty in determining the major category within which an educational outcome falls, they stated that they were not satisfied with the subcategories, which served as the reason for revision years later.

2.14. The Structure of the Original Taxonomy

The taxonomy provides six categories in the cognitive domain that are ordered from simple to complex and from concrete to abstract. One has to master in the previous categories in order to step further since it has a hierarchical structure (Krathwohl, 2002).

Figure 2. The structure of the original taxonomy. Kennedy, D. 2007. *Writing and using learning outcomes: A practical guide*. Retrieved from http://lo-hei.net/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/A-Learning-Outcomes-Book-D-Kennedy.pdf.

The original taxonomy focuses on the processes in cognitive learning. With the exception of 'application' stage, the other five stages are divided into subcategories which clarify the meaning and the scope of the main category that they belong to. For example; the first category, knowledge, includes twelve subcategories ranging from knowledge of terminology to knowledge of theories and structures. It is assumed that as one proceeds from 'knowledge' to 'synthesis' and 'evaluation', his capacity of higher order thinking skills improves. Thus, the taxonomy had served as a guideline for teachers, material designers and policy makers when designing the activities, materials and educational standards for years until it was revised by a group of educators led by Bloom's student Lorin Anderson.

The complete structure of the original taxonomy is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Structure of the Original Taxonomy

1.0 Knowledge
1.10 Knowledge of specifics
1.11 Knowledge of terminology
1.12 Knowledge of specific facts
1.20 Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics
1.21 Knowledge of conventions
1.22 Knowledge of trends and sequences
1.23 Knowledge of classifications and categories
1.24 Knowledge of criteria
1.25 Knowledge of methodology
1.30 Knowledge of universals and abstractions in a field
1.31 Knowledge of principles and generalizations
1.32 Knowledge of theories and structures

2.0 Comprehension
2.1 Translation
2.2 Interpretation
2.3 Extrapolation
3.0 Application
4.0 Analysis
4.1 Analysis of elements
4.2 Analysis of relationships
4.3 Analysis of organizational principles
5.0 Synthesis
5.1 Production of a unique communication
5.2 Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations
5.3 Derivation of a set of abstract relations
6.0 Evaluation
6.1 Evaluation in terms of internal evidence
6.2 Judgments in terms of external criteria

Krathwohl, D.R. (2002) A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: An Overview,*Theory Into Practice, 41* (4) 212-218, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

2.14.1. Knowledge

The taxonomy has got a hierarchical structure which goes from simple and concrete to more complex and abstract. Knowledge is the first category which requires remembering a phenomenon or an idea, either by recognition or recall. Being the most common educational objective, knowledge has many subcategories which range from simple to more complex, too. By simple what is meant is the elemental and isolable parts of information such as knowing the capital of a state. Therefore, knowledge of specifics is the first subcategory. The subcategories at the upper end of the category refer to the recall of more complex phenomenon such as the knowledge of theories and structures. While the other five categories involve knowledge, the knowledge category is different from the others in that remembering is the major psychological process in the former but it is only one part of a more complex process in the latter (Anderson et al, 1956).

Knowledge may be justified as an important objective in many ways. First, as the knowledge of an individual increases, his acquaintance with the world increases, too. The acquaintance with the world, as suggested by Anderson et al (1956) covers the knowledge of making an inquiry in different fields, ways of solving a problem or making an organization. Another justification of knowledge category is that knowledge is regarded as the prerequisite of any reality. Here the concept of reality covers not only the cognitive tasks but also the affective classifications and psychomotor skills. Even an interest in a particular field, music for instance, is the result of some kind of knowledge, knowledge of notes in this case. Furthermore, the society puts great weight on knowledge, which can easily be observed through quiz shows or information tests in the newspapers and magazines. The society regards knowledge as an important characteristic of an individual and as the reflection of intelligence. On the other hand, many teachers prize knowledge due to its simplicity to present and test. Therefore, most of the teachers have confidence in building knowledge. Taking all these factors into consideration, it can be stated that knowledge is at the center of any curriculum. At this point, what is critical is determining what and how much knowledge to integrate into the curriculum. According to Anderson et al (1956) learners should be presented with knowledge that they are likely to utilize in the future. In this regard they suggest that prior to determining the area of specialization, learners be presented with knowledge which is of general and widespread usefulness. Once they make a firm decision about the area of specialization, learners need to be equipped with knowledge which is related to their field and which can be transferred to other subject

areas. It is strongly recommended that the teachers and curriculum developers take all these factors into account during the curriculum development process. Apart from what and how much knowledge to teach, how to teach should also be carefully reflected upon. Anderson et al. (1956) argue that knowledge which is organized in a meaningful context is learned better than the knowledge which is isolated. Additionally, a generalization or an abstract notion is acquired better when it is based on a related concrete phenomenon. Taking the importance of knowledge objectives into consideration, one might dwell on thinking how much knowledge should be included into the curriculum. Anderson et al. (1956) claim that there should be balance between all the knowledge about a subject and only the knowledge of the most basic things related to the subject. In other words, learners should be required to possess the knowledge of the most basic things about a subject but expecting them to have the professional level of knowledge would be wrong. Rather, learners should be made aware of the depth and the richness of a subject area and the techniques to learn that deep and rich knowledge. When learners are aimed to have the most basic knowledge related to a subject, they are expected to learn that subject with a high precision. On the other hand, learners would have freedom to recall the details of a subject with a lower level of precision when they are aimed to have the knowledge of general concepts related to a subject. Each of the options requires a different organization of knowledge in the curriculum since both cases are different from each other.

2.14.1.1. Knowledge of Specifics

Knowledge of specifics refers to the concrete and isolable parts of information related to a specific field. This kind of information is necessary for any specialist to communicate about his field. The students, alike, need this information in order to get in-depth knowledge related to a field and to solve problems in it. Since there is a great deal of knowledge in every field it would not be reasonable to expect learners to learn all of them. Even the specialists have difficulty with some of the core knowledge in their discipline. Therefore, a careful selection of educational objectives related to knowledge of specifics is critical.

2.14.1.2. Knowledge of Terminology

Knowledge of terminology is regarded as the knowledge of referents for specific verbal and non-verbal symbols. Terminology is probably the most basic type of knowledge in a field (Anderson et al., 1956). It can be regarded as a special language spoken by merely the

experts in a field. Sometimes it can be difficult and even impossible to communicate about a field without using terminology; therefore, specialists must have the knowledge of terminology. Just as the specialists need to have knowledge of terminology, learners need to have the essential knowledge peculiar to a field in order to comprehend the phenomenon of that field. Sample objectives which require knowledge of terminology are;

- Students will be able to ask and answer simple questions in an interview about past times and past events. (*Knowledge of the simple questions in an interview about past times and past events*).
- Students will be able to write a cause and effect paragraph about the importance of netiquette. (*Knowledge of the details in a cause and effect paragraph about the importance of netiquette)*.

2.14.1.3. Knowledge of Specific Facts

Knowledge of specific facts means knowledge of dates, persons, events, places or sources of information (Andersen et al., 1956). It involves both precise knowledge about an event such as the exact date of the break of World War II and more approximate knowledge such as the knowledge of time period during which technological developments reached the top speed. Even though both knowledge of terminology and knowledge of specific facts represent the knowledge of discrete and separate facts, they are different from each other. The former represents the agreements within a field while the latter represents the general truths which can be tested, verified or falsified. Like terminology, there is a tremendous number of specific facts within a discipline and determining the educational objectives is hard. Hence, making a decision about which ones are appropriate and necessary for a particular level is important. The following objectives provide examples for this sub-category;

- Students will be able to formulate past progressive tense sentence structure.
- Students will be able to formulate passive voice structure for future tense.

2.14.1.4. Knowledge of Ways and Means of Dealing with Specifics

This subcategory represents a more abstract level of knowledge than the knowledge of specifics. It involves the knowledge of how to organize and deal with the isolable parts of information. They are different from the specifics in that they represent the criteria according to which the specifics are judged and the ways of dealing with them. There

should be a clear distinction between knowing the ways of judgment, organization and actually performing them. This subcategory primarily refers to knowing the existence of such phenomena.

2.14.1.5. Knowledge of Conventions

Anderson et al. (1956) define this sub-category as the knowledge of characteristic ways of treating and presenting ideas and phenomena. In every field particular usages, styles, and practices such as conventional symbols used in map making and dictionaries are employed when dealing with the phenomenon. They are employed because there is a general agreement on their suitability for the phenomenon. For example, *familiarity with the forms and conventions employed in scientific papers* represents this sub-category.

2.14.1.6. Knowledge of Trends and Sequences

Knowledge of trends and sequences points to the knowledge of interrelationship among the events that occur at different times. It also involves the knowledge of the causal relationship between the events that are related to the same phenomenon. Establishing the connection between the events is necessary in order to possess a strong comprehension of the phenomenon. Sample objectives for social sciences can be as follows;

- Students will be able to describe the effects of industrialization on social life.
- Students will be able to get familiar with the trends underlying the developments in mobile technologies.

2.14.1.7. Knowledge of Classifications and Categories

As a subject field becomes more developed, experts need to make divisions among the interrelated parts in order to make them more systematized and meaningful. Knowledge of classifications and categories refers to the knowledge of these sets and divisions that are regarded as significant for a subject area. Sample objectives for this subcategory can be as follows;

- Students will be able to differentiate the modal verbs in a reading text.
- Students will be able to differentiate the tenses.

2.14.1.8. Knowledge of Criteria

Like the knowledge of classifications and categories, knowledge of criteria is imperative in order to systematize the coverage and achieve meaningful learning. However, knowing the criteria on which the facts are based is different from actually applying them in certain

situations. Testing or judging the facts, opinions etc. according to some criteria refers to the evaluation category in the taxonomy, which is the highest level in terms of cognition. In this sub-category of knowledge, the point is the knowledge of the principles and criteria on which the subject matter is based. A sample objective for this sub-category is the knowledge of the basic elements (coherence, cohesion, punctuation, spelling etc.) which can be used to evaluate a piece of writing.

2.14.1.9. Knowledge of Methodology

Knowledge of methodology refers to the knowledge of techniques and procedures employed in a subject field not the actual application of them. As stated by Anderson et al. (1956) before engaging in an inquiry, learners are expected to know the techniques and procedures employed. Therefore, knowledge of methodology is as important as application of it when making an inquiry. A sample objective for this sub-category can be the knowledge of the techniques (scanning, skimming, underlying etc.) employed when reading a text.

2.14.1.10. Knowledge of the Universals and Abstractions in a Field

Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field involves knowing the broad ideas and patterns which shape a subject field. This sub-category is at the highest level of abstraction and complexity (Anderson et al., 1956). Therefore, learners generally find them difficult to comprehend. However, once they get insight into them, they can easily organize and deal with the subject matter.

2.14.1.11. Knowledge of Principles and Generalizations

Knowledge of principles and generalizations refers to the knowledge of the abstractions in phenomenon. For instance; knowledge of the sentence structure in passive voice can be grouped under this sub-category. Here, the emphasis is on the recall of the principles rather than the application of them. If, for example, a learner is able to make up a sentence in passive voice correctly, he works on the application level.

2.14.1.12. Knowledge of Theories and Structures

Knowledge of theories and structures means the knowledge of principles and generalizations which are interrelated and which form a systematic view. Therefore, this sub-category points to the most abstract level of knowledge. It is different from the knowledge of principles and generalizations in that it refers to the knowledge of a unified

structure whose parts are interrelated to each other. Knowledge of the theory of evolution can be stated as an example of this sub-category.

2.14.2. Comprehension

Comprehension is the most emphasized intellectual level when the scope of the instructional activities is considered. Through various activities and tasks, learners are expected to grasp the complete meaning of the phenomenon. Even though it is mostly associated with the reading objectives, comprehension category in the taxonomy is wider in scope (Anderson et al.,1956). It includes behaviors, objectives or responses which signal the understanding of the subject matter through translation, interpretation and extrapolation.

2.14.2.1. Translation

Being a sub-category of comprehension, translation involves expressing the phenomenon through a different language and different terms. Unlike its common meaning, translation is not merely a transfer between languages. Summarizing, paraphrasing, exemplifying are the ways of translation. Stating a lengthy paragraph in a brief way, expressing the symbols in the graphs and the timetables verbally or vice versa are all examples of translation. Following objective statements can be given as specific examples:

- Students will be able to interpret information from graphic features (graphs, charts, tables etc).
- Students will be able to paraphrase information in a text about people's choices.
- Students will be able to diagrammatize a text about different festivals all around the world.
- Students will be able to retell a story by describing the characters and places.

2.14.2.2. Interpretation

In order to interpret the subject matter, the reader must first translate its parts and then rearrange the parts into a unified whole so as to determine the core meaning (Anderson et al., 1956). In this regard, identifying the major ideas, reordering them and detecting the relationship between them point to interpretation level. Whereas translation focuses on the parts of the material, interpretation handles the material as a whole and emphasizes its

overall arrangement. Following statements are interpretation illustrative educational objectives.

- Students will be able to order the events in the biography of a famous person/ inventor/ scientist/ celebrity.
- Students will be able to describe the steps of a process related to national and international festivals.

2.14.2.3. Extrapolation

Extrapolation is the ability of detecting the elements that shape the course of action, making inferences, predictions and drawing conclusions. Therefore, when extrapolating, the learner does not only deal with what is written. Instead, he concentrates on detecting the meaning between the events, makes predictions about future actions and draws conclusions. Extrapolation illustrative educational objectives are;

- students will be able to make inferences about the qualities of a good friend through a recorded text.
- students will be able to identify the main conclusions in argumentative texts.
- students will be able to infer people's music preferences from their ideas about music in a reading text.
- students will be able to draw conclusions for the past events in a text.

2.14.3. Application

As mentioned previously, the levels in the taxonomy follow a hierarchical order. In other words, a level demands the skills of the previous categories. In this respect, application requires 'comprehension' of the phenomenon. Without comprehending something, it would not be possible to apply it. Comprehension indicates that the learner is able to use what he understands as long as its use is specified. However, application indicates that the learner is able to use the subject matter in appropriate situations without any intervention (Anderson et al., 1956). Considering the need to solve the problems that we encounter in daily life, it can surely be stated that application is a significant indicator of cognition. The benefit of learning a subject matter can only be revealed as long as it is applied to new situations. Therefore, application indicative educational objectives frequently take place in the program. Some examples are:

- Students will be able to ask for and give simple directions.
- Students will be able to make a role play between a psychologist/school counselor and a client.
- Students will be able to act out a self-prepared dialogue about requests/favors.
- Students will be able to write an application letter to an organization for scholarship.

2.14.4. Analysis

Anderson et al. (1956) define analysis as the breakdown of the material into its parts and detecting the relationship between the parts and the whole. Analyzing the material enables better comprehension and serves as a prerequisite for evaluation. According to Anderson et al. (1956) there is not a clear cut distinction between comprehension and analysis. When analyzing the meaning of the material is considered, it can be suggested that the cognition operates at a level higher than comprehension. However, it is not irrespective of comprehension. The same thing applies to analysis and evaluation, as well. When analyzing the relationship between the parts of the material, it is probable to express an opinion about how well they hang together. Therefore, they are all dependent on each other. Analysis level has three sub-categories as analysis of elements, analysis of relationships and analysis of organizational principles.

2.14.4.1. Analysis of Elements

Various elements in a material serve as supports for better comprehension. Determining them enables the readers to identify the overall message of the writer. Following statements are examples of this sub-category:

- students will be able to distinguish the supporting statements in a reading text.
- students will be able to differentiate facts from hypothesis.

2.14.4.2. Analysis of Relationships

Analysis of relationships is the second phase after analysis of elements. In this stage, the learner carries out the task of determining the relationship between the elements of a phenomenon. This stage also involves determining how relevant the parts to whole material. Examples of this sub-category are;

- Students will be able to distinguish relevant ideas from irrelevant ideas in a text.

- Students will be able to determine the relevance of supporting statements to main argument in a passage.

2.14.4.3. Analysis of Organizational Principles

In this sub-category the learner operates at a level higher than the previous two categories. Here the task of the learner is to identify the organizational structure of the ideas expressed by the writer. Following statement is an example of this sub-category;

- students will be able to identify the main argument of the writer.

2.14.5. Synthesis

Synthesis as a cognitive level in the taxonomy is defined as the putting together of the parts to form a whole (Anderson et al., 1956). This level represents both the process of combining the elements and producing something new. If learners devise a method of doing something or if they come up with a product which was not there before, they can surely be said to operate at synthesis level. When the hierarchical structure of the taxonomy is considered, it can be inferred that synthesis level must involve the previous four levels.

The significance of the educational objectives at this level is clearly pointed out in the literature. First of all, they are necessary in that they emphasize personal expression against passive receiver of the phenomenon. Additionally, they provide wider experience with the phenomenon than merely acquisition of it. Learners engage in the subject matter during the process of detecting the problem, devising hypothesis regarding its solution and testing the hypothesis. Therefore, at the end of the process they are better able to internalize the phenomenon. Moreover, educational objectives for synthesis level play a key role for stimulating motivation in learners. They offer personal satisfaction through boosting creativity in learners.

It is possible to come across with synthesis objectives at most levels from elementary school level to higher education. They range in complexity, though. The sub-categories; therefore, need to be presented.

2.14.5.1. Production of a Unique Communication

The educational objectives under this sub-category emphasize conveying ideas, feelings and experiences to others through language, literature or some other different medium of

instruction. The thing that needs to be underlined is how effectively the learners express themselves and organize their ideas. Some examples are as follows:

- Students will be able to write a poem about love for nature.
- Students will be able to compose a song in order to raise awareness for human rights.

2.14.5.2. Production of a Plan or Proposed Set of Operations

This sub-category aims at the production of a plan of operations. The specifications according to which the plan needs to be devised are either presented to learners or learners are expected to develop them. In terms of teaching, the educational objectives related to this sub-category are quite applicable since they emphasize the need for devising a plan. In this regard, ability to plan a unit of instruction for a particular teaching situation suits this sub-category. In terms of language learning, however, this sub-category is quite applicable for writing to learn activities in which learners explain and demonstrate what they have learned though a range of writing activities that they have designed.

2.14.5.3. Derivation of a Set of Abstract Relations

Being the most complex sub-category of synthesis level, the objectives in this category aim to produce a set of logical scheme through categorizing the phenomena according to their relations. The development of periodic table in chemistry or the development of the taxonomies for classifying plants and animals are sample objectives for this sub-category. Moreover, developing hypotheses based on the analysis of the phenomena can be grouped under this sub-category.

2.14.6. Evaluation

Anderson et al. (1956) define evaluation category as making judgments about the value, appropriateness, accuracy and effectives of the phenomenon. The judgments may be either qualitative or quantitative. Moreover, they may either be determined by the learners or presented to them. The team argues that evaluation category involves previous categories and therefore it is placed at the highest level in the taxonomy. On the other hand, evaluation may also be used as a starting point for acquisition, comprehension or analysis of the phenomenon. What makes evaluation different from the other categories is that it serves as a link between cognitive and affective behavior since it involves values, enjoyment and liking. However, for educational purposes, its cognitive side is emphasized.

The thing that needs consideration is how people make judgments. In other words, the criteria on which people base their perception need to be considered. Generally, people are inclined to evaluate the things that are useful highly while just the opposite is true for the things that are not. Also, people reach a quick decision about the phenomenon without a careful consideration. Therefore, a distinction needs to be done here. Thus, the quick decisions made by the individuals are defined as "opinion" rather than judgment (Anderson et al., 1956). The decisions that are given after a careful consideration and that are based on certain criteria are used for taxonomy purposes. In this respect, two sub-categories according to which judgments can be made are determined. One of them is called "internal standards" which are concerned with the logical accuracy and consistency of the phenomenon. The other one, on the other hand, is named as "external standards" which deals with efficiency, economy and utility of the phenomenon.

2.14.6.1. Judgments in Terms of Internal Evidence

As previously mentioned, this sub-category deals with evaluating the subject matter in terms of logical accuracy, consistency and absence of internal flaws. The things that need to be taken into consideration specifically are whether there is consistency in the usage of the terms, whether they complement and follow one another logically and whether the conclusion has really been drawn from the material. In this respect, evaluating the argument of the speakers in a discussion in terms of the above-mentioned aspects is an example of this sub-category.

2.14.6.2. Judgments in Terms of External Criteria

This sub-category of evaluation involves three ways to evaluate the phenomenon. First, the subject matter is considered as a member of a particular class and rules, techniques or standards that are commonly used in evaluation for that particular class are taken into consideration. However, this type of evaluation may be too arbitrary since the subject matter may belong to more than one class. Thus, the nature of evaluation may change depending on the class that the subject matter belongs to. Secondly, the subject matter can be evaluated through comparing with a modal member of the same class. According to Anderson et al. (1956) the modal member may not necessarily be the ideal member in every aspects. Therefore, the judgment focuses on the comparison of the two members rather than fulfilling every criterion. Lastly, the evaluation may be conducted in order to determine whether the means are appropriate for the ends in terms of efficiency, economy

and utility. The logic behind this idea is that some means serve better than others to the particular ends. That is, some ends are more likely to be achieved through some particular means. Therefore, in this evaluation type the determining the means- ends relationship is critical.

2.15. The Reasons That Led to Revision

Even though the original taxonomy was frequently cited and translated into 22 languages, it was criticized for various reasons. First of all, its strict hierarchical structure requires that learners cannot proceed to higher levels without succeeding at previous levels, which sets a drawback for organizing educational objectives (Ormell, 1974; Seddon, 1978). The revised version does not have a hierarchical structure. Thus, it provides flexibility in terms of writing the educational objectives. Secondly, 'synthesis' category involves the 'evaluation' category. However, evaluation is not necessarily more complex than synthesis (Krietzer & Madaus, 1994) since in synthesis category learners are expected to produce something new. Therefore, synthesis can be said to be more demanding than evaluation. Another criticism is related to the single dimension of the category (Furst, 1994). The original taxonomy includes merely the levels in the cognitive process. However, an educational outcome involves both a verb and a noun. Cognitive process dimension deals with verbs while knowledge dimension focuses on nouns. Therefore, there is a need for knowledge dimension, too. Considering these criticisms, the team led by David Krathwohl started the revision process in 1995 and the revised version was announced to scientific arena in 2001 (Anderson, 2005). When revising the taxonomy, the experts took the following points into consideration (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014):

1. They based the revision on the original taxonomy and its shortcomings,
2. They tried to form a common language,
3. They considered the educational theories and the psychological needs of today's world,
4. They strengthened the revised structure by suggesting applicable examples.

2.16. Changes in the Revised Taxonomy

The revised version is different from the original taxonomy in quite significant aspects. There are changes in terms of terminology, structure and emphasis in the revised version.

To begin with, there have been significant terminological changes in the revised version. Firstly, the categories have been converted into verb forms in order to provide the alignment with the educational outcomes. For example 'analysis' has become '(to) analyze'. Secondly, three of the categories – knowledge, comprehension and synthesis- have been renamed as 'remember', 'understand' and 'create' respectively. Comprehension was renamed as 'understand' because the latter is a much more common term. Indeed, its being absent in the original taxonomy was a frequent criticism and by including it in the revised version, Krathwohl and his team solved this problem. Besides, 'synthesis', which corresponds to 'create' in the revised version, has changed places with 'evaluate' since it requires a higher level of cognition. An educational objective which falls into the category of 'create' aims to have students produce an original product. Thus, the student makes judgment based on a certain criteria in the process and s/he comes up with an idea, product or a theory as an end result**.** Two images are provided below in order to make a much more clear comparison between the two versions.

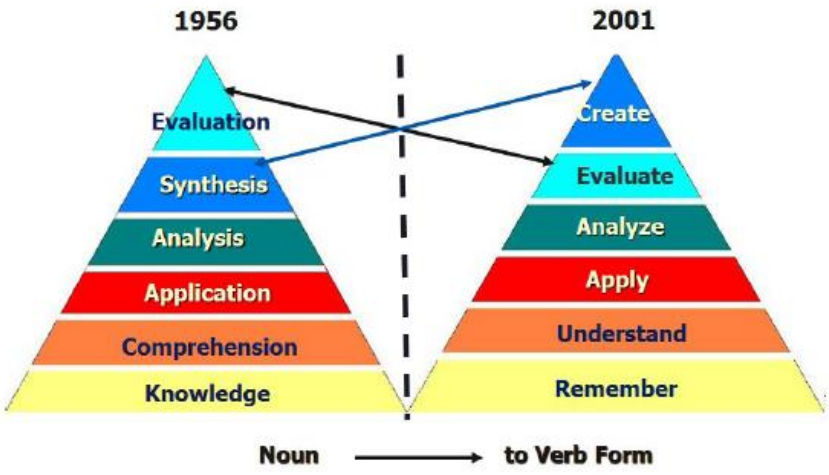


Figure 3. Bloom's original vs. revised taxonomy of cognitive domain. Wilson, L. O. (2013). Anderson and Krathwohl–Bloom's taxonomy revised. Retrieved from https:// quincycollege .edu/content/uploads/Anderson-and-Krathwohl_Revised-Blooms-Taxonomy.pdf

There is a considerable difference between the two versions in terms of structure. The foremost difference is the two-dimensional structure of the revised taxonomy. This revision is important especially for writing the educational objectives. As mentioned previously educational objectives describe the result of instruction which is expressed by using a subject matter content and a description of what is to be done with or to that content (Krathwohl, 2002). That is, a typical outcome statement includes a noun or a noun

phrase as a subject matter content and a verb or verb phrase as the cognitive process. For instance, an outcome statement for listening skill in the 10th grade program is "students will be able to list phrases for booking in a recorded text." Here it is clear that the verb is '(to) list' and the noun phrase is 'phrases for booking'. This outcome aims learners to 'know' the specific phrases for booking and to 'detect' them in a recorded text. Therefore, this objective falls into the category of 'knowledge' in the original taxonomy. The problem is that the original taxonomy is one-dimensional in nature since the verb or verb phrase is expressed in the definition of 'knowledge' category as '(to) remember or (to) recall' and the noun or noun phrase is expressed by using the subcategories as 'knowledge of structures, categories or classifications'. This problem is solved in the revised taxonomy by separating the noun and the verb as 'knowledge dimension' and 'cognitive process dimension' respectively. With the addition of 'metacognitive knowledge' the knowledge dimension includes four sub-categories. As for the cognitive process dimension, the number of six categories was retained in the revision. However, as mentioned in the terminological changes, each category was converted into verb forms in order to ensure the alignment with educational objectives. Secondly, the order of 'synthesis' , which was renamed as ' (to) create' in the revised version, was changed places with 'evaluate' since '(to) create' includes generating and producing something original which necessitates making certain judgments, in other words '(to) evaluate'. Next, the revised version has got a hierarchical structure like the original one since as one proceeds from 'remembering' to 'creating', the level of complexity gets higher. However, because the revision aims to give freedom to teacher usage, the requirement of a strict hierarchy has been left behind (Krathwohl, 2002). Therefore, it can be said that when compared to the original taxonomy, teachers are -to some extent- more flexible when following the categories in the revised version.

As noted earlier, the criticisms to the original taxonomy were taken into consideration during the revision and a larger audience of educators, teachers and material designers were intended to be addressed. Therefore, the team included and emphasized the sub-categories in order to ease the understanding. The 19 specific sub-categories provide the breadth and depth of the major categories that they belong to. Together with the sub-categories, sample assessments were included in order to make the revision easy to understand and implement. All in all, the revised version was intended to be used for

determining the educational outcomes, designing the learning activities and assessing the learners.

Table 2 summarizes the changes under the related categories.

Table 2

Changes in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Changes in Terminology	Changes in Structure	Changes in Emphasis
The major six categories in the cognitive process dimension were changed from noun to verb forms.	The knowledge dimension and cognitive process dimension was separated.	The revised taxonomy is intended to use it as a more authentic tool for curriculum planning, instructional delivery and assessment.
'Knowledge' was renamed as 'Remember'.	The strict hierarchical structure was relaxed.	A larger audience of educators was intended to be addressed.
'Comprehension' was renamed as 'Understand'.	Metacognitive knowledge was added to the knowledge dimension.	Sample assessments were included in order to make it clear to understand.
'Synthesis' was renamed as 'Create'.	The order of 'synthesis' was replaced by 'evaluate'	The subcategories were emphasized.

Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. R. (Ed.). (2014). A taxonomy of learning, teaching and assessing. A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (D. A. Özçelik, Trans.) Ankara: Pegem

2.17. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (BRT) is made up of two dimensions as knowledge dimension and cognitive process dimension. Figure 4 provides the cognitive levels in the revised taxonomy. The focus of each level remains the same whereas there are some structural changes as mentioned before. As one goes from the level of remembering to creating, the thinking capacity gets higher.

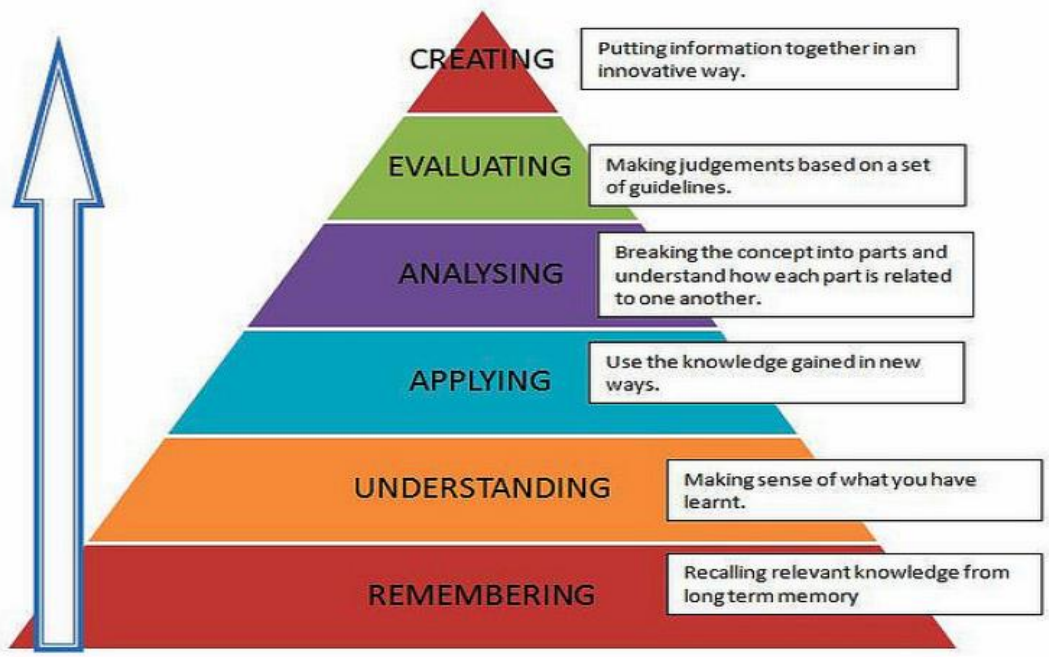


Figure 4. The structure of the cognitive process dimension in the revised taxonomy. Robyn, E. (2014). Bloom's taxonomy. Denver, CO: Expert Beacon. Retrieved from https://expertbeacon. com/blooms taxonomy/#. XAap FtszaM9

The structure of the knowledge dimension is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Structure of the Knowledge Dimension in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

A. Factual Knowledge – The basic elements that students must know to be acquainted with a discipline or solve problems in it. Knowledge of terminology Knowledge of specific details and elements
B. Conceptual Knowledge – The interrelationships among the basic elements within a larger structure that enable them to function together. Knowledge of classifications and categories Knowledge of principles and generalizations Knowledge of theories, models, and structures
C. Procedural Knowledge – How to do something; methods of inquiry, and criteria for using skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods. Knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms Knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods Knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures
D. Metacognitive Knowledge – Knowledge of cognition in general as well as awareness of one's own cognition. Strategic knowledge Knowledge about cognitive tasks, including appropriate contextual and conditional knowledge Self-knowledge

Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview, *Theory Into Practice, 41*, 212-218, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

2.17.1. Knowledge Dimension

The knowledge dimension and the cognitive process dimension make up the two-dimensional structure of the revised taxonomy. The nouns and the noun phrases in the educational outcomes, teaching activities and assessment questions refer to the knowledge dimension (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014; Forehand, 2010). This dimension contains four main categories the first three of which come from the knowledge level of the original taxonomy. These are factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge. As for the fourth category, metacognitive knowledge was added.

2.17.1.1. Factual Knowledge

Factual knowledge refers to the knowledge of all kinds of basic principles and discipline specific information necessary to have in order to get acquainted with that discipline or solve problems in it (Krathwohl, 2002). The sub-categories of factual knowledge are knowledge of terminology and knowledge of specific details and elements.

2.17.1.1.1. Knowledge of Terminology

Knowledge of terminology covers all kinds of subject specific words, special names, signs, symbols and numbers (Anderson &Krathwohl, 2014). Experts on a field make use of some subject-specific words when communicating to other people. They have difficulty in interaction without those terminological words and they even cannot think without them (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). Knowledge of terminology for any discipline is necessary for learners to move on further in that discipline. Examples of terminological knowledge include the knowledge of phonological alphabet, knowledge of standardized signs in maps and knowledge of terms related to painting (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014).

2.17.1.1.2. Knowledge of Specific Details and Elements

Knowledge of specific details and elements can be explained as the knowledge of people, places, important dates and events. It is possible to reach knowledge of important people, events, places or the dates from books, articles or the writers themselves. Each discipline contains a wide range of subject-specific knowledge of people, places, events or dates, which puts experts into a difficult situation of deciding which ones are more necessary to teach. Therefore, the scope of subject specific details has to be researched in detail and a consensus should be made on what is necessary to teach and what is not. Moreover, the certainty and accuracy of the knowledge should be taken into consideration.

2.17.1.2. Conceptual Knowledge

Conceptual knowledge refers to the knowledge of classifications and categories, principles and generalizations, theories, models and structures. According to Anderson (2005) it means knowing the interrelations among basic elements within a larger structure that enable them to function together. Therefore, conceptual knowledge is different from factual knowledge since there is a connection and interdependency between the parts in the latter while the former refers to the knowledge of separate parts. Both types are necessary in order to be a competent language learner since they complement each other. There are three sub-categories of conceptual knowledge:

2.17.1.2.1. Knowledge of Classifications and Categories

Knowledge of classifications and categories means knowing not only the names of sub-categories but also the relationship between the sub-categories and the main category. Therefore, it is more comprehensive and more abstract when compared to factual knowledge (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). Knowing the classifications and categories about a specific field is an indication of meaningful comprehension. When meaningful comprehension occurs, a learner can make interpretations and inferences, which moves him/her to higher levels of cognition. Knowing the parts of speech in a sentence or knowing the differences between countable and uncountable nouns can be given as the examples of this sub-category.

2.17.1.2.2. Knowledge of Principles and Generalizations

Principles and generalizations can be viewed as an umbrella term of categories and classifications. As the number of specific details and elements increases, categorizing them according to their similarities and differences becomes a necessity. Also, determining the relationship between the categories and clarifying the procedure of categorization move this to the further step of principles and generalizations. Therefore, principles and generalizations enable the experts to make more coherent and comprehensive explanations about an issue (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014).

2.17.1.2.3. Knowledge of Theories, Models and Structures

This sub-category is more abstract and comprehensive than the other two sub-categories of conceptual knowledge. It includes the knowledge of theories and models that are used to define, explain and interpret a phenomenon (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). Knowledge of

Saussure's theory of sign or knowledge of DNA structure can be given as examples of this sub-category.

2.17.1.3. Procedural Knowledge

Procedural knowledge means knowing how to do or make something. It includes methods, techniques, algorithms and skills. It also includes the criteria one uses to determine when to use appropriate procedural knowledge (Anderson, 2005). If there are basic and certain steps of doing something and if those steps are known by everybody in the same way, it can be labeled as procedural knowledge. Knowing how to drive is an example of procedural knowledge the steps of which –adjusting the front mirror and side mirrors, fastening the seat belt, starting the engine and so on- are known by all the drivers. As the example suggests, procedural knowledge deals with the question of 'how' while factual knowledge and conceptual knowledge deal with the question of 'what'. Procedural knowledge is the knowledge of process during which something occurs but factual knowledge and conceptual knowledge give the information about the product. Another defining aspect of procedural knowledge is that it is related to subject specific methods, techniques, skills and algorithms (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). For example, knowing the syntax of English language, knowing how to read maps for Geography or knowing the mathematical algorithm for subtracting decimals can be considered as procedural knowledge. The sub-categories of procedural knowledge are as the following:

2.17.1.3.1. Knowledge of Subject-Specific Skills and Algorithms

As it is stated above, procedural knowledge is the knowledge of how to do something. Sometimes, the steps of doing something and the order of those steps are the same but sometimes they can also be different. In the case of the knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms, the order of the steps to take and the result are known beforehand (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). Knowledge of division algorithm in decimals is an example of this sub-category.

2.17.1.3.2. Knowledge of Subject-Specific Techniques and Methods

Knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods is different from knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms in that in the case of the former one the order of the steps to take and the result may change depending on the circumstances. For example, as the data we get from the preliminary results turn out to a different direction during conducting research, the techniques we have planned to use may change and so is the

result. Therefore, the knowledge of research techniques and methods can be classified in this sub-category.

2.17.1.3.3. Knowledge of Criteria for Determining When to Use Appropriate Procedures

In addition to knowing the subject-specific techniques and methods, learners are expected to know when to use which method in order to be qualified as an efficient learner. Therefore, it is expected from learners to get informed about the similar methods and techniques that have been used before so they are able to show the relationship between the previous techniques and methods with the ones that they use during the research process (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014). Adjusting the register of language –knowing in which situations to use formal language and informal language- or knowing which strategy to use -skimming or scanning- in order to get informed about the topic of a text can be given as the examples of this sub-category.

2.18. Metacognitive Knowledge

One of the differences between BRT and OBT is the addition of metacognitive knowledge to the knowledge dimension as the fourth category. Seeing that metacognitive knowledge is effective in terms of improving the rate of progress in learning (Victon & Lockart, 1995) and the quality and speed of learners' cognitive engagement (Pintrich, 1993), the team who revised the taxonomy decided to include it as another category.

Literature provides several definitions of metacognitive knowledge. To begin with, Flavell (1979, p.906) defines metacognitive knowledge as "one's stored world knowledge about cognitive matters". In his statement, the term 'cognitive matters' includes people as cognitive creatures, cognitive tasks, goals, actions and experiences. On the other hand, metacognitive knowledge is also defined as knowledge about self, task properties and strategies (Flavell & Wellman, 1977). Similarly, Wells (2000) notes that metacognitive knowledge is the information that learners possess about their learning process, task properties and strategies. Wong (1999) prefers the term 'awareness' rather than 'knowledge' and he defines metacognitive knowledge as one's awareness about his cognitive strengths and weaknesses. Finally, in his work Pintrich (2002) defines metacognitive knowledge as the knowledge about cognition and awareness of one's own cognition.

2.18.1. Characteristics of Metacognitive Knowledge

Like its definition, literature suggests different views about the defining characteristics of metacognitive knowledge. While Flavell and Wellman (1977) consider that it develops late in learners, others suggest that it is possible to observe metacognitive knowledge from pre-schoolers to tertiary students (Paris & Byrnes, 1989; Schommer, 1990). Also, according to Flavell and Wellman (1975) it is stable, statable and fallible. What is meant by 'stable' is that it is constant and predictable. Furthermore, it is also 'statable' which means that learners can reflect on it and put it into words. Lastly, it is described as 'fallible', that is, learners may not actually know what they think they know. Metacognitive knowledge is stimulated deliberately when the task is new or requires planning, conscious thinking and problem solving. It is also activated automatically when, for example, the learner changes his focus on some other task and suddenly the key knowledge related to another task enters into the consciousness (Flavell, 1979).

2.18.2. Cognition vs. Metacognition

The term 'metacognition' is made up of two parts: The Greek term 'meta' means 'beyond' and the Latin term 'cognition' means 'knowing', so it can be inferred that the meaning of metacognition is 'knowing beyond'. Seeing that the translation is not clear, researchers come up with different explanations to this 'fuzzy concept' (Flavell, 1981) through comparing it with cognition. In this regard, Geiger (1993, p.268) points out that cognition is one's ability to accomplish tasks while metacognition refers to the ability of monitoring one's cognition. On the other hand, Efklides (2006) believes that metacognition is a model of cognition which acts at a 'meta' level and is connected to cognition through monitoring and controlling it. That is, she emphasizes the dual function of metacognition by (a) representing cognition and (b) monitoring it. In order to demonstrate the assumption that metacognition is a subset of cognition, Nelson (1999,) gives the following example: our recall the answer to the question "What is the capital of Australia?" is an example of cognition. However, when we ask how sure we are that our answer is correct, which is our confidence judgment of recall, is an example of metacognition. Schraw (1998), who believes that cognition and metacognition are two separate concepts, states that cognitive skills help learners perform a task whereas metacognitive skills help them monitor and regulate cognitive performance. King (2004) agrees that cognition is related to solving a problem while metacognition focuses on an understanding of how the problem is solved.

Gourgey's (2001) distinction between cognitive and metacognitive strategies shows parallelism with the statements of the other researchers (Efklides, 2006; King, 2004; Schraw, 1998). He points out that cognitive strategies as guessing, clarification, didactic reasoning help learners build knowledge. On the other hand, metacognitive strategies which involve planning, prioritizing, setting goals etc. help them monitor and evaluate their progress. Metacognitive strategies may both precede or follow a cognitive activity. They may even overlap in the same strategy as in the case of 'questioning'. As Livingstone (2003) exemplifies, learners can perform questioning in a reading activity both for checking their comprehension (cognitive) and for monitoring their cognition (metacognitive). That is, the same task can be grouped differently depending on the purpose for which it is used.

2.18.3. Metacognition vs. Metacognitive Knowledge

The term 'metacognition' was first used by Flavell in his article titled as "Metacognitive aspects of problem solving" (1976, p.232). He explained metacognition as a general term which is made up of two constructs: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. Similarly, Schraw (2001) suggests that metacognitive knowledge is an aspect of metacognition which refers to knowledge of one's own cognition and orchestration of the processes for planning, monitoring and checking. Doly (2005), also, argues that metacognition comprises two aspects*: metacognitive knowledge* which refers to knowledge about cognitive processes, strategies, nature of the task and *control processes* such as predicting, monitoring, planning and evaluating.

It is also possible to find the explanations regarding the affective component of metacognition in literature. For example, Dickson, Collins, Simmons and Kameenui (1998) suggest that motivation be added as the third component of metacognition after knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition. They believe that motivational beliefs about one's competency in a specific area or the benefits of employing a specific strategy play a major role in learning. In the same vein, Paris and Winograd (1990) underline the affective side of metacognition in their explanation. They argue that when children asked why they got a high or low grade or whether they can solve problems, they respond with strong emotions and they attribute their failure to outsider factors. For example, children may attribute their failure to the teacher or they may be angry with the teacher. Therefore, Paris

and Winograd (1990) add 'emotionally charged metacognition' as the third component of metacognition.

When the explanations regarding the components of metacognition are considered, it can be concluded that the scope of metacognition is larger than metacognitive knowledge. In other words, metacognitive knowledge is a component of metacognition which is the umbrella term involving both cognitive and affective dimensions such as knowledge of cognition, regulation of cognition and beliefs about cognition.

2.18.4. Types of Metacognitive Knowledge

Literature provides different perceptions about the scope of metacognitive knowledge. Some researchers divide it into sub-categories as declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge (Efklides,2001; Paris & Winograd, 1990; Schraw,1998) while others name the sub-categories as person, task and strategy knowledge (Flavell, 1979; Manning, 1991).

In his article, Schraw (1988) clearly explains the scope of each sub-category. According to him declarative knowledge refers to knowledge about oneself as a learner and the factors that affect one's performance. Procedural knowledge, on the other hand, includes knowledge about how to do things. In this regard, knowledge of strategies is included in this sub-category. Lastly, conditional knowledge refers to knowing why and when to use declarative and procedural knowledge.

On the other hand, Flavell (1979), who is one of the leading researchers in metacognition, categorizes metacognitive knowledge according to whether it focuses on the learner, the learning task and the process of learning. He names these three categories as person, task and strategic knowledge respectively. The scope of person knowledge is quite wide. Firstly, it is related to the cognitive and affective factors that promote or inhibit learning such as age, language aptitude or motivation. Secondly, it refers to the beliefs that learners held for their ability to achieve specific learning goals. Moreover, learners may acquire person knowledge based on assessments of their skills. For example, they know whether they are competent in writing or speaking. Like person knowledge, task knowledge has different aspects. Firstly, it relates to know how well a particular task serves for a language purpose such as developing vocabulary. Also, it refers to the ability of distinguishing a problem solving task from a creative thinking task, which is closely related to knowing the nature of the task. Thirdly, it includes knowledge about a task's demands, in other words,

the knowledge or skills that a certain task requires. Finally, strategic knowledge, being another aspect of metacognitive knowledge, includes knowledge about what strategies are, when and how to use them effectively.

Taking all these factors into consideration, the team accepted Flavell's (1979) division of metacognition as the standpoint and decided to represent it in the framework of the taxonomy. In this respect, the scope of metacognitive knowledge has been determined to cover the knowledge of general strategies that might be used for different tasks, knowledge of the conditions under which these strategies might be used, knowledge of the extent to which of these strategies are effective, and knowledge of self (Pintrich, 2002). A key point that has been emphasized by the revision team is that in terms of the knowledge dimension metacognitive knowledge refers to the knowledge of different strategies not the actual use of those strategies.

2.18.4.1. Strategic Knowledge

Strategic knowledge is the knowledge of general strategies for learning, thinking and problem solving. Those strategies are not specific to a discipline but they are applicable to all or most of the subject areas (Pintrich, 2002). Even though there are a large number of different learning strategies they can be grouped into three: rehearsal, elaboration and organizational (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986).

As its name suggests, rehearsal strategies are used to repeat words in order to remember them. They do not require a high level of cognition and do not guarantee comprehension. However, elaboration strategies include summarizing, paraphrasing and finding out the main point of a material. Therefore, they are employed in more complex processes. Similarly, organizational strategies result in better comprehension of a material since they include outlining, concept mapping and note taking which require learners to make connections between the different components of a material. As it has been mentioned before, apart from those three groups, there may be various strategies for monitoring, controlling and problem solving such as asking oneself questions in order to check comprehension, making inferences from different sources of data or comparing one's solution of a math problem with his/her friends in the case of a failure. Again, what is emphasized in this category is knowledge of these strategies, not their actual use.

2.18.4.2. Knowledge about Cognitive Tasks

Knowledge of tasks includes the knowledge that different tasks require different strategies depending on the level of difficulty. For example, an essay question and a multiple choice question require different levels of cognition since in the former a learner composes his opinion into a meaningful framework while in the latter he is merely supposed to recognize the correct answer from the options.

This sub-category also includes the conditional knowledge about when and why to use the specific strategies for specific tasks. For example, a learner must have the knowledge that in order to memorize a phone number he must repeat it over and over. However, learning a Math formula is firstly possible through a lot of practice. Knowing that different tasks require different strategies helps learners draw their rote accordingly throughout the journey of learning.

2.18.4.3. Self-Knowledge

In addition to strategic knowledge and knowledge about cognitive tasks, Flavell (1979) believes in the importance of self-knowledge in developing metacognition. Self-knowledge means being aware of one's strengths, weaknesses and interests. If, for example, a learner believes that he will be better able to perform in an individual writing activity rather than a group writing activity, this shows that he is aware of his strengths in terms of studying individually. That is, he has self-knowledge about his studying habits. Having self-knowledge is useful for a learner to approach the tasks accordingly and to make up for the points in which he is deficient. The crucial aspect of self-knowledge in terms of teachers is that teachers should be careful observers of their students. They should not give positive but inaccurate feedback to the students about their strengths and weaknesses. If a learner is not aware of his inability of a particular issue, he will not make any effort to compensate for it. Therefore, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) suggest that it is much more important to have accurate perceptions of one's knowledge base and expertise than to have inflated and inaccurate self-knowledge.

Self-knowledge also means one's motivational beliefs about a subject such as his goals for studying (learning or receiving a high mark) or the value of the task. There is a considerable body of research which show the positive relationship between learning, performance and motivational beliefs (Barkowski et al.,1990; Pintrich & Schruben,1992;

Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Therefore, it can be suggested that learners develop self-knowledge not only about studying habits but also about motivational beliefs.

2.18.5. Metacognitive Strategies

As noted in Brown et al. (1983), metacognition is a broad notion the components of which are metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies. Even though they are regarded as the parts of the same concept, they should not be considered interchangeable. Metacognitive knowledge refers to the information that learners have regarding their learning while metacognitive strategies refer to the skills through which learners manage, regulate and guide their learning (Brown et al., 1983). These strategies pertain to regulation of cognition and Schraw (1998) divides them into three as planning, monitoring and evaluating.

Planning involves setting goals, making predictions about the task, coordinating the time and the resources and selecting the appropriate strategies (Schraw, 1998). Monitoring, on the other hand, refers to one's awareness about ongoing cognitive activities and task performance (Pintrich et al., 2000). Similarly, Flavell (1981) points out that monitoring consists of keeping track of the learning process and dealing with the difficulties that ruin the learning process. In this regard, Wenden (1998) gives the example of a learner who is reading a text on global warming. As he reads, he finds out that the text is harder than he expected. He employs some strategies as list making or concept mapping but they do not help. However, he does not give up and keeps reading each paragraph slowly and tries to infer the meaning of unknown vocabulary from the context. As in this example, monitoring expands metacognitive knowledge (Paris & Winograd,1990; Wellman,1985; Zimmerman,1989) and leads learners to examine the relationship between learning goals (understanding the text) and means of achieving them (employing strategies like listing, concept mapping, using contextual cues) (Flavell, 1979). In addition to planning and monitoring, employing strategies for evaluating is vital for learning. Schraw (1998) defines evaluating strategies as the techniques that a learner employs in order to appraise his learning goals and learning process.

All in all, metacognitive strategies are used to coordinate and self-regulate the learning process. The use of metacognitive strategies is important in the improvement of learning since they allow students to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning (Oxford, 2002). In

agreement, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) maintain that learners without metacognitive approaches are learners without opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress or review their accomplishments (1990).

2.19. Metacognitive Knowledge and Foreign Language Learning

It is a well-known fact that some people are more successful than others when learning a foreign language. Several studies have been conducted to identify the characteristics of good language learners and it has been found that explicit metacognitive knowledge about the task features and applying appropriate strategies are the major characteristics of successful language learners (Rubin, 1975). Good language learners make informed guesses and infer the meaning through contextual cues (e.g. speaker's gestures) when they encounter new vocabulary. They make use of what they know in order to keep the conversation going even if they cannot say what they mean. They utilize a number of memory strategies in order to memorize the vocabulary and pay attention to idioms. All these strategies for planning, directing and monitoring the learning process point at metacognitive strategies. Research on metacognitive knowledge and language learning indicates that metacognitive strategies have a prominent role in language learning since they enable learners to play an active role throughout the process, to manage their learning and to reflect on what they have learned (Flavell,1975; O'Malley & Chamot,1990; Oxford,2002).

There is a considerable body of research about the impact of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies on the development of language skills. The findings of the studies conducted specifically for listening skill highlight the importance of metacognitive strategies for successful listening comprehension (Birjandi &Rahimi,2012; Goh,1988; Goh,1999; O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper 1989; Vandergrift,1996; Vandergrift, 1997). Employing strategies like guessing the topic of the listening text from the information related to the speakers, elaborating, checking the understanding throughout the activity and transferring has proved to promote the listening performance. In this regard, Vandergrift (2003) emphasizes the combination of the strategies in a continuous manner rather than insisting on a single strategy for successful comprehension. Researchers also directed their attention to the link between speaking performance and metacognitive strategies. In their study, Ghapanchi and Taheryan (2012) investigated the relationship between language knowledge, metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive strategy use, speaking and listening

proficiency. They found out that among other variables, speaking proficiency showed the largest correlation with metacognitive knowledge. In a recent study conducted with secondary school foreign language learners, it has been revealed that using metacognitive strategies has a positive impact on pupils' confidence and proficiency in speaking (Forbes & Fisher, 2018). This finding can be explained with the fact that by using metacognitive strategies learners plan their speech, find different ways of uttering their thoughts, monitor their speech and evaluate their performance. Consequently, as they realize their successful attempts, they get more confident. Literature is also crowded with studies that focus on the impact of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategy use on writing outcomes and the findings point at the contribution of metacognitive instruction to the writing performance and fluency in writing (Graham & Harris,2003; Harten,2014; Hayes,2000; Zinchuk,2017). Findings of an early study show that even if there is not a meaningful difference in terms of academic achievement, motivation and intelligence levels between skilled and novice writers, expert writers have been detected to be more aware of metacognitive knowledge (Benton, Glover, Kraft & Plake, 1984). In another study, integrating reflective assignments into the instruction has proved to increase learners' metacognitive awareness and thus make them effective writers and thinkers (Swartzendruber & Putnam, 2000). The findings related to the reading skill show parallelism and emphasize the positive impact of metacognitive instruction on promoting comprehension, reasoning and vocabulary development along with reading performance (Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill & Joshi, 2007). It has been observed in skilled readers that they employ some strategies like making predictions based on the titles, section headers, pictures etc., supporting their predictions with their previous knowledge, visualizing the characters, settings, not paying equal attention to all of the parts and adjusting their reading rate (Anderson,1992; Brown, Presley, Van Meter & Schuder,1996).

When the results of the previous studies regarding the positive impact of the metacognition on foreign language learning are taken into consideration, it can be suggested that language instruction focus on developing metacognition in learners. In this respect, Nunan (2002) emphasizes that language classes should have a dual focus of both teaching language content and developing learning processes. In other words, learners should be provided with awareness raising instruction in order to gain insight about their learning process. At this point, the question of how to design and implement an effective strategy instruction arises.

Literature indicates that the most effective strategy instruction occurs when it is integrated into the curriculum (Cohen, 2014; Oxford & Leaver,1996). That is, the instruction should include a combination of different strategies rather than focusing on a specific type. N. J. Anderson (2002) points out that learners should receive explicit instruction that not every strategy works in every situation. He gives the example that when learners encounter with an unknown vocabulary, they should use a variety of strategies such as word analysis, guessing etc. depending on the situation. In this regard, informing teachers about the necessary points to consider in strategy instruction is vital. Jones (2007) provides a comprehensive guide about the role of the teacher in developing metacognition. She emphasizes three key points: First, the task should prompt critical thinking and reasoning. Therefore, teachers should give a serious thought when determining the tasks and the assignments. Secondly, teachers should provide a classroom atmosphere which facilitates discussions and reflective thinking. In other words, learners should not be refrain from expressing their opinion fearing that they would be disapproved. Thirdly, teachers should provide time and opportunity for learners to make reflections and to articulate their thoughts.

2.20. Higher Order Thinking Skills

At the beginning of the 20th century, education focused on the basics of reading, writing and calculating. The learning activities were mostly related to the memorization of the facts and the main role of the teachers was perceived as transmitting knowledge to learners (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000). Learning was accepted linear; therefore, educational objectives were sequenced hierarchically. Thus, complete understanding was believed to occur only after a certain level of cognition (Bloom, 1956). Consequently, low-achieving learners received lower level of instruction whereas higher achieving learners mostly engaged in reasoning and critical thinking activities (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989).

Recently, however, the nature and the focus of education have shifted from teaching fundamentals to equipping learners with higher skills and competences. It is no more adequate for people to memorize the basics of a discipline. As Zohar and Dori (2003) state the meaning of 'knowing' has changed from memorizing to finding and using the information effectively. Then, it is necessary to identify the meaning of 'using the information'. According to Perkins and Unger (1999) 'using the information' is based on *understanding* the subject matter and understanding is related to thinking and acting

creatively with what one knows. Therefore, understanding is closely linked with thinking and thinking is not restricted to advanced stages of learning. Rather, thinking skills such as making inferences, drawing conclusions, making judgments may also be involved in elementary levels and should be focused at all levels (Zohar & Dori, 2003). This conclusion has been reflected in many other studies, as well (Bransford et al.,2000; Perkins & Unger, 1999; Resnick & Klopfer,1989). Therefore, developing learners' higher order thinking skills has recently been an important theme for the renewal of curricula (Kim, 2005). The curriculum revision in Turkey, also, is based on this issue. The Ministry of Education (2017) announced that students are aimed to be effective thinkers who are curious, open-minded and capable of generating solutions to real life problems. At this point, the nature of the curricula, learning activities, teaching strategies and ways of assessment have been redesigned in order to facilitate higher order thinking skills.

Developing HOTS is closely related to employing certain kinds of teaching strategies and instructional activities that enable learners to elaborate on the issue, conceptualize an idea and defend their point. In this regard, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy is an effective tool which can be applied in order to determine the educational objectives and design the instructional activities. As previously mentioned, Bloom categorized the intellectual behavior into six levels of thinking which have been revised by his students. The first three levels –remembering, understanding and applying- are labeled as lower order thinking skills (LOTS) whereas the last three levels are called higher order thinking skills (HOTS) (Miri, David &Uri,2007; Orey,2010; Pappas, Pierrakos & Nagel, 2013). Even though the hierarchical structure between the stages has been loosened, the last three levels trigger making judgments, questioning, reflective and critical thinking more when compared to the first three levels. For that reason, it can be stated that instructional activities should focus on enabling learners to raise doubts, make analysis, form an opinion and come up with a product.

In addition to designing the instructional activities, research shows that purposeful teaching supports the development of HOTS (Miri, David & Uri, 2007; Williams, 2003). A learning environment which facilitates debates, discussions and encourages learners to criticize reinforces the development of HOTS. Besides, HOTS is associated with the development of metacognition (Roberts & Erdos, 1993). In fact, metacognition can be said to be a higher order thinking skill which involves controlling one's cognitive process. Activities such as planning a task, monitoring the comprehension of the task and evaluating the

progress are metacognitive in nature and they also support the HOTS (Livingstone, 2003). Consequently, it is possible to promote HOTS by employing certain teaching strategies and activities. Thus, learners will not only become effective thinkers, they will also turn out to be self-regulated individuals who are aware of their needs and responsibilities.

2.21. The Importance of Curricular Alignment

Objectives, instructional activities, learning materials and assessment are the components of curriculum. Objectives determine what to teach, that is, the content of the curriculum. Instructional activities and learning materials, on the other hand, serve as means of delivering the content, that is, they determine how to teach. Finally, assessment specifies both how much have the learners learned and how well has the teacher taught. These three components are interrelated to each other as it is seen in Figure 5.

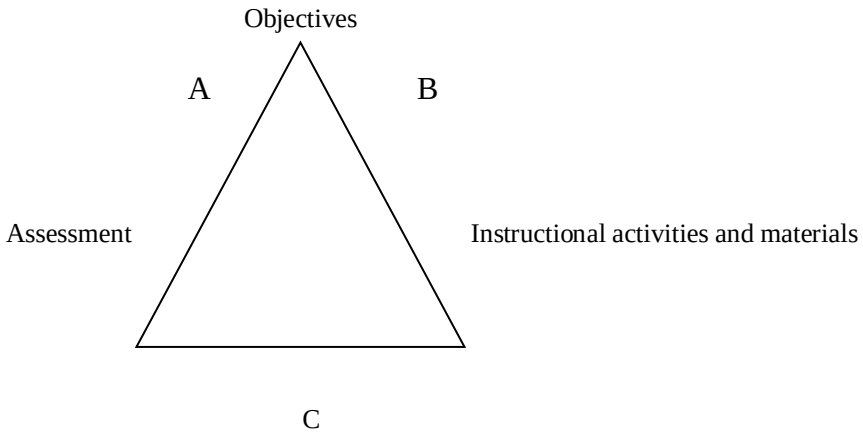


Figure 5: Relationship between objectives, instructional activities, materials and assessment Anderson, L. W. (2002). Curricular Alignment: A Re-examination. *Theory into Practice, 41*(4), 255-260.

Each side of the triangle represents the relationship between the parts that they connect to. For instance, side B demonstrates the connection of instructional activities and materials to the objectives. Instructional activities and materials are designed in accordance with the objectives. In other words, objectives determine the scope and the content of the activities and materials. Not only the activities and materials but also the assessment has been determined by the objectives, which is the verbal explanation of side A. On the other hand, side C refers to the two-way relationship between assessment and instructional activities and materials. One is that assessment should represent the content of the activities and

materials in order to ensure the content validity. Besides, activities and materials are redesigned in accordance with the results of an assessment since the results of an assessment demonstrate the suitability and efficiency of the activities and materials. The alignment between side A, side B and side C can be defined as curricular alignment. According to L. Anderson (2002) curricular alignment ensures the accountability of a curriculum. What concerns the teachers most is how they can have an idea about whether or not there is an alignment between the objectives, activities, materials and assessment. The taxonomy table, which is made up of two dimensions and 24 cells, serves as the solution to this issue. Detailed explanation about how to use the table for curricular alignment is provided as follows.

Table 4

The Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual						
Procedural						
Metacognitive						

Anderson, L. W., Krathwohl, D. R., Airasian, P., Cruikshank, K., Mayer, R., Pintrich & Wittrock, M. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy*. New York. Longman

2.21.1. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy as a Framework for Analyzing Curricular Alignment

Bloom's taxonomy has survived even though it has been a long time since it was first published. It has been revised according to the needs of the current century and policy makers, teachers, material designers have utilized the taxonomy for setting the national standards, educational outcomes, activities, preparing materials and also for measuring students' performance. In order to do this properly and accurately, a classification system is necessary and Bloom's taxonomy table serves this need. As Krathwohl (2002) expressed, the structure of revised taxonomy table provides a clear, concise and visual representation of the alignment between standards, educational outcomes, products and activities. The three features of the taxonomy make it superior to the other classification systems in the literature (L. Anderson, 2002). First, it is teacher friendly with its 24 cells and two dimensions. Second, it is possible to detect the level of alignment not only between the outcomes and the activities but also the assessment. Therefore, the taxonomy table focuses on student learning and provides valid estimates of alignment. Last, but not

the least, the taxonomy table is generic, that is, it can be used with all subject matters by identifying the knowledge category that the topic belongs to and replacing it to the related category. There are four steps to take when identifying the level of curricular alignment:

First, the outcomes are placed into the related category by analyzing the noun and verbs in the statements. The same process can be followed for the placement of learning activities. The verbs and nouns in the description of the activities are taken into consideration while carrying out the analysis. As the third step, the same procedure is applied to the categorization of the assessments. Finally, these three categorizations are compared. If the objectives, activities and assessment all fall into the same cell, complete alignment is ensured (L. Anderson, 2002). Since the aim of the current study is to find out the level of alignment between the outcome statements and coursebook activities, assessment part is out of the scope of the study. Therefore, only the outcome statements and coursebook activities have been placed into the taxonomy table.

2.22. Research on Bloom's Taxonomy

The literature provides a rich source of studies on Bloom's taxonomy and its relationship with educational outcomes, instructional activities and assessment questions in both teacher-made exams and high-stake exams. Some studies employed the original taxonomy whereas others utilized revised taxonomy. Detailed information about these studies is provided as the following.

In the study conducted by Gökler, Aypay and Arı (2012) 8th grade English outcomes, English exam questions prepared by teachers and the questions in high school entrance exam were evaluated according to BRT. In the scope of the study 73 outcome statements, 51 questions in high school entrance exam and 747 teacher-made exam questions were analyzed. The findings showed that the questions and the outcomes centered on lower order thinking skills in BRT.

Dalak (2015) conducted a research in order to compare the outcomes in the 8th grade program and the questions asked in 2013-2014 TEOG exams according to BRT. Document analysis method was employed within the qualitative research framework. The findings showed that Religion Education, Maths and Science questions asked in the fall term TEOG exam had an alignment level of over 50% in terms of BRT while the case was just the opposite for English, Turkish and History questions. Interestingly, it was found out that, all

of the questions asked in spring term TEOG exam aligned with the outcome statements over a level of 50%.

In another study only the reading sections of an EFL coursebook were analyzed in order to detect the coverage of lower and higher order thinking skills in the taxonomy (Ulum, 2016). The reading activities were analyzed through descriptive content analysis and the findings indicated that the reading sections of the coursebook lacked higher level cognitive skills. Based on the findings, it was recommended that both lower and higher level cognition questions and activities be integrated into the coursebooks.

A recent study conducted by Köksal and Ulum (2018) focused on identifying the coverage of the higher order and lower order thinking skills questions asked in the general English exams at diverse universities in Turkey. Based on a descriptive content analysis research design, the study focused on the questions that were related to four language skills, grammar and vocabulary. Also, EFL instructors were interviewed in order to learn their perspectives on incorporating Bloom's taxonomy into assessment. Findings obtained from the content analysis of the exam questions showed that the exam questions do not focus on higher level thinking. Instead, only the cognitive levels of knowledge and comprehension were observed in the examined questions. On the other hand, findings obtained from the interviews revealed that most of the EFL instructors were unaware of what Bloom's taxonomy is.

Researchers carried out similar studies abroad. Here, it would be helpful to give information about them in order to make necessary comparisons and comments related to the planned study. To begin with, at South Carolina University, Sultana (2010) aimed to find out to what extent teacher trainees can make classifications according to BRT. 123 teacher trainees participated into the study. They were grouped into two and a survey about OBT and BRT were given to both groups. Then, detailed information about OBT and BRT was provided to the participants. The trainees in one group classified only the content in a coursebook while the other group classified both the content and the questions. It was found out that none of the groups could classify the content accurately. Another finding was that the group who classified the questions was able to do it accurately only in terms of lower order cognitive skills. They could not make a correct classification of higher order cognitive skills. The findings of the study revealed teacher candidates' lack of information related to the cognitive levels in the taxonomy.

In the study conducted in 2012 *Interchange* EFL coursebook series were evaluated in order to detect which levels of BRT were more emphasized (Razmjoo & Kazempourfard, 2012). A coding scheme developed by the researchers was utilized in data analysis. The results of the study revealed that most of the activities in the coursebooks addressed to lower order thinking skills. Besides, it was detected that there were not any activities related to metacognitive knowledge. In the light of the findings, coursebook developers were suggested to incorporate higher order cognitive activities and reflective exercises; teachers were suggested to utilize supplementary materials to remedy the lack of higher level cognitive activities.

In a similar study, Rahpeyna and Khoshnood (2015) aimed to evaluate the Iranian junior high school English textbooks according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. They chose the two most frequently used English coursebooks and codified 439 tasks and exercises by a coding scheme of BRT. The findings showed that the lowest three levels of BRT were more frequently used than the highest three levels in both books. Based on the findings, the researchers made similar suggestions as those by Razmjoo and Kazempourfard (2012) such as incorporating supplementary activities for developing HOTS.

Another study was conducted in Pakistan (Chandio, Pandhiani, & Iqbal, 2016) with the aim of finding out whether the cognitive levels in Bloom's taxonomy were incorporated in the exam questions used by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE). In this vein, last five years' exam questions were analyzed through SPSS and the findings indicated that 'remembering' was the most focused level whereas higher domains of learning comprising analysis, evaluation and creativity were neglected. The study brought about recommendations for incorporating higher order thinking skills in assessment.

All in all, when the results of the studies are considered, it can be concluded that outcome statements, coursebook activities and exam questions lack in facilitating the growth of metacognition and HOTS. These findings contradict with the suggestions of the researchers in terms of the explicit instruction of metacognitive knowledge (e.g. N. Anderson, 2008, 2002; Chamot et al.,1999; Gavin,1998; O'Malley & Chamot,1990; Nunan, 1997; Schraw, 2001; Zohar,1999) through explaining and modeling the metacognitive strategies and purposeful teaching of HOTS (Collins, 2014; Miri, David & Uri, 2007; T. M. T. Nguyễn & T. T. L. Nguyễn, 2017) through the curricular activities that trigger the skills of analyzing, questioning and creating.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents information about the research methodology including the research design, universe and sampling, data collection and analysis, reliability and validity issues.

3.1 Research Design

This study has been conducted within the framework of mixed method research design which has been growing in popularity among researchers on language teaching (Hashemi, 2012; Riazi & Candlin, 2014). Mixed method research design is defined as a procedure for collecting, analyzing and "mixing" the two paradigms of qualitative and quantitative studies in a single study to understand a research problem (Creswell & Clark, 2017). However, mixed method research design is not simply mixing the two paradigms. Rather, it is merging, integrating and combining the qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, different types of mixed method research design that employ different strategies of combining the two strands exist in the literature. The current study is carried out according to the exploratory sequential design. The purpose of exploratory sequential design is first collecting qualitative data to explore a phenomenon and then explaining the relationships found in the qualitative data through quantitative data (Creswell, 2012). It is pointed out that the two strands are merged for five purposes as triangulation, initiation, development, expansion and complementarity (Riazi & Candlin, 2014). Here, exploratory sequential design is adopted with the aim of expansion. In other words, two research paradigms are utilized to extend the breadth and depth of the inquiry. In this regard, qualitative data have been collected through document analysis and interpreted through content analysis.

The study focuses on the following research questions:

1) What is the distribution of the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy?

2) What is the distribution of the activities in the 9th grade English coursebook according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy?

3) What is the relationship between the distribution of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy?

The scope of the research questions shows that the study is related to the program evaluation in terms of the consistency between the program and the outcomes. In this regard, Tyler's (1942) objectives-oriented program evaluation approach has been adopted. Objectives-oriented program evaluation approach focuses on determining to what extent the purposes of a program are achieved. Data have been collected through document analysis and interpreted through content analysis. Bowen (2009) defines document analysis as a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic. There are a wide range of documents such as advertisements, brochures, manuals, press releases, newspapers, journals, maps, charts, institutional reports, radio program scripts and even photo albums. The 9th grade English program and the 9th grade English coursebook have been analyzed as the major documents of the current study. Documents are rich information sources which reflect the data to the researcher directly. In this regard, Merriam (1988, p.118) states that "documents of all types help the researcher uncover the meaning, develop understanding and discover insights relevant to research problem." Documents serve a wide range of purposes such as generating ideas, providing supplementary data, providing the means of tracking change in a course of time or verifying the previous findings. There are a number of advantages for utilizing documents for data collection since they are public, cost-effective, stable and wide in coverage. Bowen (2009) explains the three cycles of document analyses as skimming (superficial examination), reading (detailed examination) and interpretation. In this regard, he emphasizes that document analysis is not only a matter of extracting the meaning of a material in a randomized fashion. Rather, it is a systematic process of developing an understanding in which the researcher be careful about objectivity, sensitivity and preserving the balance between them. Regarding this process, Labuschagne (2003)

declares that document analysis provides data that are then organized into major themes, categories and case examples specifically through content analysis.

Content analysis, on the other hand, is the process of systematically categorizing the quantitative and qualitative data based on specific themes and categories. It is widely used in both theoretical and applied studies. It has a lot of advantages as it is systematic, verifiable, explicit and public (Mayring, 2004). One of the most common practices of content analysis is counting and categorizing words in a measurement tool or calculating the frequencies of themes (Dinçer, 2018). In this way, consistent patterns and the relationships between the themes can be identified (Julien, 2008). The current study aims to find out the distribution of the activities and the outcome statements into the knowledge and cognitive process levels in Bloom's revised taxonomy. Thus, the relationship between the two strands in terms of their distribution into the cognitive levels will be detected. Therefore, descriptive content analysis is the most convenient research method for the present study.

3.2. Universe and Sampling

Determining the universe and employing an appropriate sampling method is critical in terms of the generalization of the findings. In this study, the outcome statements in the revised 9th grade English program and the activities in the 9th grade English coursebook provide the universe. As for sampling, typical case sampling from the purposeful sampling methods has been employed. Patton (2002) states that the aim of typical case sampling is to describe and illustrate what is typical to those unfamiliar with the setting, not to make generalizations. Since the aim of this study is to explore the distribution of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities in the light of Bloom's revised taxonomy, it can be asserted that typical case sampling suits the nature of the study the best. The findings of this study cannot be generalized to other programs and coursebook activities.

3.3. Data Collection

Data for the first research question have been collected from the outcome statements in the revised 9th grade English program. The number and the classification of the outcome statements are shown in Table 5:

Table 5

Categorization of the Outcome Statements in Grade 9

Skills	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Pronunciation	Total
Number (n)	16	16	17	30	10	89

According to the Table 5, 89 outcome statements provide the data for the first research question. Since the revision puts an emphasis on speaking, the number of the outcome statements for speaking is more than the other skills. Apart from the four language skills, outcome statements for pronunciation also take place in the program. There is only one outcome statement for pronunciation in each theme which makes 10 outcomes in total. Outcomes for grammar or vocabulary do not take place in the program because it is not the intention of the revision to take the attention of the teachers and material designers to grammatical structures by imposing them to clearly defined outcome statements. Rather, grammatical structures are suggested to be presented through reading and listening. The same thing applies to the presentation of the vocabulary items, as well. It is left to the preference of the teachers and material designers to decide on which vocabulary item to teach depending on the topic of the theme, the needs and the level of the learners. However, a word limit has been set to ensure meaningful learning and active use of the vocabulary. Therefore, the number of the new words to be learnt in each lesson has been determined to be seven. The verbs in the statements and which cognitive process they aim to develop in the learners have been the center of focus during the classification.

Data for the second research question have been collected from 279 activities in the coursebook. Categorization of the coursebook activities is shown in the Table 6.

Table 6

Categorization of the Coursebook Activities

	Reading Activities	Listening Activities	Speaking Activities	Writing Activities	Pronunciation Activities	Total
Number (n)	100	46	75	40	18	279

As shown in the table, reading activities outnumber the activities for the other skills. Whereas the emphasis is on the speaking skill in the program in terms of the number of the outcome statements, there are more reading activities than speaking activities in the coursebook. As in the case for the analysis of the outcome statements, the cognitive

process which is aimed to develop in learners is taken into consideration during the analysis of the coursebook activities.

3.4. Instruments

The outcome statements and the coursebook activities are the sources for data collection while the adapted verb list and the taxonomy table have been employed as the instruments for data analysis.

3.4.1. Verb List

Some modifications have been done in the verb list which includes the categorization of 176 verbs into the six cognitive process levels in Bloom's revised taxonomy, developed by Stanny (2016).(The original list is provided in Appendix 1.) The reasons of the modification are explained below:

Even though the list is one of the most comprehensive lists in the literature, it does not include some verbs that take place in the outcome statements. Therefore, 18 verbs have been added to list.

During the coding process, it has been recognized that some verbs are categorized under more than one cognitive level. For example; "(to) write" belongs to the categories of 'knowledge', 'applying' and 'creating'. The outcome statements have been categorized under the related levels as in the following:

- E9.3.W2. Students will be able to write short text messages to invite their friends for a movie. (applying)
- E9.8.W1. Students will be able to prepare posters/leaflet/brochures about safety and health at work. (creating)

However, while categorizing the outcomes, the researcher concluded that the following outcome statements are appropriate for neither 'applying' nor 'creating'.

- E9.3.W1. Students will be able to write their opinions on a blog.
- E9.5.W1. Students will be able to write a text comparing characteristics of people by giving their opinions.

These outcome statements aim at having learners criticize and form their own opinion. Therefore, "(to) write" has been inserted under the level of 'evaluating'.

Finally, the name of the first level 'knowledge' has been renamed as 'remembering' in order to ensure the consistency with the other five levels in the revised taxonomy.

The additions to the original list are provided in Appendix 2.

3.4.2. The Taxonomy Table

The outcome statements and the coursebook activities have been categorized into the taxonomy table developed by Krathwohl and his team (Krathwohl et al., 2001) (Appendix 3). The table consists of two dimensions: knowledge dimension and the cognitive process dimension. Thus, it provides a clear and visual representation of the categorizations with its 24 cells.

3.4.3. English Coursebook

The activities in the coursebook 'Teenwise' -approved by the National Board of Education as the 9th grade English coursebook- have been analyzed in terms of their compatibility to learning outcomes and their distribution into the Bloom's revised taxonomy. The coursebook includes 10 themes the order of which is in alignment with the 9th grade program. At the very beginning of each theme, there is a rhyming stanza which asks warm-up questions related to the theme. Besides, a QR code is included in each theme in order for students to study online. At the end of each theme, a "check yourself" section is provided in order to enable learners to self-check their progress. Besides, a grammar reference part is provided at the end of the book which includes only the grammar structures and mechanical activities.

3.5. Data Analysis

The following procedures suggested by Yıldırım and Şimşek (2006) have been employed within the framework of descriptive analysis. First, the framework within which the data will be analyzed is determined. In this study, the knowledge and the cognitive process dimensions in the Bloom's revised taxonomy set up the framework. Second, the data are collected and placed into the related categories. In this study, the outcome statements and the coursebook activities have been placed into the taxonomy table through content

analysis. Two separate procedures are followed in this phase. For the categorization of the outcome statements, the verbs are taken into consideration for their categorization into cognitive process levels and noun phrases are directed attention for their categorization into the knowledge levels in the taxonomy table. The outcome statements are categorized according to their categorizations in the adapted list. As for the categorization of the coursebook activities the following procedure is applied. First, activities for each skill are determined and arranged according to what they aim to develop in learners such as making inference, enhancing their comprehension of a reading text or producing something new related to what they have learned. Then, they are placed into the related categories in the taxonomy table, too. Next, the findings are defined and arranged in order to interpret them. In order to do this, frequency and the percentages have been calculated and provided through tables. Finally, the interpretation of the findings is carried out by supporting the claims with the related findings from the literature. In chapter IV, the findings are presented and interpreted.

3.6. Validity and Reliability

Ensuring validity and reliability is at the heart of research. The measures taken for ensuring the validity and reliability may vary depending on the research paradigm. Current research is conducted within the framework of mixed-method research and according to Dörnyei (2007) the main aspect of ensuring validity in mixed-type studies is to express the rationale behind combining the two paradigms rather than conducting the research in a single paradigm. This research is carried out in exploratory sequential design the data for which is based primarily on qualitative strand. The collected data are categorized and quantified through descriptive analysis in order to determine the relationship between the different categories. Therefore, two research paradigms are combined and the strengths of both strands are utilized. Since the study is based mostly on qualitative data, following points are taken into consideration in order to ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research (Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2002).

First, it is important to employ an appropriate research methodology depending on the research questions. In this study, document analysis for data collection and descriptive content analysis for analyzing the data have been employed considering that similar methodology has been employed in similar studies in the literature (e.g. Demir, 2015; Köksal & Ulum, 2018; Savaş, 2014; Ulum, 2016; Uymaz, 2016).

Second, choosing an appropriate instrument is a must for the validity and reliability of the study. In this study, the taxonomy table and the verb list are used for data analysis. As Krathwohl (2001) suggests, the taxonomy table provides a visual and clear representation of the alignment between the outcomes, activities and assessment. Showing the both dimensions in BRT, it includes 24 cells and is quite practical. The verb list, another instrument for data analysis, has been adapted to include all the verbs in the outcome statements, which ensures content validity. A colleague participated into the adaptation process. The verbs that are absent in the original list but exist in the program outcomes have been classified into the taxonomy table separately and inter-rater reliability has been calculated to be 83 %. As for the categorization of the coursebook activities, inter-rater reliability has been calculated to be 86 %. Besides, sample categorizations from the previous studies have been analyzed in detail and views of a researcher on Bloom's taxonomy have been taken.

Next, using an appropriate sample is critical. In this study, typical case sampling method has been adopted for answering the research questions. Within the scope of the first research question, all of the outcome statements – 89 in total – have been analyzed in order to ensure that the findings would be representative. As for the second research question, the activities in the coursebook 'Teenwise', which has been approved by National Board of Education and is being used at state schools, have been analyzed.

In her study titled as 'Qualitative Quality: Eight "Big-Tent" Criteria for Excellent Qualitative Research' Tracy (2010) defined the eight criteria which show that a qualitative study is well-constructed. One of the criteria is 'sincerity' which means that a research is marked by honesty and transparency. In order to ensure sincerity in this research, the components such as the instruments, data collection and data analysis have been explained in detail. Besides, sample categorizations of outcome statements (Appendix 4) and coursebook activities (Appendix 5) have been provided.

Finally, the findings related to the analysis have been checked by the researcher at regular intervals in order to ensure intrarater reliability. The findings of the study are presented in chapter IV through tables.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS and DISCUSSION

In this chapter, findings are presented under the title of the research question that they belong to and the discussions related to the findings have been made.

The current study has been conducted to answer the following research questions:

1) What is the distribution of the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy?

2) What is the distribution of the 9th grade English coursebook activities according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy?

3) What is the relationship between the distribution of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy?

4.1. Findings Related To the First Research Question

Within the scope of the first research question, outcome statements in the 9th grade English program have been analyzed. Findings show that there are 89 outcome statements in total in the 9th grade English program. The number and the classification of the outcome statements are provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Categorization of the Outcome Statements in Grade 9

Skills	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Pronunciation	Total
Number (n)	16	16	17	30	10	89

As shown in Table 7, the outcome statements for speaking skill outnumber the outcome statements for the other three skills and pronunciation, which is in line with the claim of the curriculum renewal that there would be emphasis on speaking.

The findings related to the analysis of each skill are provided below.

4.1.1. Findings Related To the Outcomes for Reading Skill

16 outcome statements for reading skill have been analyzed and categorized into the taxonomy table in Table 8.

Table 8

Classification of the Outcomes for Reading Skill into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension (n)					
Knowledge Dimension (n)	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual	1			2		
Conceptual		5		2		
Procedural		2		4		
Metacognitive						

Table 8 shows that there is not a homogenous distribution of the outcomes for reading skill into the cognitive process dimensions. The table reveals that out of 16 outcome statements half of them are categorized into the level of 'analyzing' and 7 of them are categorized into the level of 'understanding'. As for the category of 'remembering', there is only 1 outcome statement. When the table is analyzed in terms of knowledge dimension, it can be stated that most of the outcome statements (n=7) aim at developing conceptual knowledge. There are 6 outcome statements for developing procedural knowledge and only 3 outcome statements which require the knowledge of specific elements and details, that is, factual knowledge. The table shows that there are not any outcomes for developing metacognitive knowledge.

Two more tables are provided below which show the percentages of the categorizations across cognitive process dimensions and knowledge dimensions separately.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Reading Skill across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	1	6.25
Understand	7	43.75
Apply	0	0
Analyze	8	50
Evaluate	0	0
Create	0	0
Total	16	100

According to the findings presented in Table 9, 'analyzing' is the most focused dimension in the taxonomy (n=8). A sample outcome statement for analyzing is "Students will be able to detect the supporting ideas in a text." This outcome statement aims to have learners not only understand what the text is about. It also emphasizes at enabling them to detect the relationship between the parts of a text in terms of supporting or contrasting each other, which automatically leads to a deeper comprehension. In his definition of reading comprehension, Durkin (1993) emphasizes the construction of meaning as a result of the interaction between the text and the reader. This interaction process requires the reader to deal with the text deeply through deciphering the relationship between the different components and reasoning their role in the overall structure of the text. Therefore, this process demands a higher cognitive level than answering the factual questions about the text. Russell (1996, p.2) exemplifies this distinction as the following:

"The griney grollers grangled in the granchy gak."

1. Who grangled in the granchy gak?
   - The griney grollers
2. Where they grangled?
   - in the granchy gak
3. What did they do in the granchy gak?
   - They grangled
4. Why did the griney grollers grangled in the granchy gak? Explain your answer.

As it is clearly pointed out in the example, one can easily answer the first three questions without understanding the meaning of the sentence. However, in order to answer the fourth question, the reader has to identify the cause and effect relationship and justify it. Doing so, he will operate at the level of 'analyzing' and comprehend the sentence better. The

reason that most of the reading skill outcomes are categorized into the level of 'analyzing' can be attributed to the fact that the nature of the reading skill is quite suitable to make analysis. A reading activity -whether it is a short story, a paragraph or a movie poster- is made up of different components and the relationship between the components and the overall activity can be detected through analyzing them. Therefore, the phrases as "detecting the sentences that support the writer's claim" or "finding out the irrelevant statements" are commonly used in the outcome statements for reading. Those kind of outcome statements require learners to operate at a level beyond 'understanding' and enable them to understand the reading material deeper (Anderson et al.,1956)

The second most emphasized cognitive process level is 'understanding' with a proportion of 43,75 % (n=7). Understanding is a cognitive process which includes giving examples, making explanations and summarizing. The comprehension questions that are provided following a reading material can be given as examples of this category. A sample outcome statement as "Students will be able to respond to the questions about a text related to the world heritage." is linked with the level of 'understanding' because questions such as "why did they decide to build a tomb?" or "how long did it take to build the castle?" can be asked after presenting a text on world heritage. Those kinds of questions help learners understand the details in a text, which results in a better comprehension. The findings for 'understanding' are in consistency with the A2 level descriptors in CEFR (2001) as pointed out in CEFR that learners with A2 level are able to understand and identify the general meaning of a reading text.

One of the least focused cognitive process dimensions is 'remembering'. There is only 1 outcome statement which is "Students will be able to recognize familiar names, words and very basic phrases in simple texts such as postcards, greeting cards and emails." The code of the outcome, which is E9.1.R1., indicates that this outcome is the first reading outcome in the entire program; therefore, it is quite acceptable to begin with the lowest cognitive level when the principle of "from easier to more difficult" is taken into consideration.

All in all, it can be concluded that the distribution of the reading outcomes is not proportional. While half of the outcomes concentrate at the level of 'analyzing', there are not any outcome statements for fostering students' critical thinking. This result is open to many interpretations. From a point of view, this distribution is quite expectable when the nature of the reading skill is taken into consideration. Reading skill is quite suitable for

analyzing a text through breaking it into its parts and relating each component to one another. Therefore, the result that the most frequent cognitive process dimension is 'analyzing' serves the nature of reading. On the other hand, reading is a skill which allows making interpretations, inferences and evaluations, as well. This fact leads us to critical reading. Critical reading is defined as making judgments while reading and questioning what is read according to pre-determined standards (Haris & Hodges, 1981). Therefore, it can be deduced that a critical reader questions what he or she reads. Here, it should be made clear that the act of questioning is beyond understanding the text. While questioning, a critical reader constantly asks "What is the main point of the writer? Why does the writer think that way? Is the writer's claim based on a fact or an opinion? etc." Those kinds of questions enable learners to comprehend the text better because there is a two-way relationship between comprehension and critical thinking (Collins, Brown & Larkin, 1977; Norris & Philips, 1987). From this point of view, it can be deduced that the outcomes for reading are not inclusive of and adequate for developing HOTS.

In Table 10, frequencies and percentages of the outcomes for reading skill across knowledge dimensions are provided.

Table 10

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Reading Skill across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	3	18.75
Conceptual	7	43.75
Procedural	6	37.50
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	16	100

As for the knowledge dimensions, the findings demonstrate that 43.75 % (n=7) of all the outcomes focus on developing learners' knowledge of theories and structures, that is, conceptual knowledge. A sample outcome statement for developing conceptual knowledge is "Students will be able to ask and answer the questions about a text related to the world heritage." Through this outcome learners are aimed to ask and answer questions related to the text. That is, they are to understand and practice the structures. For instance, in order to ask a question, it is required to know the structure of question sentences. The fact that a reading text is made up of sentences which are organized by sentence structures verifies this finding.

Findings also indicate that 37.5 % (n=6) of all the outcomes aim at developing procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge includes the knowledge of subject-specific skills and techniques. A sample outcome statement related to procedural knowledge is "Students will be able to scan a text for specific information." which includes a subject specific strategy of 'scanning'. Reading is a skill which includes strategies as guessing the topic from the context, guessing the content from the title, paraphrasing, inferring, skimming and scanning (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Bartram & Parry, 1989). These strategies are employed in order to improve the comprehension of a reading material because reading comprehension is the basis of learning other disciplines, as well (Assaly & Smadi, 2015). Learners cannot achieve an understanding of history, biology or math if they do not employ reading strategies proficiently. Therefore, a decent coverage of reading strategies into the curricula through outcome statements would facilitate the HOTS and the transfer of these skills to other disciplines.

The least emphasized knowledge dimension in the new 9th grade English program for reading skill outcomes is factual knowledge. According to Krathwohl (2002) factual knowledge refers to the knowledge of basic principles in a discipline. In this study, there is only one outcome statement that can be categorized under factual knowledge, which constitutes 6.25 % of all the outcomes. It is the following statement that "Students will be able to recognize familiar names, words and very basic phrases in simple texts such as postcards, greeting cards and emails." What is expected from the students through this outcome statement is that they are to notice basic nouns such as 'name, age, place etc' in a simple reading text. Therefore, it can be asserted that the outcome statement does not require a complex cognitive skill. However, it is necessary to include factual knowledge in the curriculum so that it would be possible to build on more complex knowledge. At this point a careful decision should be made on how much factual knowledge to include. Having too many outcomes related to factual knowledge leads to the rote memorization of the facts and may cause learners to operate at the lower levels in cognition.

The findings related to the metacognitive knowledge show that there are not any outcome statements for reading skill that emphasize metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge refers to the knowledge of the effective implementation of metacognitive strategies such as selective attention, adjusting the speed of reading to mind mapping and setting sub-goals. It also covers when to use which strategy. In daily life, people are

confronted with diverse situations which require them to obtain the necessary information in the most suitable way such as finding the telephone number of a person in the phone book, deciding to buy or not to buy a book through a quick glance at the chapters or reading an article deeply in order to internalize it. A competent reader deals with these situations through employing the right strategy in the right situation for a particular purpose (Konza, 2011). On the other hand, learners who lack knowledge of metacognitive strategies get discouraged when they deal with unfamiliar vocabulary, fail to build on the key ideas and cannot comprehend the text. Therefore, an explicit training of metacognitive strategies is necessary.

4.1.2. Findings Related To the Outcomes for Listening Skill

The outcomes for listening skill in the new 9th grade English program have been analyzed and categorized into the taxonomy table below.

Table 11

Classification of the Outcomes for Listening Skill into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual	1					
Conceptual		11	1	4		
Procedural						
Metacognitive						

The table shows that similar to the outcomes for reading skill, outcomes for listening do not have a homogeneous distribution for knowledge and cognitive process dimensions. From 17 outcome statements, 11 of them are categorized under the level of 'understanding'. The second most frequent cognitive level for listening skill outcomes is 'analyzing' with 4 outcome statements and the least focused categories are 'remembering' and 'applying'. In addition, none of the outcome statements is categorized under 'evaluating' and 'creating' dimensions. As for the knowledge dimension, it has been found out that with the exception of 1 outcome, all the other 16 outcomes focus on developing conceptual knowledge. Besides, there is not any outcome statement for procedural and metacognitive knowledge.

The table below shows the frequencies and percentages of the categorizations across cognitive process dimensions.

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Listening Skill across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	1	5.88
Understand	11	64.70
Apply	1	5.88
Analyze	4	23.52
Evaluate	0	0
Create	0	0
Total	17	100

According to the findings in the table, the most focused cognitive process dimension is 'understanding' which is 64.70 % (n=11) of all the outcomes. A sample outcome statement for this category is "Students will be able to complete the missing parts in a dialogue about invitations and apologies on a phone call." This outcome intends to have learners detect the missing points in a dialogue and complete them through listening. In other words, learners are expected to comprehend what they listen to in order to fill the gaps in a dialogue.

Aural input has an essential role in foreign language classes since learners do not receive sufficient input outside. They have to deal with a number of difficulties such as unknown vocabulary, fast speech and inability to match the speech with the written form (Chang & Read, 2006). All these factors prevent the comprehension of aural input. Therefore, it is necessary to focus on the comprehension of aural input in the program outcomes and instructional activities. Especially for lower proficiency learners, enhancing the comprehension of the listening text through various means of support is important. As in the case of the outcome statement that "students will be able to complete the missing parts in a dialogue about invitations and apologies on a phone call" reading while listening is one of these means of support which has been found to be beneficial for L2 listeners. According to Vandergrift (2007) learners with lower proficiency develop auditory discrimination better when they are given the written form of the listening text. Similarly, Osada (2001) believes that matching the listening text with the written form helps listeners develop form-meaning relationships. This is helpful especially for lower proficiency learners who find one-shot nature of the listening skill difficult. When they are supported with the written form of what they listen to, their comprehension will be enhanced. Besides, their inability to match aural and written forms will be eliminated (Chang & Read, 2006). In addition to enhancing the comprehension of listening text, dominance of 'understanding' level shows consistency with the CEFR descriptors related to listening

skill for A1-A2 levels. According to CEFR (2001), A1 and A2 learners are expected to understand the main idea when the oral discourse is produced clearly. Therefore, it is crucial for learners to identify the meaning of the input in order to build on it.

The only category that listening skill outcomes focus on from the categories of higher order thinking skills is 'analyzing', which constitutes 23.52 % (n=4) of the total number. A sample outcome statement for analyzing is "Students will be able to identify the subject of a text with the help of familiar words." Through this outcome learners are expected to relate the parts –familiar vocabulary items in this case with the whole -what the text is about-. That is, learners are expected to operate at a level beyond 'understanding'. Since the taxonomy has a hierarchical structure, it can be stated that 'analyzing' is the lowest level in HOTS. Therefore, having 'analyzing' as the only level in HOTS can be explained from two perspectives. First, the learners' low proficiency level forces program developers not to step out of the boundaries of achievement expectancy of A1-A2 learners. Second, classified as a receptive skill (Harmer, 2001), listening is not appropriate for production. Therefore, including outcome statements which require learners to operate at the level of 'creating' would go opposite with the nature of the skill. However, the absence of focus on the level of 'evaluating' is indicative of the fact that the outcome statements for listening skill are not adequately designed for promoting questioning in learners. Past research shows that effective listeners question what they listen to in order to decipher the pragmatic meaning, differentiate the fact from the opinion, understand the speaker's intentions and respond accordingly (Garcia, 2004; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). All these characteristics verifies the role of the listener in the listening process that he actively constructs the meaning, focusing on the selected aspects and relating the listening material with his prior knowledge and the contextual factors (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989).

In order to have detailed information about the distribution of the outcomes for listening skill across knowledge dimension, Table 13 is provided.

Table 13

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Listening Skill across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	1	5.88
Conceptual	16	94.11
Procedural	0	0
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	17	100

Findings in the table indicate that with the exception of 1 outcome, all of the other outcomes, which makes 94.11 % (n=16) in total, aim at developing conceptual knowledge. As it is shown in the table, there are not any outcomes for developing procedural and metacognitive knowledge.

Listening is generally regarded as an implicit process. Therefore, its importance in communication is underestimated. However, oral communication requires a sender (speaker), a receiver (listener) and the message itself. Communication will eventually come to a halt unless the listener is skillful enough to interpret the message. Therefore, listening is a prerequisite for a successful communication, yet, as Vandergrift and Goh (2012) observe, it has not received the attention that it deserves. There may exist several reasons for its being a neglected skill. One of them is the misconception that listening is an implicit process and the listener is a passive agent. However, listening is a complex process in which there are different factors to be considered such as the speaker, the message, the background knowledge of the listener, the socio cultural context etc. In their definition of listening, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) emphasize the dynamic nature of listening saying that it is a conscious activity during which the listener constructs the meaning by using contextual information, his prior knowledge and a variety of strategies. What they mean by 'strategies' is metacognitive strategies that listeners deliberately apply to spoken text and check their comprehension through planning, monitoring and evaluating. The studies conducted both in Turkey and abroad prove the contribution of metacognitive strategies to both L1 and L2 listening improvement (Birjandi & Rahimi, 2012; Coşkun, 2010; Katrancı, 2012; Vandergrift, 2004). Selective listening, utilizing the background information about the speakers, relating the topic with the facial expressions, tone of voice of the speakers and establishing purpose for listening are just a few of these strategies. These strategies help learners' cognition get activated through questioning, evaluating, going back and forth

to make connections between what they already know and the incoming knowledge. When the improvements in comprehension and cognition are taken into account, it can be deduced that the absence of the listening skill outcomes for procedural and metacognitive knowledge is a real shortcoming.

4.1.3. Findings Related to the Outcomes for Writing Skill

The outcomes for writing skill in the new 9th grade English syllabus have been analyzed and categorized into the taxonomy Table 14.

Table 14

Classification of the Outcomes for Writing Skill into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual		1				
Conceptual		1	4		3	1
Procedural			3		2	1
Metacognitive						

It can be inferred that when compared to the outcomes for listening skill, there is a more comprehensive distribution for the outcomes of writing skill. Table 14 shows that from 16 outcome statements, 7 of them are categorized under the level of 'applying'. When compared to the outcomes for reading and listening skills, there are more outcome statements that are categorized under the levels of 'evaluating' and 'creating'. There are 5 outcomes for 'evaluating' and 2 outcomes for 'creating' levels. On the other hand, unlike the outcomes for reading and listening skills, there are not any outcomes that can be categorized under the level of 'remembering' and 'analyzing'. As for the knowledge dimension, it can be said that from 16 outcomes 9 of them emphasize at conceptual knowledge and 6 of them focus on developing procedural knowledge. Similar to the outcomes for reading and listening skills, the least emphasized knowledge dimension is factual knowledge. There is only 1 outcome statement for factual knowledge. The findings also indicate that there are not any outcomes for writing skill that aim at developing learners' metacognition.

The frequencies and percentages of the outcomes for writing skill across cognitive process dimensions are displayed in Table 15.

Table 15

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Writing Skill across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	0	0
Understand	2	12.50
Apply	7	43.75
Analyze	0	0
Evaluate	5	31.25
Create	2	12.50
Total	16	100

The table indicates that nearly half of the outcomes (43.75 %) aim at having learners use the expressions in other contexts, which is in line with the descriptors for A1-A2 level learners in CEFR (2001) and the claim of the curriculum renewal (MoNE, 2017) that learners would practice the linguistic structures and the expressions in writing. A sample outcome statement for applying is "Students will be able to write simple invitation letters." Through this outcome, learners are aimed to use the expressions for inviting in letters. It is essential to equip learners with ample practice beginning from the secondary school so that they would proceed to performing tasks with higher cognition demand such as academic writing at tertiary level. Research indicates that Turkish EFL learners are not equipped with sufficient writing practice at secondary school; therefore, have difficulty in academic writing in higher education (Altınmakas & Bayyurt, 2019; Yağız, 2009). The fact that writing operates as a gatekeeper for academic achievement and even for work life (Hyland, 2013) leads us to the conclusion that it is essential to reinforce learners with sufficient practice in the very beginning of the secondary school in order to enable them to be competent writers.

'Evaluating' is the second most frequent category after 'applying'. It constitutes 31.25 % of all the outcome statements. The outcome statement "Students will be able to write a text comparing characteristics of people by giving their opinions." can be given as example for the level of 'evaluating'. This outcome intends to have learners judge the characteristics of people based on some standards that they pre-determine. It means that learners operate at a level beyond understanding and analyzing. When compared to the outcomes for reading and listening skills, it can be claimed that there is much more focus in writing skill in terms of developing HOTS. This claim is valid for the number of the outcomes categorized under the level of 'creating'. However, this does not mean that they are adequately distributed. In fact, 12.50 % is too low a ratio to enable learners to produce a piece of writing. Writing is a

productive skill in nature. It is possible to create a piece of writing no matter how low the proficiency level is. Learners do not have to be in the advanced level in order to operate at the level of 'creating'. Designing posters on various topics, writing short slogans for a school organization or preparing an identity card are simply the examples of tasks for 'creating'. Therefore, it can be claimed that the productive nature of the writing skill has not been reflected in the program outcomes.

The table also indicates that there are not any outcomes for 'remembering' and 'analyzing', which leads us to the conclusion that the distribution of the outcome statements for writing is not homogeneous. Generally, outcome statements for 'remembering' in the case of the writing skill underline recalling the correct spelling of the words. Since English is different from Turkish, learners' native tongue, in terms of its spelling; beginner level learners generally have difficulty in spelling. Therefore, it is a limitation of the program not to have outcome statements for 'remembering' in the earlier units. The same thing applies to the level of 'analyzing' as well. Analyzing means breaking the knowledge into its parts and finding out the relationship between the parts and the whole. The program includes outcome statements for paragraph writing but they are limited to the level of 'applying'. However, writing a paragraph requires the elements of coherence, cohesion and unity along with the topic sentence, controlling idea and supporting sentences. These elements are necessary for paragraph writing and require learners to operate at the level of 'analyzing'. When learners study the parts of a paragraph and detect the relationship between them in order to make a well-structured whole, they take steps to be competent in writing. Therefore, not including outcome statements for paragraph writing in the level of 'analyzing' is a limitation of the program.

Table 16 that shows the frequencies and percentages of the outcomes for writing skill across knowledge dimensions is provided in Table 16.

Table 16

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Writing Skill across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	1	6.25
Conceptual	9	56.25
Procedural	6	37.50
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	16	100

According to the findings indicated in the table, 56.25 (n=9) of the outcomes aim at developing conceptual knowledge. A sample outcome statement is "Students will be able to fill in a chart comparing cities in Turkey." A possible writing activity related to this outcome can be reading a text that compares İzmir and Sivas, for example, in terms of population, weather conditions, economic activities etc. Having read the text, students may be expected to complete a table comparing the two cities in terms of the above-mentioned features. Therefore, it is highly possible that learners would deal with comparative adjectives, there is/there are structures etc. Thus, it is expected that knowledge about grammatical structures be improved through effective implementation of the outcome and the activities, which is consistent with the program declaration that grammatical structures are not given direct emphasis. Rather, they are embedded in writing and reading (MONE, 2018). The aim of integrating grammatical structures into the reading and writing skills is to contextualize teaching. It is emphasized in the program that communicative language teaching (CLT, hereafter) is adopted in order to enable learners to use the language in real life settings. In his list of the key points of CLT, Brown (1994) highlights that meaning and contextualization are of paramount importance. He further explains what context means as the following: context includes who the speaker is, who the audience is, where the communication occurs, the purpose of interaction etc. All these factors determine the meaning of interaction. In this regard, Nunan (1989) argues that without contextualized teaching, learners will have difficulty to understand why and how alternative forms exist to express different communicative functions. For example, converting an active sentence into a passive voice is a typical way of introducing the passive voice. However, context and communicative tasks are required to enable learners to see when it is suitable to use passive voice rather than the active voice. Similarly, Harmer (2007, p.69) claims that language learning takes place only if learners are exposed to meaning-focused communicative tasks, then "language learning will take care of itself". Therefore, the finding related to the dominance of conceptual knowledge is consistent with the CLT.

Another finding is related to the knowledge of subject-specific skills and techniques, that is, procedural knowledge. There are 6 (37.50 %) outcomes under this category. These outcome statements include writing a blog, a descriptive paragraph or a text message which require certain word choice and organization based on the genre. A sample outcome statement can be "Students will be able to prepare posters/leaflet/brochures about safety and health at work." As explained before, leaflets, brochures or posters have their own

specific genre and organizational framework. Knowing that a catchy slogan is necessary in a poster is an example of procedural knowledge. Writing is a skill which enables learners to deal with a wide range of text types from stick notes to blogs and academic essays. Therefore, more focus on procedural knowledge is desired.

The result that there is not any focus on metacognitive knowledge signals the shortcoming of the program. Schraw (1998) argues that students do not develop metacognitive practices without explicit instruction and practice. Therefore, instructional objectives regarding the development of metacognitive knowledge need to be integrated into the curricula. Since metacognition refers to monitoring how to learn, metacognition in writing deals with how learners monitor their writing process. For some scholars, writing and thinking are similar actions during which similar cognitive processes get activated (Emig, 1977; Hayes, 2000). Planning, organizing the mind and reflecting are the cognitive processes that occur both in thinking and writing. Similar to thinking, writing is a complex process which requires a well-structured organization. If learners' awareness of the metacognitive practices is raised, they get better at writing tasks. Therefore, developing metacognition in writing classes is a must. This necessity has been revealed in literature by a number of studies which show that there is a two-way relationship between metacognitive strategies and improved writing performance (Connor, 2007; Hayes, 2000; Lavelle, Smith & O' Ryan, 2002). These strategies include planning, adjusting the language according to the audience, outlining, drafting, editing and more. Since learning activities are shaped in line with the outcome statements, it can be deduced that writing activities would not be designed to enable learners to employ these strategies. This situation is predicted to result in learners who are incompetent writers.

4.1.4. Findings Related To the Outcomes for Speaking Skill

30 outcome statements for speaking skill in the 9th grade English program have been analyzed and categorized into the Table 17.

Table 17

Classification of the Outcomes for Speaking Skill into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual		3	19		4	
Procedural			3			1
Metacognitive						

It can be inferred from the table that there is not a homogeneous distribution of the outcomes for speaking across cognitive process and knowledge dimensions. The level of 'applying' (n=22) rates more than the others. There are 4 outcomes for 'evaluating' and 3 outcomes for 'understanding'. The least focused level is 'creating' under which is only 1 outcome statement. However, there are not any outcome statements for 'remembering' and 'analyzing'. As for the knowledge dimensions, 26 outcome statements emphasize at conceptual knowledge while only 4 outcome statements are categorized under procedural knowledge. There is not any focus on factual and metacognitive knowledge.

Another table which shows the frequencies and percentages of the categorizations of the outcomes for speaking skill across cognitive process dimensions is provided in Table18.

Table 18

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Speaking Skill across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimension	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	0	0
Understand	3	10
Apply	22	73.33
Analyze	0	0
Evaluate	4	13.33
Create	1	3.33
Total	30	100

As it is shown in the table, 'applying' (73.33 %) is the most emphasized category in the outcomes for speaking skill, which is consistent with the aim of the curriculum revision. The revised curriculum focuses on speaking skill the most and aims to have learners use the expressions and structures in real life contexts. The following statement "Students will be able to ask about and tell the time and the date." can be given as an example of this category. Through this outcome, it is aimed for students to ask for and tell the time in case of a necessity. After all, being able to use the language should be the primary concern of

language classes. An expression which has been practiced through mechanical activities and in artificial contexts is of no use without being applied in real life situations.

The category of 'understanding', on the other hand, makes up 10% (n=3) of all the outcomes. 'Understanding' in speaking skill involves exemplifying the expressions through practice and comparing them with the expressions for similar functions. A sample statement is "Students will be able to practice questions about location of things and places." A possible activity designed for this outcome employs the questions about prepositions of place. Learners are expected to practice the structures through asking and answering the place of the objects around them such as "-where is the tablet? , -it's on your desk. etc." In other words, they are exposed to mechanical activities in order to gain accuracy. As they practice the expressions accurately in mechanical examples, they will be apply them fluently in real life contexts. Besides, practicing is necessary in order to decrease the anxiety which is a term mostly associated with speaking skill (Ay, 2010; Aydın, 2008; Dalkılıç, 2001; Philips, 1992; Tanrıöver, 2012; Woodraw, 2006). Several studies have been conducted to find out the factors that cause speaking anxiety. In those studies learners report that spontaneous speech, unfamiliarity with the language, speaking in front of the peers and lack of practice are the most anxiety provoking reasons (Koçak, 2010; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014). In fact, all these factors may be associated with lack of practice. To begin with, spontaneous speech occurs without getting prepared for the topic in advance. Therefore, learners would not feel anxious when they are given the opportunity to make practice beforehand. Secondly, learners report that English is a foreign language after all and they do not use it for real-life purposes. As a result, they feel themselves 'foreign' to the language. To overcome this problem, allocating a significant amount of class time for getting learners familiar with the language through practice is necessary. The same thing applies to the factor of speaking in front of the peers. It is reported that the fear of being laughed at when speaking in front of the peers is a source of anxiety for learners. However, this problem can be eliminated through practice. The more learners practice the language in pair-work and group work activities, the more they will get used to speaking in front of their peers. Taking all these factors into consideration, it is concluded that having only 3 outcome statements which point at facilitating comprehension through practice is not sufficient.

As for the categorization to the levels of higher order thinking skills, it can be said that 13.33 % (n=4) of the outcomes aim at having learners 'evaluate' the information while only 3.33 % (n=1) of the outcomes are categorized under the level of 'creating'. The outcome statement "Students will be able to agree or disagree with others by giving their opinions." can be given as a sample outcome statement for 'evaluating' since learners are expected to discuss, compare and defend their opinions. That is, they are aimed for operating at a level beyond understanding and applying. Considering that 9th grade learners are A1-A2 level learners, it would not be realistic to expect them to lead long and academic discussions. Instead, learners with A1-A2 proficiency level should be given priority to apply the expressions in different contexts (Council of Europe, 2001). This does not mean that outcomes that aim at having learners evaluate their opinions as in the example statement above or outcomes that focus on the level of 'creating' should not be included in the curriculum. On the contrary, those kinds of outcomes are of utmost significance but the proficiency level of the learners should be taken into account especially in the case of speaking skill.

Table 19 presents the frequencies and percentages of the categorization of the outcomes for speaking skill into knowledge dimensions.

Table 19

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Speaking Skill across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	0	0
Conceptual	26	86.66
Procedural	4	13.34
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	30	100

As indicated in the table, 86.66 % (n=26) of the outcomes focus on conceptual knowledge while 13.34 % (n=4) of the outcomes focus on procedural knowledge. However, there are not any outcomes for factual knowledge and metacognitive knowledge. Since conceptual knowledge is the knowledge of theories, structures, principles and models (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2014), its being the most frequently employed knowledge category can be associated with the findings related to the level of 'applying'. When learners use the expressions in different contexts, their knowledge about sentence structure improves. The findings related to the absence of metacognitive knowledge indicate the failure of the revised program. Employing certain metacognitive strategies in speaking such as planning

what to say, finding the appropriate words and matching them with appropriate structures, monitoring the understanding, asking for repetition etc. improves achievement (Aregu, 2013; El-Sakka, 2016; Ghapanchi & Taheryan, 2012). Students should be trained to utilize these strategies. However, the absence of focus on metacognitive knowledge in speaking skill outcomes indicates the probability that 9th grade learners would not be acknowledged about these strategies, which would result in a performance lower than the expected level.

4.1.5. Findings Related To the Outcomes for Pronunciation

9th grade English program includes 10 themes and there is only 1 outcome statement for pronunciation in each theme. 10 outcome statements for pronunciation in total have been analyzed and categorized into the taxonomy table below.

Table 20

Classification of the Outcomes for Pronunciation into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual		3	4			
Conceptual	2		1			
Procedural						
Metacognitive						

According to the table, half of the outcomes are categorized in the level of 'applying'. There are 3 outcomes for 'understanding' and 2 outcomes for 'remembering'. In other words, outcomes for pronunciation have a homogeneous distribution in LOTS levels. However, no outcome statement has been categorized into the HOTS levels. As for knowledge dimension, as shown in the table, there are 7 outcomes for factual knowledge and the rest is categorized into the conceptual knowledge. There are not any outcome statements for neither procedural nor metacognitive knowledge.

Table 21

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Pronunciation across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	2	20
Understand	3	30
Apply	5	50
Analyze	0	0
Evaluate	0	0
Create	0	0
Total	10	100

As indicated in Table 21, half of the outcome statements (n=5) are categorized in the level of 'applying'. A sample outcome statement for applying is "Students will be able to practice /d/ and /ð/ sounds". It aims to have learners pronounce /d/ and /ð/ sounds correctly through lots of practice. 'Understanding' is another category in the distribution of the outcomes for pronunciation (n=3). A sample outcome statement for this category is "Students will be able to distinguish /t/ sound from / θ / sound". Learners are aimed for learning the difference between the two sounds through this outcome, which necessitates making a comparison and, therefore, is categorized into the level of 'understanding'. There are 2 outcome statements, on the other hand, for 'remembering'. One of them is "Students will be able to notice contracted forms of "am, is, are" and "have/has". Learners are expected to grasp the contracted forms of "am, is, are" and "have/has" in a recording through this outcome.

Table 22 is provided below to show the frequencies and percentages of the outcomes for pronunciation across knowledge dimensions.

Table 22

Frequencies and Percentages of the Outcomes for Pronunciation across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	7	70
Conceptual	3	30
Procedural	0	0
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	10	100

As presented in Table 22, more than half of the outcomes for pronunciation (70 %) focus on factual knowledge. Since factual knowledge refers to the knowledge of all kinds of basic principles and discipline specific information, this finding is not surprising at all

when the nature of pronunciation is taken into consideration. Pronunciation includes segmental features i.e. discrete sounds and supra segmental features i.e. sentence intonation, rhythm and tone both of which point at knowledge of subject-specific elements. A sample outcome statement for factual knowledge is "Students will be able to practice /ŋ/ sound". Through this outcome learners are expected to know that words such as 'ring' and 'sing' include /ŋ/ sound. Conceptual knowledge is another category in which the outcome statements have been categorized. There are 3 outcome statements in this category and one of them is "Students will be able to recognize sentence intonation". Learners are expected to know that there are some basic differences between wh-question and yes-no question sentences in terms of sentence intonation. Therefore, knowledge of sentence structure is necessary for this outcome statement.

4.2. Findings Related To the Second Research Question

In order to find the answer of the second research question, 279 activities in the coursebook have been analyzed. The number of the activities for each skill is provided in the following table.

Table 23

Distribution of the Coursebook Activities into the Skills

	Reading Activities	Listening Activities	Speaking Activities	Writing Activities	Pronunciation Activities	Total
Number (n)	100	46	75	40	18	279

As indicated in the table, activities for reading skill outnumber the activities for the other skills. When the claim of the revised program, which puts the emphasis on speaking and listening skills, is taken into consideration, it can clearly be seen that the distribution of the coursebook activities is not in line with the objective of the revision.

Each activity in the coursebook has been carefully analyzed in terms of which cognitive level they aim to develop in learners and what type of knowledge they require learners to have. The findings for each skill are provided as the following.

4.2.1. Findings Related To the Distribution of Reading Activities in the Coursebook

The analysis of the reading activities in the coursebook shows that the length and the content of the reading texts are appropriate for the age and grade level of the learners. Moreover, reading activities are rich in variety ranging from matching to question and answer activities. It can also be stated that vocabulary items are presented within the texts as it is suggested in the revised curriculum (MoNE, 2018).

The table below presents the findings about the distribution of reading activities into the taxonomy table.

Table 24

Classification of the Reading Activities into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual		59		20	8	
Procedural		7		6		
Metacognitive						

As shown in the table, from 100 reading activities 66 of them are categorized under the level of 'understanding', 26 of them are categorized under the level of 'analyzing' and only 8 activities are related to 'evaluating'. Therefore, it can be claimed that activities for the reading skill emphasize at only the three levels from the six cognitive process dimensions. 'Remembering', 'applying' and 'creating' are not the focus of reading activities. Instead, more than half of the activities (n=66) aim at enabling learners develop their comprehension of the reading texts. Activities for the level of 'evaluating' (n=8) are in the least emphasized category and aim at having learners judge a specific point from different perspectives based on the topic. As for the knowledge dimension, more than half of the activities (n=87) require conceptual knowledge. There are not any activities categorized into the factual and metacognitive knowledge. The samples are provided in Appendix 5 and detailed explanation about them is given following the Table 25.

Table 25

Frequencies and Percentages of the Reading Activities across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	0	0
Understand	66	66
Apply	0	0
Analyze	26	26
Evaluate	8	8
Create	0	0
Total	100	100

As indicated in the table, the distribution of the reading activities across the six levels in the cognitive process dimension is not homogeneous. None of the activities are categorized under the levels of 'remembering', 'applying' and 'creating' dimensions. This result can be attributed to the fact that reading is a receptive skill not a productive one. In other words, reading is a way of accessing the information rather than a medium through which knowledge is produced. Therefore, the findings regarding the absence of 'remembering', 'applying' and 'creating' dimensions are acceptable. 'Understanding' is the most dominant level with a proportion of 66%. A sample activity for this category can be a text with comprehension questions as shown in Sample Activity 1 in Appendix 5. The general tendency in coursebooks for ensuring reading comprehension is to include comprehension questions regarding both the overall message and some detailed points in the text. However, reading comprehension includes more than that as explained by Durkin (1993). According to him, reading comprehension occurs as a result of relationship between the text and the reader during which meaning is constructed. The construction of meaning is affected by various factors such as prior knowledge, language skills and interest of the reader (Richards & Renandya, 2002). These factors should be handled through taking the age and the proficiency level of the learners into consideration. Since 9th grade learners are accepted as teenagers with a proficiency level of A1 in CEFR, the topic of the reading texts and the language level in these texts in terms of length, vocabulary selection and sentence structure can be concluded to be appropriate.

The second most emphasized (26%) cognitive level is 'analyzing'. Sample Activity 2 in Appendix 5 is an activity which aims to have learners analyze the text through finding its main idea and identifying the meaning of some expressions from the contexts in which they are used. Therefore, it is obvious that these kinds of activities require a cognitive level beyond 'understanding'. In fact, there is a dual relationship between the two levels.

Without understanding a text, it is almost impossible to relate its parts with each other and with the whole text. On the other side, analyzing a text results in a better comprehension. Therefore, it can be deduced that the levels of 'understanding' and 'analyzing' complement each other. As for the level of 'evaluating', it is possible to state that it is the least emphasized category with a ratio of 8%. The level of 'evaluating' aims learners to make judgments based on some criteria. Thus, readers would both broad their vision by considering different viewpoints and handle a particular task better through becoming an efficient decision maker. These skills demand higher cognition levels and the low frequency of 'evaluating' dimension can be explained with the low proficiency level of the learners since A1 and A2 level learners are expected to identify and understand the general meaning of a written text (Council of Europe, 2001).

Table 26 is provided below in order to show the frequencies and percentages of the categorization of the reading activities into the knowledge dimensions.

Table 26

Frequencies and Percentages of the Reading Activities across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	0	0
Conceptual	67	67
Procedural	13	13
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	100	100

Similar to the distribution of the reading activities across cognitive process dimensions, the distribution of them across knowledge dimensions is not homogenous. More than half of the activities (67%) aim at developing conceptual knowledge. Another finding is the absence of metacognitive knowledge, which is in line with the findings related to the outcome statements. Activities for the reading skill, in general, aim for extracting the knowledge in order to boost comprehension rather than focusing on the thinking process while reading. However, everybody does not process the same reading text in the same amount. Readers differ in their reasoning the reading material depending on the strategies they employ. In this regard, successful and unsuccessful readers have been observed in terms of how they make sense of a reading text. Findings show that clarifying the purposes of reading, predicting, differentiating the key aspects of the message, monitoring the comprehension through questioning and self-checking, making inferences in order to fill the gaps in comprehension, taking notes throughout the reading process are observed to be

the strategies that successful readers engage in (Brown, 1980; Cubukçu, 2008a; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Phakiti, 2003; Pressley, Wharton-McDonald, Mistretta-Hampston & Echevarra, 1998). Thus an interaction occurs between the readers and the reading material. Processing the input actively, they are able to explain patterns, distinguish different perspectives and reflect on what they learn in their daily life. Unskilled readers, on the other hand, have been observed to fail to define their purpose of reading, settle for the literal meanings of the words and end up with inadequate comprehension (Carrell, 1989). However, unskilled readers can become effective readers when they are provided with the instruction of metacognitive awareness and strategy use. In this regard, it can be concluded that the absence of metacognitive knowledge in reading activities may fail to convert learners into skilled readers who are able to plan, monitor and evaluate their understanding of a reading text.

4.2.2. Findings Related To the Distribution of Listening Activities in the Coursebook

Similar to the reading activities, listening activities in the coursebook show a wide range of variety from completing a chart to putting the events into order through listening to a text. It is possible to state that the activities for listening skill are presented at the beginning of each theme as a source of input throughout the coursebook. The distribution of the listening activities into the taxonomy table is shown in Table 27.

Table 27

Distribution of the Listening Activities into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual Conceptual Procedural Metacognitive		40	2	4		

The taxonomy table shows that the activities for listening skill do not have variety in terms of their distribution into both cognitive process and knowledge dimensions. From the total of 46 activities, 40 of them are classified under the level of ‘understanding’, 4 of them are classified under the level of ‘analyzing’ and only 2 of them are classified under the level of ‘applying’. Based on the findings in the table, it can be concluded that ‘remembering’, ‘evaluating’ and ‘creating’ levels are completely neglected parts in the listening activities.

The same thing applies to the factual, procedural and metacognitive knowledge dimensions.

The following table shows the frequencies and percentages of the listening activities across cognitive process dimensions.

Table 28

Frequencies and Percentages of the Listening Activities across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	0	0
Understand	40	86.95
Apply	2	4.35
Analyze	4	8.70
Evaluate	0	0
Create	0	0
Total	46	100

The findings indicate that 86.95 % (n=40) of the listening activities aim learners to operate at the level of 'understanding'. These activities are mostly true / false or question and answer type activities. Sample Activity 3 in Appendix 5 is an example of this category. In the activity, students are directed to choose one of the two options depending on the listening text. The findings regarding the dominance of the 'understanding' level in the listening activities can be claimed to be appropriate when the proficiency level of the learners are taken into account. As suggested in the CEFR (2001), beginner level learners are expected to understand what they listen to provided that the speech is clear and not too high in speed. Therefore, learners should be exposed to listening activities that do not require the understanding of every single word. Rather, they should be designed in a way to enable learners to get the main points without counting on every single item.

'Analyzing' as the only category in the cognitive levels for higher order thinking skills is the attention of only 4 (8.70 %) activities in the coursebook. These activities require learners to operate at a level higher than 'understanding' by studying the parts and the whole. The careful analysis of these activities has showed that they take place following a comprehension exercise. Therefore, it can be claimed that these activities are not too challenging for 9th graders. Rather, they facilitate the comprehension of the listening material. The lower proportion of 'analyzing' activities is acceptable when the proficiency level of the learners is considered. However, as the level of proficiency proceeds, learners are expected to deal with activities that demand higher cognitive skills.

The findings also show that 2 (4.35 %) activities are categorized under the level of 'applying'. These activities are designed with the aim of enabling learners to use the information in real life settings. The low frequency of 'applying' points out the failure of the coursebook activities in terms of being related to daily life. However, the revision of the program puts emphasis on the tasks from daily life.

As it is shown in Table 28, 'evaluating' and 'creating' are not the focus of any listening activity. Since listening is a receptive skill, the expectation that the level of 'creating' be commonly used would not be realistic. However, the same thing does not apply to the category of 'evaluating'. There is a term as 'critical listening' in the literature which is defined as "determining the accuracy and the consistency of what we listen to" (Özbay ,2012, p. 135) and deciphering the underlying meaning (Doğan, 2012). During critical listening the learners are expected to ask themselves the questions such as "What is the message of the speaker? Is the underlying message a fact or an opinion? Is the information valid and accurate? Are there any alternative solutions? etc". As many researchers (e.g. Elder & Paul, 2009; Gelder, 2005; Karakuzular, 2013) point out, when students engage in activities that include those kinds of questions, their critical thinking skills will be promoted. Therefore, the absence of listening activities for 'evaluating' can be argued to be a factor that hampers the development of critical thinking skills in learners.

As for the categorization of the listening activities across knowledge dimensions, another table is provided in Table 29.

Table 29

Frequencies and Percentages of the Listening Activities across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	0	0
Conceptual	46	100
Procedural	0	0
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	46	100

The table shows that all of the activities for the listening skill in the coursebook emphasize at conceptual knowledge. It has been found out none of the activities is related to facilitating the learning, thinking and reflecting processes in EFL learners, which hinders the development of HOTS.

Listening is the first skill people acquire when learning the mother tongue. They first listen to an utterance, and then repeat it, later they learn to read it and finally they write. However, this natural sequence does not necessarily apply to foreign language learning. Foreign language learners give priority to other skills. Thus listening becomes an underestimated skill. Generally, learners are exposed to video recordings and DVDs about which they are asked to recall and understand factual information. In other words, they are required to answer *who*, *what* and *when* questions rather than *why, how* and *what if*. Mostly, the recording is similar to a robotic speech which can be paused, replayed and controlled. However, in real life listening is an interactive activity in which the speaker and the listener employ turn-taking, facial expressions and body language. Moreover, they make use of their prior knowledge about the topic and the social context in which the interaction occurs. All these discrepancies between L1 and L2 listening cause failure in foreign language listening. This situation has led researchers to explore the characteristics of good listeners and it has been found out that understanding the language of a spoken text is not the only thing good listeners need. Rather, effective listeners are able to employ a number of skills simultaneously (Lynch, 1998). These skills point at the metacognitive listening strategies for planning, monitoring and evaluating the listening process. There is an agreement in literature about the effectiveness of strategy instruction on listening achievement (Goh & Hu, 2014; Goh & Zeng, 2012; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vandergrift, 2006; Vandergrift, 1997). Therefore, including activities such as prompting learners to guess the topic of the listening text from the contextual clues, giving a purpose for listening, checking their comprehension at intervals, relating the unknown vocabulary with what they already know and evaluating the effectiveness of their listening process is necessary in order to make them effective listeners.

4.2.3. Findings Related to the Distribution of Writing Activities in the Coursebook

As in the case of the other skills, writing activities also range in type from filling in an identity card to preparing a brochure. Besides, some of the activities include step by step instructions for learners, which is considered to be of help. There are 40 writing activities in the coursebook and the following table shows their distribution according to the two dimensions in BRT.

Table 30

Distribution of the Writing Activities into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual			1			
Conceptual		6	8		3	6
Procedural		1	13		2	
Metacognitive						

The table indicates that the most focused cognitive process dimension is 'applying' whereas there are not any activities related to the levels of 'remembering' and 'analyzing'. Besides, the distribution of the activities into the knowledge dimension is not homogeneous. While there is an obvious emphasis on conceptual knowledge, there is an apparent gap in the category of metacognitive knowledge.

A more detailed table which shows the frequencies and the percentages of the activities across cognitive process dimensions is provided below.

Table 31

Frequencies and Percentages of the Writing Activities across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	0	0
Understand	7	17.50
Apply	22	55
Analyze	0	0
Evaluate	5	12.50
Create	6	15
Total	40	100

The findings demonstrate that more than half of the activities (n=22, 55 %) are categorized under the level of 'applying' as in the case of the speaking skill. Those activities aim to have learners practice what they have learned in different contexts. Sample Activity 4 in Appendix 5 stands for this category. In the activity, students are instructed to write about their plans in the case of getting prepared for a local festival. In this way, it is aimed to practice 'be going to' structure for plans in a real-life context. Writing, like speaking, is a productive skill and in order to produce something, practice is necessary. As exemplified in the A1-A2 level descriptors in CEFR (2001), beginner level learners are able to write short simple notes, fill in a form by using their personal information and describe the events in short and simple sentences. These tasks enable learners to practice the linguistic structures in different genres such as application forms, e-mails or invitation letters. Thus,

they get better acquainted with writing process. Since cognitive levels in the taxonomy have a hierarchical structure, learners will proceed to higher levels as their proficiency improves. Therefore, the proportion of the findings related to 'applying' is acceptable when the linguistic proficiency of the 9th graders is taken into account.

After 'applying', the second most frequently emphasized level is 'understanding'. There are 7 activities (17.50 %) related to this category. These activities aim learners to practice the structures in a mechanical way through exemplifying, paraphrasing or classifying. When the general coursebook design is considered, input is presented first through reading and listening. Then, learners are expected to practice the input through productive skills, writing and speaking, namely. Therefore, it can be interpreted that the activities in the level of 'understanding' have the role of enabling learners to comprehend the linguistic structures. Then, learners will be able to use them in real-life contexts through the activities for 'applying'. However, giving an overt weight to the activities for 'applying' and 'understanding' and neglecting the activities that foster 'evaluating' and 'creating' is a shortcoming of the coursebook. As for 'evaluating', there are only 5 activities (12.50 %) out of 40. These activities aim learners to express their opinions about a particular issue according to some criteria either pre-determined by them or set in the coursebook. Activities of this kind facilitate critical thinking because learners are engaged in deep thinking and questioning. Therefore, it is argued that having only 5 activities from the total of 40 is too limited to develop critical thinking. There should be at least 1 activity in each theme through which learners would be directed to reflect upon and write their opinions. In that case, they would be more motivated to learn and feel themselves more engaged in the task (Dörnyei, 2002). The same conclusion can be drawn for 'creating' as well. The activities in this category aim learners to bring a concrete output of the learning process through designing posters, brochures, videos etc. In this way, learners operate at the highest level in cognition through combining, harmonizing and creating a unique piece of writing. The nature of writing requires learners to be competent in various areas of language like spelling, vocabulary and sentence structure. Besides, in order to create a piece of writing, one has to organize his mind, build the connections between the different aspects of ideas and express them in a clear and concise way. Therefore, writing is a challenging skill which demands hard work and deep thinking. Moreover, it is also a hierarchical process like thinking. As learners progress, limited and mechanical writing activities are replaced by activities that demand higher cognition. The distribution of the

activities for ‘creating’ is in line with this assumption. A closer analysis of the activities shows that as the themes progress, activities for ‘understanding’ are replaced by the activities for ‘creating’. Nevertheless, the proportion of the activities for ‘creating’ (%15) is claimed to be limited when the productive nature of the writing skill is taken into account. To conclude, when compared to the other skills, diversity in the different cognitive areas is emphasized more in writing activities, yet the number of the activities for HOTS is claimed to be limited.

Table 32

Frequencies and Percentages of the Writing Activities across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	1	2,50
Conceptual	23	57,50
Procedural	16	40
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	40	100

The findings in Table 32 indicate that more than half of the writing activities (n=23, 57.50%) emphasize conceptual knowledge, which means that having students learn the sentence structure is the priority of the coursebook. As indicated in the program (MoNE, 2018) grammar structures are presented within the skills rather than in isolation. It can be argued that writing is the most suitable skill to practice the sentence structures because it is an asynchronous skill which allows time for organization and planning before the act of writing. Through a range of writing activities, learners find opportunity to apply the linguistic structures in different contexts. Therefore, the findings related to the conceptual knowledge prove the consistency between the intention of the revision and the coursebook design. However, the same conclusion cannot be drawn for procedural and metacognitive knowledge.

In writing, procedural knowledge represents the knowledge of writing in different genres like an essay, a poster, a blog or an invitation letter. There are certain points to consider when writing an invitation letter- for example- such as beginning with an appropriate salutation as Dear, Mrs., Mr. etc., giving details about the event, venue and time, adding a P.S. note and more. Since writing is a comprehensive area which includes letters, blogs, essays, brochures, newspaper etc., the distribution of procedural knowledge can be claimed to be lower than expected.

Finally, the findings indicate that there are not any writing activities related to metacognitive knowledge. As previously stated, metacognitive knowledge covers the following three areas; declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge. Specifically for writing, declarative knowledge refers to knowledge of oneself as a writer, what genres he or she is good at and knowledge of the task which involves but is not limited to the knowledge of genre-specific characteristics such as starting with an opening that captures the reader's interest. Finally, declarative knowledge includes an affective component. In other words, knowledge of the writer regarding his or her feelings towards a particular writing genre or the act of writing in general is also one of the components of declarative knowledge. Procedural knowledge is the knowledge of how to apply declarative knowledge. That is, the knowledge of which skills are required for a particular task is named as procedural knowledge. Finally, conditional knowledge helps the writer determine when, where and how to use declarative and procedural knowledge. To put it differently, conditional knowledge takes the stage when evaluating a writing task, determining the skills and strategies needed for it (Harris, Graham, Brindle & Sandmel, 2009). Past research that has been conducted with learners who have difficulty in writing shows some common characteristics of these learners. The findings show that they cannot generate ideas, lack critical knowledge of the writing process, have problems related to timing, planning and editing (MacArthur, Graham & Fitzgerald, 2008; Tho, 2000). These problems point at the lack of metacognitive knowledge. When the scope of the metacognitive knowledge in writing is considered, it can be deduced that there is a strong relationship between metacognition and writing. This relationship is stated by John Didion (1980, p.335) as the following: **"**I write entirely to find out what I am thinking, what I am looking at, what I see and what it means." Therefore, writing can be simply viewed as production of thought. However, there are some parameters one needs to consider when putting what is in his mind into words. These parameters are named as the components of metacognition which are metacognitive monitoring and metacognitive controlling. Metacognitive monitoring can be explained as the awareness of one's thoughts. Reading, re-reading and reflecting are metacognitive strategies for monitoring. Editing, drafting and revising, on the other hand, are among the metacognitive strategies for controlling (Harris, Graham, Brindle & Sandmel, 2009). As learners read what they have written, they check whether the production of thought is in conformance with their writing goals. Once they ensure the consistency in what is in their mind and what is on paper, they continue writing

through generating more ideas, editing, drafting and revising. These strategies are employed continuously until production of thought is completed. Therefore, explicit instruction of these strategies is critical to make learners competent writers (Chamot, 2004). In this respect, writing activities should be designed in a way to encourage learners to think about their learning process. This necessity points to the integration of writing to learn activities (WTL hereafter) in the program. WTL activities take their source from "Writing Across the Curriculum" (WAC hereafter) movement. This movement to language learning is based on the idea that writing can also be used as a tool for thinking, not only as a means for delivering a message (Bean, 2001). The main aim of WTL activities is to let students reflect on what they learn and how they learn. Here, the aim is not to grade the paper. Instead, learners are encouraged to think about their learning process. They are prompted to write how they learn, which method they apply, what kind of tasks they are interested in etc. This way, they would step back and think deeply about themselves as a learner who performs the act of learning in the ongoing process rather than a learner who is expected to complete the tasks. Moreover, they feel themselves as an invaluable component of the learning process and thus get more engaged in the tasks. The benefits of the integration of WTL activities into the program are backed up in past research in terms of facilitating learning (Zinsser, 1988), developing metacognition (Bullock, 2006), critical thinking (Dunn & Smith, 2008; Wade, 1995), self-efficacy and achievement in writing (Fernandes, 2012; Whitehead & Murphy, 2014), problem-solving skills (Northrup,2012) and supporting the meaningful learning (Stewart, Myers & Culley, 2009). To conclude, the absence of activities that promote metacognition can be claimed to be a failure of the coursebook.

4.2.4. Findings Related to the Distribution of Speaking Activities in the Coursebook

Speaking activities (n=75) make up almost 35% of all the activities in the coursebook. It can be stated that speaking activities in the coursebook varies from dialogues to whole-class discussions and individual presentations on a topic. The same thing applies to the distribution of the activities into the taxonomy table as shown in Table 33:

Table 33

Distribution of the Speaking Activities into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual	1	15	35		14	1
Procedural			8			1
Metacognitive						

According to the table, speaking activities show a wider distribution across cognitive process dimensions when compared to the other skills. The table shows that speaking activities concentrate at the level of 'applying' from the cognitive process dimension and 'conceptual knowledge' from the knowledge dimension. More than half of the activities (n=43) are classified under 'applying' while there is an almost equal distribution between the levels of 'understanding' and 'evaluating'- 15 and 14 respectively. On the other hand, the least focused categories are 'creating' and 'remembering'. Besides, there aren't any activities that can be categorized under the level of 'analyzing'. Similarly, none of the activities aim to develop metacognitive knowledge.

Table 34 provides more detailed information about the frequencies and percentages of the speaking activities across cognitive process dimensions.

Table 34

Frequencies and Percentages of the Speaking Activities across Cognitive Process Dimensions

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	1	1.30
Understand	15	20
Apply	43	57.40
Analyze	0	0
Evaluate	14	18.70
Create	2	2.60
Total	75	100

Table 34 indicates that the most focused cognitive process dimension is 'applying'. There are 43 (57.40%) speaking activities in the coursebook that make learners use the expressions in different contexts. Sample Activity 5 in Appendix 5 is related to this category. In the activity, students are expected to talk about what they can / cannot do in the case of going camping. That is, they are aimed to use the ability structures for real life contexts. Similarly, a dialogue activity in which one of the students acts as a customer while the other one takes the role of a waiter at a restaurant can be shown as an example of

the activity in the level of 'applying'. The frequent use of these activities turns the language learning into a more meaningful process. Once students realize that they are able to apply what they learn at school in real life contexts, they get more motivated , which automatically leads to a higher achievement in language learning (Dörnyei, 2003; Gardner, 1985) and speaking in particular (Hernandez, 2010).

As mentioned before, the percentage of 'understanding' is very close to the percentage of 'evaluating'- 20% and 18.70 % respectively. The activities that aim to facilitate the comprehension of speaking expressions through exemplifying, paraphrasing and classifying them in the activities are generally mechanical activities. Those kinds of activities do not require a high cognition but they are necessary in order to make learners comprehend the functions of the expressions and build more on them. Besides, according to the descriptors in the CEFR (2001), learners in the A1- A2 level are able to introduce themselves and express their basic needs in public such as ordering at a restaurant, buying a ticket etc. Therefore, the proportion of the activities in the level of 'understanding' is desired to be appropriate for less proficient learners. In addition to the activities that support comprehension and practice of the expressions, activities for fostering HOTS should be given priority. When learners are invited to discuss and defend their opinion on an issue or when they come up with a product, idea etc., critical thinking is facilitated (Liaw, 2007; Margana & Widyantoro, 2017; Renner, 1996).

Compared to the other skills, speaking is the most demanding skill since it requires automaticity to use the necessary information in order to produce the input, whereas in other skills learners have time to retrieve the required knowledge (Shabani, 2013). This challenge gets higher in Turkey where English is taught as a foreign language. Learners do not have opportunity to use the target language outside the classroom; therefore, teachers and the instructional materials serve as the only sources of input. Not surprisingly, past research shows that there is an obvious failure in speaking (e.g. Dincer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Güney, 2010). This result can be explained through different dimensions such as learner-related factors, teacher-related factors or program-related factors. Anxiety, being a learner-related factor, is one of the most common factors among Turkish learners of EFL that inhibit speaking performance (Cubukçu, 2008b ; Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015; Tuncer & Doğan, 2015). It was also reported by learners themselves that they feel anxious in speaking tasks (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2013). The proficiency level of the learners and the task demands are important variables here. Research shows that learners with low

proficiency have higher level of anxiety (Batumlu & Erden, 2007; Dalkılıç, 2001). This finding can be attributed to the fact that learners do not feel confident as a result of their lack of proficiency. Also, there may be a relationship between learners' lack of confidence and the task demands. Learners with low proficiency level may feel insecure when they are confronted with a challenging task. Therefore, an instructional program for low proficiency learners should include a mixture of HOTS and LOTS outcomes with the emphasis on having learners comprehend and practice the expressions. In this regard, the dominance on 'applying' is acceptable for A1 learners who need practice. However, the lack of focus on HOTS sets a barrier for effective language learning. Learners should be exposed to activities that encourage them to reflect on and discuss their opinions on an issue. The more they are confronted with activities for analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating, the deeper they get in cognition.

Another table is provided below in order to show the frequencies and percentages of the speaking activities across knowledge dimensions.

Table 35

Frequencies and Percentages of the Speaking Activities across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	0	0
Conceptual	66	88
Procedural	9	12
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	75	100

The findings demonstrate that the emphasis is on developing conceptual knowledge in speaking activities. From 75 speaking activities, 66 (88 %) of them are categorized under conceptual knowledge. In terms of speaking skill, the program includes functions such as introducing oneself, asking for time, accepting/refusing an invitation etc. Expressions for these functions are provided in the program. Since knowledge of these expressions and structures refers to the conceptual knowledge, this finding is not surprising. The table also shows that the rest of the activities (n=9, 12 %) are categorized under procedural knowledge. Activities that require knowledge of specific techniques such as turn-takings in dialogues and making presentations are grouped under procedural knowledge. The table clearly shows that none of the speaking activities aim to develop metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge refers to the information learners acquire about their learning. In other words, it includes the knowledge of their strengths and weaknesses, the

way they approach a particular task, the task demands and the appropriate strategy for performing a particular task. In this respect, knowledge of metacognitive strategies and when to apply them is a strong predictor of metacognitive knowledge. According to Chamot and Kupper (1989), learners at all levels use some metacognitive strategies for language learning. These strategies have the functions of planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning process. For example, deciding whether or not to focus on specific details in advance, asking clarification questions in order to check comprehension, using body language to make the meaning clear, opting for a different expression in the case of a failure in communication are among the commonly used self-regulatory strategies in speaking. Therefore, an explicit instruction of these strategies is a must for developing metacognition (Chamot, 2004; Graham &Harris, 2000; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). As a result, it is argued that language programs include objectives that ensure the use of metacognitive strategies. Besides, language materials are to be designed to cover activities through which learners apply metacognitive strategies and reflect on their process. Specifically for speaking skill, teaching self regulation strategies and practicing them in the class enable learners to manage and monitor their speaking and, also, reduce anxiety (Aregu, 2013; Mahjoob, 2015).

4.2.5. Findings Related To the Distribution of Pronunciation Activities in the Coursebook

At the end of the analysis, the number of the pronunciation activities has been calculated to be 18. Since most of the outcome statements focus on differentiating two sounds, activities that allow making a comparison between the two sounds are frequently used in the coursebook. The distribution of the pronunciation activities into the cognitive process levels and knowledge dimensions is shown in the Table 36.

Table 36

Distribution of the Pronunciation Activities into the Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual		6	7	1		
Conceptual	2	1	1			
Procedural						
Metacognitive						

As demonstrated in Table 36, the activities are almost equally distributed into the 'understanding' and 'applying' levels. There are not any activities for 'evaluating' and 'creating' levels, which is quite natural when the nature of "pronunciation" is taken into consideration. As for the knowledge dimension, most of the activities are categorized into the factual knowledge and the rest are categorized into the conceptual knowledge.

The table below provides more detailed information about the frequencies and percentages of the pronunciation activities across cognitive process dimensions.

Table 37

Frequencies and Percentages of the Pronunciation Activities across Cognitive Process

Cognitive Process Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Remember	2	11.11
Understand	7	38.88
Apply	8	44.44
Analyze	1	5.55
Evaluate	0	0
Create	0	0
Total	18	100

According to the findings in the table, 'applying' is the most emphasized category in the activities (n=8). Sample Activity 6, which is categorized into the level of 'applying', aims learners to practice the /i:/ and /ɪ / sounds. In this way, learners would be able to pronounce the sounds correctly through practice. When teaching pronunciation, it is important to allocate a definite time for practicing the sounds. Pronunciation is an area in which Turkish learners of EFL have difficulty since English does not have a phonemic orthography like Turkish. In other words, the pronunciation of Turkish words correlates with their written form whereas words in the English language are pronounced differently. For that reason, it takes time for Turkish learners to learn the pronunciation patterns. What makes the situation even harder is that they do not have the opportunity to use and hear the target language in daily life contexts. Therefore, allocating a definite amount of class time for practicing the sounds is necessary. What is important to consider through practicing activities is intelligibility rather than native-like pronunciation (Morley, 1991). It would not be a realistic goal to expect learners to pronounce like natives in a Turkish context where they have a limited exposure to English. As it is expressed in the program (MoNE, 2018), the main goal of teaching English is to enable learners to be successful communicators who are able to get the message across.

The table also shows that the level of 'understanding' has a similar distribution with that of 'applying'. From 18 activities, 7 of them (38,88 %) focuses on making learners compare the sounds. Activities for the level of 'remembering', on the other hand, present the target sounds or the rule of intonation patterns. Such kind of activities are necessary in terms of explicit pronunciation teaching because learners may not always careful about picking up the correct pronunciation of a particular sound. It is quite probable that learners may neglect the factor of pronunciation when they focus on the meaning. Therefore, having activities that present the rules and patterns explicitly is necessary.

Table 38 is provided below in order to show the frequencies and percentages of the pronunciation activities across knowledge dimensions.

Table 38

Frequencies and Percentages of the Pronunciation Activities across Knowledge Dimensions

Knowledge Dimensions	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Factual	14	77.78
Conceptual	4	22.22
Procedural	0	0
Metacognitive	0	0
Total	18	100

The findings related to the knowledge dimension indicate that the category of the factual knowledge is at the top of the list in the 9th grade English coursebook with 14 activities (77.78 %). Since the outcome statements in the program focus mostly on the discrete sounds, the activities also emphasize at the practice of discrete sound patterns. Those kinds of activities focus on the segmental features which refer to the 'phoneme'- the smallest meaningful unit. It is quite probable that the mispronunciation of a phoneme may alter the overall message in a conversation. Therefore, it is crucial to teach the correct pronunciation of single units.

The table also informs that in the rest of the activities (n=4, 22.22 %) learners are expected to operate at the sentence level which require the knowledge of sentence structure. Those activities focus on the suprasegmental features such as sentence stress, intonation, rhythm and tone. Researchers in the area of teaching pronunciation believe that in addition to the segmental features, suprasegmental features also affect the intelligibility; therefore, they must be taught (Derwing & Munro, 1997; Moyer, 1999; Pennington, 1989). Consequently, the frequency of the activities related to conceptual knowledge can be claimed to be limited to teach suprasegmental features.

The findings regarding the absence of metacognitive knowledge in pronunciation activities are not different at all from the other skills investigated. Pronunciation is an important component of communication -especially oral communication. In this regard, "pronunciation strategies are considered as a type of communication strategy used to overcome communication problems deriving from pronunciation" (Berkil, 2008, p.44). Self-repetition, speaking slowly and clearly, volume adjustment and imitating the native speakers or teachers are among these strategies (Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Osburne, 2003). Also, avoiding the words with challenging pronunciation, which is named as 'risk-avoiding strategy' by Corder (1978), was reported to be a pronunciation strategy in the research conducted by Berkil (2008). A careful investigation of these strategies show that they enable learners to keep the conversation going, to reduce the fear of making mistakes and to increase the success in pronouncing correctly (Berkil, 2008; Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Osburne, 2003). Therefore, it is argued that a language program and a coursebook without explicit focus on the development of metacognitive strategy use in the area of pronunciation would end up with learners who try to avoid communication.

4.3. Findings Related To the Third Research Question

The third research question of the current study is to find out the relationship between the distribution of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy. In this regard, a comparison has been made between the distribution of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy in order to detect whether the coursebook activities are in line with the outcome statements in the program. As in the case of the first two research questions, the findings related to the third research question are provided under the sub-title of the skill that they are related to.

4.3.1. The Relationship between The Distribution of the Outcome Statements for Reading Skill and the Reading Activities According To Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

The findings related to the distribution of the outcome statements for reading skill show that "analyzing" is the most emphasized cognitive process level which constitutes 50 % of all the outcomes (see Table 9). Moreover, the findings also indicate that 43.75 % of all the outcome statements for reading skill aim at developing conceptual knowledge (see Table

10). However, a mismatch has been detected between the distribution of the outcome statements for reading skill and the reading activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy. While "analyzing" (50 %) is the most emphasized cognitive process level in the distribution of the outcome statements, "understanding" has been found to be the cognitive process level employed in 66 % of the activities in the coursebook (see Table 25). Therefore, it can be claimed that the distribution of the reading activities across the cognitive process levels is not in line with the distribution of the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program. "Analyzing", which is a higher order thinking skill, is not supported adequately in the activities of the coursebook even though the program suggests doing so.

4.3.2. The Relationship between The Distribution of the Outcome Statements for Listening Skill and the Listening Activities According To Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

The findings obtained from the analysis of the outcome statements for listening skill show that 'understanding' is the most focused cognitive process level with a ratio of 64.70 % (see Table 12) and 'conceptual knowledge' is the most frequently used knowledge type whose ratio is 94.11 % (see Table 13). The findings related to the distribution of the listening activities show consistency with the findings obtained from the distribution of the outcome statements for listening skill because 86.95 % of the listening activities are related to the level of 'understanding' (see Table 28) and all of them aim to develop 'conceptual knowledge' (see Table 29). Therefore, it can be concluded that the distribution of the listening activities according to Bloom's revised taxonomy shows parallelism with the 9th grade English program.

4.3.3. The Relationship between The Distribution of the Outcome Statements for Writing Skill and the Writing Activities According To Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

The findings regarding the classification of the outcome statements for writing skill into the cognitive process levels of the revised taxonomy indicate that 'applying' is the most emphasized level (see Table 15). 43.75 % of the outcome statements are categorized into level of 'applying'. Besides, 56.25 % of the outcome statements are grouped into the conceptual knowledge (see Table 16). Similarly, findings related to the distribution of the writing activities according to the revised taxonomy show that 55% of the writing activities

are grouped into the level of 'applying' (see Table 31) and 57.50 % of the activities are related to 'conceptual knowledge' (see Table 32). Therefore, it can be claimed that the distribution of writing activities is in line with the distribution of the outcome statements in the program.

4.3.4. The Relationship between The Distribution of the Outcome Statements for Speaking Skill and the Speaking Activities According To Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

Similar to the distribution of the outcome statements for writing, the findings for speaking skill show that more than half of the outcome statements (73.33 %) are classified into the level of 'applying' (see Table 18). Also, the findings for the knowledge dimension indicate that 86.66 % of the outcome statements are related to the conceptual knowledge (see Table 19). At the end of the analysis of the coursebook activities, it was detected that the distribution of the speaking activities is parallel with that of the outcome statements. More than half of the activities (57.40 %) are calculated to be in the level of 'applying' (see Table 34) and 88 % of the activities are related to conceptual knowledge (see Table 35).Therefore, it can be concluded that the coursebook and the 9th grade English program are consistent with each other in terms of their distribution into the Bloom's revised taxonomy for writing skill.

4.3.5. The Relationship between The Distribution of the Outcome Statements for Pronunciation and the Pronunciation Activities According To Bloom's Revised Taxonomy

The findings regarding the classification of the outcome statements for pronunciation indicate that half of the outcomes are determined to be in the level of 'applying' (see Table 21) and 70% of the outcome statements are grouped into factual knowledge (see Table 22). As in the case of the listening, writing and speaking skills, there is a match between the distribution of the outcome statements for pronunciation and the pronunciation activities in the coursebook. It was found that 44.44 % of the activities enable learners to operate at the level of 'applying' (see Table 37) and 77.78 % of the activities are related to factual knowledge (see Table 38). Therefore, a consistency is seen to exist between the 9th grade English program and coursebook activities in terms of the distribution of pronunciation in relation to Bloom's revised taxonomy.

4.4. Discussion

The current study has been conducted to find out the distribution of the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities into the cognitive process and knowledge dimensions of Bloom's revised taxonomy. Findings reveal that both the outcome statements and the coursebook activities address at LOTS, the first three cognitive levels in the taxonomy. Besides, it has been detected that there is an emphasis on the conceptual knowledge and an apparent gap in metacognitive knowledge.

Data obtained from the current study correlate with the findings of the previous research both in local and international settings. For instance, the finding related to the emphasis on LOTS in the outcome statements is in parallel with the findings of the previous research (Gökler, Aypay & Arı, 2012; Zareian, Davoudi, Heshmatifar, & Rahimi, 2015), which indicates that even though the programs change, the outcome statements center on lower cognitive skills. As mentioned in the review of literature, lower order thinking skills are necessary to build on more complex level of thinking. Learners cannot be expected to create something new without understanding its different dimensions. However, programs are revised with the aim of improving the current status of success and the continuous focus on LOTS shows that revisions do not fulfil what they have aimed for. Not only the program outcomes, but also the coursebook activities focus more on LOTS than HOTS, which is in line with the findings of previous research (Alul, 2005; Assaly & Smadi, 2015; Chandio, Pandhiani & Iqbal, 2016; Freahad & Smadi, 2014; Rahpeyna & Khoshnood, 2015; Razmjoo & Kazempourfard, 2012; Ulum, 2016; Zareian, Davoudi, Heshmatifar, & Rahimi, 2015). For instance, Alul (2005) examined the instructional questions in the eighth grade textbook. The findings revealed that there are more lower level questions than higher level questions. The findings also correlate with the findings of another research in which wh- questions were analyzed and 'comprehension' level received the highest frequency (Igbaria, 2013). Similar result has been obtained from the findings related to the reading activities in an English coursebook (Ulum, 2016). The focus on lower cognition reflects that learners are aimed to comprehend the information, which is surely necessary for moving further. However, the inclusion of both LOTS and HOTS in the teaching process is required for meaningful learning since they complement each other (Zohar & Dori, 2003). The mere focus on LOTS and neglecting the HOTS result in learners who cannot go beyond with what they have learned.

In the education system of Turkey, ELT is an issue on which there has always been a tremendous amount of debate and policy change. Different methods and techniques have been applied for increasing the achievement. In that scope, a program revision took place in 2017 in Turkey (MoNE, 2017). The rationale behind the revision is to provide learners with the ability to think critically and to enable them make well-informed decisions in the light of the requirements of education in the 21st century (Zohar & Cohen, 2016). However, the results of this study reveal that what is aimed for in theory has not been achieved in practice. The results indicate that program outcomes for grade 9 aim mostly for 'comprehension' and 'application' of the English language. This finding is consistent with the argument of Zohar and Cohen (2016) who claim that the development of HOTS takes time and faces challenges. Therefore, most classroom practices are based on the transmission of knowledge through LOTS even though HOTS is encouraged in educational policies.

The dominance of lower cognition levels can be explained from two different dimensions. First of all, 9th grade learners are accepted to be basic users whose proficiency level is A1 and A2 according to CEFR (2001). Descriptors of basic users suggest that they are able to understand the simple speech and apply language in daily life for survival functions such as introducing oneself, making simple inquires, doing shopping, making a reservation, travelling etc. Therefore, 'understanding' and 'applying' are the most focused cognitive levels. Since the taxonomy has a hierarchical structure, learners with low proficiency level are expected to comprehend the language first. Only then are they able to proceed to perform tasks that demand higher cognition. Secondly, English is presented at a foreign language context in Turkey. For that reason, there is limited opportunity to apply what has been learned in formal instruction for daily life purposes due to the dominance of native tongue. Learners are exposed to a language with which they are not familiar in the restricted class hours. Therefore, the primary goal of the curriculum is to have learners first get familiar with the language through facilitating the comprehension. At this point, it needs to be clarified that 'understanding' a topic is not limited to have a superficial knowledge about it anymore. Rather, as Perkins and Unger (1999) argue, 'understanding' involves thinking and acting creatively and competently with what one knows about that topic, which shows that 'understanding', 'evaluating' and 'creating' are interconnected to one another. Fulfillment in one of these cognitive levels facilitates the activation of the others. However, findings of the current study reveal that it is not the case in the 9th grade

English program since ‘understanding’ is not reinforced through outcomes and coursebook activities that trigger HOTS. Therefore, learning does not go beyond ‘understanding’ and consequently knowledge cannot be transferred to other areas. What is more, it is inevitable that learners be unable to think critically and solve problems which are the characteristics pertain to HOTS (Brookhart, 2010). In fact, higher order thinking is an umbrella term that includes inferring, generalizing, questioning, decision making, systematic, creative and critical thinking (Wilks, 1995; Zohar & Dori, 2003). As in the other disciplines such as mathematics, science etc, language learning also applies higher order thinking. Questioning the purpose of the writer and making inferences through reading between the lines, evaluating an expression based on the context, the subject matter and the speakers or posing questions about the relationship between the paragraphs as one reads are only a few ways of employing higher order thinking in language learning. These activities are named as *tactics* for achieving the *strategy* –higher order thinking (Miri, David & Uri, 2007). Employing these tactics requires the activation of thinking, which leads us the term ‘metacognition’ - *fuzzy* concept- as Flavell (1976) calls it. Simply defined as thinking about thinking, metacognition involves knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Knowledge of cognition dimension corresponds to ‘metacognitive knowledge’ in the revised taxonomy. Metacognitive knowledge consists of knowledge and beliefs about in what way *person, task* and *strategy* variables interact in the course of learning. Specifically for language learning, metacognitive knowledge involves being aware of one’s interest areas in language skills, knowing when to employ skimming and scanning in a reading text or differentiating a listening task which requires selective attention from the others and so on. Language learning is a process which cannot be divorced from individual factors such as interest, proficiency level or motivation. All of these factors necessitate learners to have metacognitive knowledge regarding their learning process. Therefore, the absence of metacognitive knowledge is claimed to cause learners who are not only ‘foreign to the language’ but also ‘foreign to learning’. In order to tackle this problem, explicit instruction for facilitating metacognitive knowledge is necessary (Chamot, 2004; Carrier, 2003; Cohen, 2003; Graham & Harris, 2001). This necessity first requires the language teachers be aware of what metacognitive knowledge means and how it is presented. However, research shows that most of the language teachers are not aware of metacognitive knowledge (Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, & Afflerbach, 2006; Zohar, 1999). Consequently, they cannot implement it in their teaching. In order to overcome this

obstacle, first, the scope of metacognition and extensive metacognitive practices need to be integrated into the pre-service teaching programs (Anderson, 2012; Demir & Özmen, 2011; Demirel, Aşkın & Yağcı, 2015). The superiority of the cognitive practices over metacognitive ones sets a great drawback in terms of the efficiency of undergraduate education. Raising the metacognitive awareness of the teacher candidates will surely eliminate this shortcoming. However, teachers also need guidance about how to promote learners' metacognitive knowledge. Schraw (1998) argues that learners first need to realize the importance of metacognitive knowledge in terms of their learning process. As the famous saying suggests, teachers should not give learners fish. Rather, they should teach them how to fish. In this regard, modeling is essential (Chamot, 1999). When the teachers explicitly model which metacognitive strategies they employ in a specific task, learners will better develop metacognitive knowledge (Butler & Winne, 1995). However, there is a tendency of employing more cognitive practices than metacognitive ones in EFL classes. One of the reasons of limited metacognitive strategy instruction can be the language barrier. Teachers may think that lower proficiency learners would not understand their explanations about strategy use in L2; therefore, they may postpone until learners reach a satisfactory level of proficiency or neglect to mention about it at all. However, research shows that metacognitive strategy instruction can be conducted in L1 (Macaro, 2001) so that learners would have a much more clear idea about the correct implementation of the strategies. As they accurately employ metacognitive strategies, their skills for planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning process will improve. Consequently, foreign language learning will be transformed into a more effective process during which learners become conscious thinkers.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter gives overall information about the study and presents pedagogical implications along with the suggestions for further research in the light of the findings.

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study has been conducted with the aim of evaluating the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the 9th grade coursebook activities in order to find out to what extent they show distribution into the cognitive process and knowledge dimensions of Bloom's revised taxonomy.

Within the scope of the research, 89 outcome statements and 279 coursebook activities have been analyzed and categorized into the taxonomy table. A verb list which was developed by Stanny (2016) through analyzing the lists in 30 highest ranking websites has been modified and used as an instrument for data analysis. The research has provided the following findings:

To begin with, findings for the analysis of the outcome statements and the coursebook activities show that there is an inconsistency between the distribution of the coursebook activities and what the program suggests. According to the 9th grade English program, the focus is on speaking and listening skills. However, the findings show that - instead of listening and speaking activities, reading activities are the most frequently used activities in the coursebook.

Secondly, findings indicate that both the outcome statements and the coursebook activities focus on lower order thinking skills. 'Understanding' is the most dominant cognitive level in the receptive skills whereas 'applying' is the most emphasized level in the productive skills and pronunciation.

One of the reasons of the curriculum renewal has been announced as enabling learners to get equipped with the requirements of the 21st century such as critical thinking, reflective thinking, problem solving etc. Therefore, the outcome statements are expected to trigger HOTS in learners. However, the findings for the distribution of the outcome statements show that there are more outcome statements for LOTS (73%) than HOTS (26%), which shows that what is aimed in theory has not been put into practice.

'Applying' is the most focused cognitive process dimension (37.17 %) in the outcome statements, which is in line with the claim that the revised curriculum aims to have learners relate what they learn to real-life situations. This is applicable especially for productive skills. As it is pointed out in the curriculum, 9th grade learners are A1-A2 level learners (MoNE, 2018). In the CEFR document, as shown in Table 39, A1-A2 level learners are defined to be able to exchange information on a number of topics such as giving personal information, shopping, travelling etc. (Council of Europe, 2001). All these tasks require the learners to use the language. Therefore, the emphasis on 'applying' in the outcome statements can be concluded to be in line with the CEFR.

Table 39

The A1 and A2 Level Descriptors in CEFR

Basic User	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.
	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions and very basic phrases related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.

At the end of the analysis process, it is detected that conceptual knowledge is the most emphasized knowledge dimension in the program and the activities. Therefore, it can be concluded that 9th grade learners are aimed to learn the sentence structure which is critical for forming correct and meaningful sentences.

The biggest shortcoming in the new program is detected to be the absence of focus on metacognitive knowledge. Neither the outcome statements nor the coursebook activities aim to develop metacognitive knowledge in learners. However, without explicit instruction students do not develop metacognitive practices (Schraw, 1998). Since the coursebooks, classroom activities and the assessment depend on the program, the lack of focus on metacognitive knowledge in the outcome statements cause learners to be unaware of self-regulation, self-assessment and problem solving skills.

Consequently, it can be declared that the revised 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities are unsatisfying in terms of developing higher order thinking skills. The focus is on understanding and practicing the language. Neither the outcome statements nor the coursebook activities support the development of metacognition in learners. The findings of this study are no different from the findings of the previous studies (Gökler, 2012; Rahpeyna & Khoshnood; 2015; Razmjoo & Kazempourfard, 2012; Ulum, 2016). Even though the focus of these studies varies from coursebook activities to exam questions, the common point is the limited emphasis on higher order thinking skills. In other words, outcome statements, coursebook activities and exam questions are not prepared in a way of triggering analyzing, critical thinking and creativity. They are limited to facilitating the recall, comprehension and application of the information.

In the light of the findings following suggestions can be made in order to remedy the deficiencies in the program.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study attempted to shed light on the revised 9th grade English program and the coursebook in terms of facilitating the higher order thinking skills and metacognition according to Bloom's revised taxonomy. Findings show that the coursebook activities and the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program are insufficient for supporting the development of higher order thinking skills and metacognition. In the light of the findings following educational implications are drawn for teachers and curriculum developers.

Teachers play a critical role in putting the theory into practice. No matter how well a curriculum has been designed, what is aimed for cannot be fully achieved without the teachers who employ effective instructional methods and techniques. Therefore, teachers shape the teaching process through the appropriate implementation of the activities.

This study shows that there is a lack of emphasis on metacognitive knowledge. To compensate for this limitation, teachers should both teach learning strategies explicitly and incorporate them into the activities. This can be done by cueing students through questioning, providing prompts and asking reflective questions such as "what would you do if…?", "how would you react if ….?", "what do you think about…?" etc. Encouraging learners to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses help them employ remedial strategies in order to compensate for their incapability. Consequently, their motivation and achievement increase while their anxiety and fear of failure decrease.

Besides, the activities that the teachers bring to the class should reflect the real-life. By incorporating real-life problems into the tasks, teachers may help develop critical thinking skills in learners. Language classes are especially suitable for developing critical thinking skills owing to the richness of material and the interactive approaches used as Üstünoğlu (2004) suggests. But, first of all, teachers should have a good understanding of critical thinking skills and how to deliver instruction. Instead of giving pure structural information and making detailed explanations, teachers should provide situations in which learners question, think deep, learn different points of view, make comparisons, detect similarities and differences, empathize etc. In this regard, setting up a welcoming and an encouraging classroom atmosphere is recommended.

In today's world, it is imperative for schools to follow the recent trends and adapt themselves accordingly. In this regard, the curricula should be designed in a way that would enable learners to meet the requirements of the era and to get prepared for the future. Today, it is not enough for people to be literate. The era in which we live demands people to be entrepreneur and productive. Therefore, schools are responsible for enabling learners who detect problems, hypothesize solutions, generate ideas and invent products. All of them are possible through triggering HOTS in learners. Since curricula are the backbone of the education system the outcome statements, activities and the ways of assessment should be designed to enhance HOTS.

Specifically for English language curriculum, it is proposed that the outcome statements be written to use the language in a communicative way. Instead of directing learners to memorize the structures, encouraging them to practice what they learn in various situations and for different purposes are advised. Besides, more outcome statements that aim learners to analyze the information, evaluate an idea and create a product should be included in the

curriculum. This is possible both through the integration of four skills and giving weight to each dimension in different skills. For example; since reading is not a productive skill, it may not be eligible for operating at the level of 'creating'. Instead, reading outcomes can better be designed to trigger the skills of critical thinking and evaluating in learners. Similarly, analyzing the information may not be that applicable for speaking skill, so outcomes for speaking can concentrate on the level of creating through encouraging learners to make a presentation, perform in a theatre play or give a simple speech. If the outcome statements are designed to reflect the real life and to promote HOTS, language learning will surely be more meaningful.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

In this study, the outcome statements in the 9th grade English program and the coursebook activities have been analyzed according to Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. Further studies can be carried out in following respects.

To begin with, future research can be conducted to find out the distribution of the outcome statements in other grade levels such as the 5th grade according to BRT. Since prep school program with an 18-hour-of-English in the weekly schedule has been implemented in the 5th grade, evaluating the program from the perspective of BRT would reveal significant findings.

Secondly, future research may focus on finding out the distribution of the outcomes of only one skill –speaking for instance- throughout the 9th-12th grades according to BRT. Thus, findings would provide invaluable information regarding the longitudinal development of a skill.

Next, a comparative study which compares the distribution of the outcome statements in 2nd-8th grades with the one in 9th-12th grades according to BRT can be conducted. To the researcher's best knowledge, there is a gap in the literature in terms of a comprehensive study which compares the two programs from the perspective of BRT.

Moreover, further research may handle assessment in addition to the program outcomes. In this regard, the level of consistency between the distribution of the outcome statements in the 9th-12th grades and the questions asked in exams such as LYS5, YDS according to BRT

can be studied. Last but not the least, other taxonomies such as the one developed by Marzano and Kendall (2006) can be employed in the program evaluation studies.

REFERENCES

Abdelwahab, M. M. (2013). Developing an English language textbook evaluative checklist. *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education, 1*(3), 55-70.

Alderson, J. C., & Scott, M. (1992). Insiders, outsiders and participatory evaluation. *Evaluating Second Language Education*, 25-58.

Alkin, M.C. (1970). Evaluation theory development. In P.L. Browning (Ed.), *Evaluation of short term training in rehabilitation*. (pp.15-22), Washington, DC: Social and Rehabilitation Center (DHEW).

Alptekin, C., & Tatar, S. (2011). Research on foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey (2005–2009). *Language Teaching, 44*(3), 328-353.

Altınmakas, D., & Bayyurt, Y. (2019). An exploratory study on factors influencing undergraduate students' academic writing practices in Turkey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 37*, 88-103. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2018.11.006

Alul, F. (2005). *Analyzing English textbook questions for the elementary eight grade in Palestine Based on Bloom's Taxonomy of educational goal at its cognitive domain.* Master's Thesis, An-Najah National University. Palestine.

Anderson, L. W. (2005). Objectives, evaluation, and the improvement of education. *Studies In Educational Evaluation, 31*(2-3), 102-113.

Anderson, L. W. (2002). Curricular Alignment: A Re-examination. *Theory into Practice, 41*(4), 255-260.

Anderson, L. W (2001). A taxonomy of teaching and learning: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives. In L. W. Anderson & D. R. Krathwohl,

(Eds.). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives* (pp. 33-39). New York: Longman.

Anderson, L. W., Krathwohl, D. R., Airasian, P., Cruikshank, K., Mayer, R., Pintrich & Wittrock, M. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy*. New York. Longman.

Anderson N.J. (2012) Metacognition: Awareness of Language Learning. In Mercer S., Ryan S., Williams M. (Eds.). *Psychology for Language Learning.* (pp. 169-187). London: Palgrave, Macmillan.

Anderson, N. J. (2008). Metacognition and good language learners. In Carol Griffiths (Ed.). *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 99-109). New York: Cambridge University.

Anderson, N. J. (2002). *The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning*. Educational Research and Information Center Digest.

Anderson, V. (1992). A teacher development project in transactional strategy instruction for teachers of severely reading-disabled adolescents. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *8*(4), 391-403.

Aregu, B. B. (2013). Enhancing self-regulated learning in teaching spoken communication: does it affect speaking efficacy and performance? *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 10* (1), 96-109.

Arıkan A. (2008). Topics of reading passages in ELT coursebooks: What do our students really read? *Reading Matrix*,*8*(2), 70-85.

Arthur Jr, W., Bennett Jr, W., Edens, P. S., & Bell, S. T. (2003). Effectiveness of training in organizations: A meta-analysis of design and evaluation features. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(2), 234.

Assaly, I. R., & Smadi, O. M. (2015). Using Bloom's Taxonomy to Evaluate the Cognitive Levels of Master Class Textbook's Questions. *English Language Teaching*, *8*(5), 100-110.

Ataç, B. A. (2012). Foreign Language Teachers' Attitude toward Authentic Assessment in Language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *8*(2), 7-19.

Ay, S. (2010). Young Adolescent Students' Foreign Language Anxiety in Relation to Language Skills at Different Levels. *Journal of International Social Research, 3*(11).

Aydin, S. (2008). An Investigation on the Language Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Turkish EFL Learners. *Online Submission*.

Batumlu, D., & Erden, M. (2007). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and english achievement of Yıldız Technical University school of foreign languages preparatory students. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, *3*(1), 24-38.

Bean, J. C. (2001). *Engaging ideas: The professor's guide to integrating writing, critical thinking, and active learning in the classroom*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Berkil, G. (2008). *A closer look at pronunciation learning strategies, L2 pronunciation proficiency and secondary variables influencing pronunciation ability.* Master's Thesis, Bilkent University, Ankara.

Benson, L., Elliott, D., Grant, M., Holschuh, D., Kim, B., Kim, H., …& Reeves, T.C. (2002). Usability and Instructional Design Heuristics for E-Learning Evaluation. In P. Barker & S. Rebelsky (Eds.), *Proceedings of ED-MEDIA 2002--World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia & Telecommunications* (pp. 1615-1621). Denver, Colorado, USA: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE). Retrieved from https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/10234/.

Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge, London. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833767

Benton, S. L., Kraft, R. G., Glover, J. A., & Plake, B. S. (1984). Cognitive capacity differences among writers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*(5), 820.

Beretta, A. (1992). Evaluation of language education: An overview. *Evaluating second language education*, (pp.5-24). London: Cambridge University.

Berkani, N. (2010). *The relationship between metacognition and fossilization in the course of the acquisition of English as a second language.* Master's Thesis. Faculty of Arts and Languages Larbi Ben M'hidi University, Algeria.

Birjandi, P., & Rahimi, A. H. (2012). The effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening performance of EFL students. *International Journal of Linguistics*, *4*(2), 495-517.

Bloom, B. S. (1971). Handbook on formative and summative evaluation of student learning.

Borkowski, J. G., Carr, M., Rellinger, E., & Pressley, M. (1990). Self-regulated cognition: Interdependence of metacognition, attributions, and self-esteem. *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction*, *1*, 53-92.

Boulware-Gooden, R., Carreker, S., Thornhill, A., & Joshi, R. M. (2007). Instruction of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension and vocabulary achievement of third-grade students. *The Reading Teacher*, *61*(1), 70-77.

Bowe, R., Ball, S. J., & Gold, A. (2017). *Reforming education and changing schools: Case studies in policy sociology*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315412122

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, *9*(2), 27-40.

Bransford, J. D., & Brown, A. L. Cocking (2000). The Design of Learning Environments: Assessment-Centered Environments. *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*, 131-154.

Brewer, E. W. (2011). Evaluation models for evaluating educational programs. In *Assessing and evaluating adult learning in career and technical education* (pp. 106-126). IGI Global.

Brown, A. L. (1980). Metacognitive development and reading. *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension: Perspectives from cognitive psychology, linguistics, artificial intelligence, and education*, 453-481.

Brown, A. L., Bransford, J.D., Ferrara, R., Campiona,J. C. (1983). *Learning, Remembering, and Understanding*. In J.H. Flavell and E. M. Markman (Eds.), Carmichael Manual of Child Psychology (Volume 1). New York, Wiley.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (Vol. 1, p. 994). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Heinle & Heinle, Boston.

Brown, R., Pressley, M., Van Meter, P., & Schuder, T. (1996). A quasi-experimental validation of transactional strategies instruction with low-achieving second-grade readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *88*(1), 18.

Bullock, S. (2006). Building concepts through writing-to-learn in college physics classrooms. *Ontario Action Researcher*, *9*(2), 1-8.

Butler, D. L., & Winne, P. H. (1995). Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research*, *65*(3), 245-281.

Buttram, J. L., & Covert, R. W. (1978). The Discrepancy Evaluation Model: A Systematic Approach for the Evaluation of Career Planning and Placement Programs.

Byrne, D. (1991). *Teaching Writing Skills*. Hong Kong: Longman.

Carey, R., & Posavac, E. (1992). Program evaluation: Methods and case studies.

Carrell, P. L. (1989). Metacognitive awareness and second language reading. *The modern language journal*, *73*(2), 121-134.

Celen, K.M. (2016). *Program Evaluation of an English Language Teacher Education Practicum: Insights from Supervisors, Student Teachers, and Graduates.* Master's Thesis. Boğaziçi University. Institute of Educational Sciences. Istanbul.

Chamot, A. U. (2004). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. *Electronic journal of foreign language teaching*, *1*(1), 14-26.

Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign language annals*, *22*(1), 13-22.

Chandio, M. T., Pandhiani, S. M., & Iqbal, S. (2016). Bloom's Taxonomy: Improving Assessment and Teaching-Learning Process. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, *3*(2), 203-221.

Chang, A. C. S., & Read, J. (2006). The effects of listening support on the listening performance of EFL learners. *TESOL quarterly*, *40*(2), 375-397.

Christison, M., & Murray, D. E. (2010). *What English language teachers need to know volume II: Facilitating learning*. Routledge.

Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Routledge.

Collins, A., Brown, J. S., & Larkin, K. M. (1977). *Inference in Text Understanding.* (Report No. 40). Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Coskun, A. (2010). The Effect of Metacognitive Strategy Training on the Listening Performance of Beginner Students. *Online Submission*, *4*(1), 35-50.

Council of Europe, (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching,assessment*, Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Crawford, G. B. (2007). *Brain-based teaching with adolescent learning in mind*. Corwin.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research.* Sage.

Cubukcu, F. (2008a). Enhancing vocabulary development and reading comprehension through metacognitive strategies. *Issues in Educational Research*, *18*(1), 1-11.

Cubukcu, F. (2008b). A Study on the Correlation between Self Efficacy and Foreign Language Learning Anxiety. *Online Submission*, *4*(1), 148-158.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook*. Heinemann.

Dalkiliç, N. (2001). The role of foreign language classroom anxiety in English speaking courses. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *8*(8).

Demir, Ö., & Özmen, S. K. (2011). An investigation of university students' metacognition levels in terms of various variables. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, *20*(3), 145-160.

Demirel, M., Aşkın, İ., & Yağcı, E. (2015). An investigation of teacher candidates' metacognitive skills. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *174*, 1521-1528. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.783

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (1997). Accent, intelligibility, and comprehensibility: Evidence from four L1s. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *19*(1), 1-16.

Derwing, T. M. & Rossiter, M. J. (2002). ESL learners' perceptions of their pronunciation needs and strategies. *System*, *30*(2), 155-166.

Dickins, P. R., & Germaine, K. (2014). *Managing evaluation and innovation in language teaching: Building bridges*. Routledge.

Dickson, S. V., Collins, V. L., Simmons, D. C., & Kameenui, E. J. (1998). Metacognitive strategies: Research bases. *What reading research tells us about children with diverse learning needs: Bases and basics*, 295-360.

Didion, J. (1980). Why I write. In W. Smart (Ed.), *Eight Modern Essays.* New York: St. Martin Press.

Dincer, A., & Yesilyurt, S. (2013). Pre-Service English Teachers' Beliefs on Speaking Skill Based on Motivational Orientations. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(7), 88-95.

Doğan, Y. (2012). *Listening training*. Ankara: Pegem

Doly, A. M. (2005). Metacognition to Learn How to Write Texts at School and to Develop Motivation to Do It. In *Effective Learning and Teaching of Writing* (pp. 381-392). Springer, Dordrecht.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language learning*, *53*(S1), 3-32.

Dörnyei, Z. (2002). The motivational basis of language learning tasks. *Individual differences and instructed language learning*, *2*, 137-158.

Dunn, D. S. & Smith, R. A. (2008). Writing as critical thinking. *Teaching critical thinking in psychology: A handbook of best practices*, 163-173.

Eisner, E. W. (1976). Educational connoisseurship and criticism: Their form and functions in educational evaluation. *Journal of Aesthetic Education, 10*(3/4), 135-150.

Efklides, A. (2001). Metacognitive experiences in problem solving. In *Trends and prospects in motivation research* (pp. 297-323). Springer, Dordrecht.

Egbert, J., Hanson-Smith, E., & Chao, C. C. (2007). Introduction: Foundations for teaching and learning. *CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical*, (2nd), 19-28.

Elder, L., & Paul, R. (2009). *Becoming a critic of your thinking*. Retrieved June, 3, 2018 from http://www.criticalthinking.org/pages/becoming-a-critic-of-your-thinking/478.

El-Sakka, S. M. F. (2016). Self-Regulated Strategy Instruction for Developing Speaking Proficiency and Reducing Speaking Anxiety of Egyptian University Students. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(12), 22-33.

Emig, J. (1977). Writing as a mode of learning. *College composition and communication*, *28*(2), 122-128.

Erikson, E. H. (1968). Life cycle. *International encyclopedia of the social sciences*, *9*, 286-292.

Fernandes, A. S. (2012). Writing to learn writing skills–a case study. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, *37*(2), 179-192.

Fırat, A.D. (2016). *An Evaluation of English Preparatory Schools' Programs in Terms of Learner Autonomy*. Master's Thesis. Gazi University. Institute of Educational Sciences. Ankara.

Findlay, D. C. (1971). Application of the CIPP Evaluation Model to a Center with Multiple Program Areas and Levels. *Educational Technology*, *11*(10), 43-47.

Flavell, J. H. (1992). Cognitive development: Past, present, and future. *Developmental psychology*, *28*(6), 998.

Flavell, J. H. (1976). Metacognitive aspects of problem solving. *The nature of intelligence*, 231-235.

Flavell, J. H., & Wellman, H. M. (1975). Metamemory. University of Minnesota.

Forbes, K., & Fisher, L. (2018). The impact of expanding advanced level secondary school students' awareness and use of metacognitive learning strategies on confidence and proficiency in foreign language speaking skills. *The Language Learning Journal*, *46*(2), 173-185.

Fraser, C. A. (1999). Lexical processing strategy use and vocabulary learning through reading. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *21*(2), 225-241.

Freahat, N. M., & Smadi, O. M. (2014). Lower-order and higher-order reading questions in secondary and university level EFL textbooks in Jordan. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(9), 1804.

García, G. E., & Pearson, P. D. (1994). Chapter 8: Assessment and diversity. *Review of research in education*, *20*(1), 337-391.

Garcia, P. (2004). Pragmatic Comprehension of High and Low Level Language Learners. *Tesl-Ej*, *8*(2), n2.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. Arnold.

Gearing, K. (1999). Helping less-experienced teachers of English to evaluate teachers' guides. *ELT Journal*, *53*(2),122-127.

Gee, J. P. (2003). What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy. *Computers in Entertainment (CIE)*, *1*(1), 20-20.

Gee, J. P., & Hayes, E. R. (2011). *Language and learning in the digital age*. Routledge.

Geiger, R. A. (1993). Metacognitive aspects of reference: Assessing referential correctness and success. *Conceptualizations and Mental Processing in Language*, *3*, 267.

Gelder, T. V. (2005). Teaching critical thinking: Some lessons from cognitive science. *College teaching*, *53*(1), 41-48.

Gholami, J., & Qurbanzada, I. (2016). Key stakeholders' attitudes towards teacher education programs in TEFL: a case study of Farhangian University in Iran. *Journal of Teacher Education for Sustainability*, *18*(2), 5-20.

Ghapanchi, Z., & Taheryan, A. (2012). Roles of Linguistic Knowledge, Metacognitive Knowledge and Metacognitive Strategy Use in Speaking and Listening Proficiency of Iranian EFL Learners. *World Journal of Education*, *2*(4), 64-75.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2014). Emerging technologies games in language learning: opportunities and challenges. *Language Learning & Technology*, *18*(2), 9-19.

Goh, C. (1999). How much do learners know about the factors that influence their listening comprehension? *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *4*(1), 17-42.

Goh, C. (1998). How ESL learners with different listening abilities use comprehension strategies and tactics. *Language Teaching Research, 2*(2), 124-147.

Goh, C. C., & Hu, G. (2014). Exploring the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening performance with questionnaire data. *Language Awareness*, *23*(3), 255-274.

Goh, C., & Zeng, Y. (2012). Metacognitive knowledge and Chinese EFL listening performance. In *INTED 2012 Proceedings* (pp. 3106-3106). IATED.

Gourgey, A. F. (2001). Metacognition in basic skills instruction. In *Metacognition in learning and instruction* (pp. 17-32). Springer, Dordrecht.

Gökler, Z. S., Aypay, A., & Arı, A. (2012). İlköğretim İngilizce dersi hedefleri kazanımları SBS soruları ve yazılı sınav sorularının yeni Bloom taksonomisine göre değerlendirilmesi. *Eğitimde Politika Analizi Dergisi*, *1*(2), 115-133.

Graham, S., & Harris, K. (2003). *Students with learning disabilities and the process of writing: A meta-analysis of SRSD studies*. New York, US: Guilford.

Graham, S. & Harris, K. (2000). The role of self-regulation and transcription skills in writing and writing development. *Educational psychologist*, *35*(1), 3-12.

Grant, N. (1987). *Making the most of your textbook* (Vol. 11, No. 8). London: Longman.

Gredler, M. E. (1996). *Program evaluation*. Prentice Hall.

Güney, İ. (2010). *An investigation into the causes of speaking problems experienced by learners of English at tertiary level.* Master's Thesis, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Institute of Social Sciences.

Gürlen, E., & Cihan, T. (2013). Teachers' opinions on the English language curriculum of the 5th grade of primary education. *Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences*, *13*(1), 131-146.

Gwynne-Atwater, A. (2011). *An evaluation of a special education preschool program serving children with autism or autistic-like behaviors*. Doctoral Dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Virginia.

Hamzah, M. S. G., Kafipour, R., & Abdullah, S. K. (2009). Vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian undergraduate EFL students and its relation to their vocabulary size. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 11*(1), 39-50.

Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching.* New York, 401-405.

Harris, K. R., Graham, S., Brindle, M. & Sandmel, K. (2009). Metacognition and children's writing. *Handbook of metacognition in education*, 131-153.

Harten, M. D. (2014). *An evaluation of the effectiveness of written reflection to improve high school students' writing and metacognitive knowledge and strategies*. Doctoral Dissertation. Boston University. USA.

Hashemi, M. R. (2012). Reflections on mixing methods in applied linguistics research. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(2), 206-212.

Hayes, J. R. (2000). Perspectives on writing: Research, theory, and practice. In Indrisano, R. & Squire, J. R. (Eds.), *A New Framework for Understanding Cognition and Affect in Writing*. (pp.6-15). USA.

He, L. (2011). Metacognition in EFL pronunciation learning among Chinese tertiary learners. *Applied Language Learning, 21,* 1-27.

Hernández, T. A. (2010). Promoting speaking proficiency through motivation and interaction: The study abroad and classroom learning contexts. *Foreign Language Annals, 43*(4), 650-670.

Hogan, R. L. (2007). The historical development of program evaluation: Exploring past and present. *Online Journal for Workforce Education and Development, 2*(4), 5.

Holton III, E. F. (1996). The flawed four-level evaluation model. *Human resource development quarterly, 7*(1), 5-21.

Hutchinson, T. (1987). What's underneath? An interactive view of materials evaluation. *ELT textbooks and materials: Problems in evaluation and development*, 37-44.

Hyland,K. (2013). Writing in the university: Education, knowledge and reputation. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 53-70. doi:10.1017/S0261444811000036

Igbaria, A. K. (2013). A Content Analysis of the WH-Questions in the EFL Textbook of" Horizons". *International Education Studies*, *6*(7), 200-224.

Jacobs, G. M. (2004). A classroom investigation of the growth of metacognitive awareness in kindergarten children through the writing process. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, *32*(1), 17-23.

Jenkins, A. & Unwin, D. (2001), *How to write learning outcomes.* Retrieved from www.ncgia.ucsb.edu/education/curricula/giscc/units/format/outcomes.html

Jones, D. (2007). Speaking, listening, planning and assessing: the teacher's role in developing metacognitive awareness. *Early Child Development and Care*, *177*(6-7), 569-579.

Kandemir, A. (2016). *An Evaluation of 2nd Grade English Curriculum within a Participant Oriented Program Evaluation Approach.* Master's Thesis. Pamukkale University. Institute of Educational Sciences. Denizli.

Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf, R. B. (1997). Language planning from practice to theory (Vol. 108). Multilingual Matters.

Karakuş, M., & Türkkan, B. T. (2017). Investigating the Needs for Measurement and Evaluation Course: A Case Study on English Language Teaching Program. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *5*(4), 227-239.

Karakuzular, D. (2013). *Developing critical thinking skills of EFL learners through a sequence of critical thinking tasks.* Master's Thesis. Çukurova University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Adana.

Keating, R. F. (1963). A Study of the Effectiveness of Language Laboratories. A Preliminary Evaluation in Twenty-One School Systems of the Metropolitan School Study Council.

Kennedy, D. 2007. *Writing and using learning outcomes: A practical guide*. Retrieved from http://lo-hei.net/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/A-Learning-Outcomes-Book-D-Kennedy.pdf.

Kiely, R., & Rea-Dickins, P. (2005). *Program evaluation in language education*. Springer.

Kiely, R., & Rea-Dickins, P. (2009). Evaluation and learning in language programmes. *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*, 663.

King, K. (2004). Just don't make me think: Metacognition in college classes. In Chambers, J. (Ed.), *Selected papers from the 15th International Conference on College Teaching and Learning,* (pp. 145-165).

Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). English language teaching in Turkey: Challenges for the 21st century. *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum, and practice*, 159-175.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELC journal*, *38*(2), 216-228.

Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1996). Invited reaction: Reaction to Holton article. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *7*(1), 23-25.

Koçak, M. (2010). A novice teacher's action research on EFL learners' speaking anxiety. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *3*, 138-143.

Konza, D. (2011). Understanding the reading process. *Research Into Practice*, *1*, 1-8.

Köksal, D., & Ulum, Ö. G. (2018). Language assessment through Bloom's Taxonomy. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *14*(2), 76-88.

Krathwohl, D. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview, *Theory Into Practice, 41,* 212-218, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

Kurt, A., & Erdoğan, M. (2015). Content Analysis and Trends of Curriculum Evaluation Research: 2004- 2013. *Education and Science, 40* (178), 199-224.

Lambert, N. M., & McCombs, B. L. (1998). Introduction: Learner-centered schools and classrooms as a direction for school reform. In N. M. Lambert & B. L. McCombs (Eds.), *How students learn: Reforming schools through learner-centered education* (pp. 1-22). Washington, DC, US: https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/10258-017

Lavelle, E. & Bushrow, K. (2007). Writing approaches of graduate students. *Educational Psychology, 27*(6), 807-822. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01443410701366001

Lavelle, E., Smith, J., & O'Ryan, L. (2002). The writing approaches of secondary students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 72*(3),399-418.http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/000709902320634564

Liaw, M. (2007). Content-based reading and writing for critical thinking skills in an EFL context. *English Teaching & Learning, 31* (2), 45-87.

Lier, L. V. (2007). Action-based teaching, autonomy and identity. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(1), 46-65.

Livingston, J. A. (2003). Metacognition: An Overview. Educational Resources Information Center.

Lucan, T. A. (1981). Social studies as an integrated subject. *Handbook for the Teaching of Social Studies, Paris: UNESCO*.

Lynch, B. K. (2003). *Language assessment and program evaluation*. Capstone.

Lynch, B. K. (1996). *Language program evaluation: Theory and practice*. Cambridge University.

Lynch, T. (1998). Theoretical Perspectives on Listening. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18*, 3-19. doi:10.1017/S0267190500003457

Macaro, E. (2001). *Learning strategies in foreign and second language classrooms: The role of learner strategies*. A&C Black.

MacArthur, C. A., Graham, S. & Fitzgerald, J. (Eds.). (2008). *Handbook of writing research*. Guilford.

Mahjoob, E. (2015). Self-Regulation and speaking proficiency in Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Language, Linguistics and Literature, 1*(6), 182-188.

Mandinach, E. B. (2005). The development of effective evaluation methods for e-learning: A concept paper and action plan. *Teachers College Record, 107*(8), 1814.

Manning, B. H. (1991). *Cognitive self-instruction for classroom processes*. State University of New York.

Margana, M. & Widyantoro, A. (2017). Developing English textbooks oriented to higher order thinking skills for students of vocational high schools in Yogyakarta. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *8*(1), 26-38.

Mayring, P. (2004) Qualitative content analysis. In U. Flick, E. von Kardoff & I. Steinke (Eds.), *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage.

McGrath, I. (2002). Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching Edinburgh Textbooks in Applied Linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, *101*, 57161.

Merriam, S. B. (2015). Qualitative Research: Designing, Implementing, and Publishing a Study. In *Handbook of Research on Scholarly Publishing and Research Methods* (pp. 125-140). IGI Global.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. *San Francisco: Jersey-Bras*.

Merriam Webstar Dictionary. (1828). English language dictionary. US.

Ministry of National Education (2018). English Language Curriculum for Secondary School. Retrieved from http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=342

Ministry of National Education (2017). Weekly schedules of lessons in primary education. Retrieved from https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/.

Ministry of National Education (2017). Press release about program revision. Retrieved from https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_07/18160003_basin_aciklamasi-program.pdf on 8 September 2018.

Ministry of National Education (2006). Primary and Secondary School English Language Curriculum. Retrieved from http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=342

Miri, B., David, B. C., & Uri, Z. (2007). Purposely teaching for the promotion of higher-order thinking skills: A case of critical thinking. *Research in Science Education*, *37*(4), 353-369.

Morley, J. (1991). The pronunciation component in teaching English to speakers of other languages. *TESOL quarterly*, *25*(3), 481-520.

Moyer, A. (1999). Ultimate attainment in L2 phonology: The critical factors of age, motivation, and instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *21*(1), 81-108.

Newmann, F. M. (1991). Promoting higher order thinking in social studies: Overview of a study of 16 high school departments. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, *19*(4), 324-340.

Nguyễn, T. M. T., & Nguyễn, T. T. L. (2017). Influence of explicit higher-order thinking skills instruction on students' learning of linguistics. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *26*, 113-127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2017.10.004

Nichols, B., Shidaker, S., Johnson, G., and Singer, K. (2006). *Managing curriculum and assessment. a practitioner's guide*. Linworth Books: Ohio.

Norris, J. M. (2016). Language program evaluation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *100*(S1), 169-189.

Norris, J. M., & Watanabe, Y. (2013). Program evaluation. *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*, (pp.1-6).

Norris, S. P., & Phillips, L. M. (1987). Explanations of reading comprehension: Schema theory and critical thinking theory. *Teachers College Record*, *89*(2), 281-306.

Northrup, C. G. (2012). *Writing to learn statistics in an Advanced Placement Statistics course*. Doctoral Dissertation, The University of North Carolina at Charlotte, North Carolina, USA.

Nunan, D. (2002). Learner strategy training in the classroom: An action research study. *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*, 133-143.

Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching Grammar in Context. *ELT Journal*, *52*(2), 102-109.

Nunan, D. (1997). Does learner strategy training make a difference? *Lenguas Modernas*, (24), 123-142.

Nunan, D. (1990). *The learner-centered curriculum*. Cambridge.

Oblinger, D., Oblinger, J. L., & Lippincott, J. K. (2005). *Educating the net generation*. Boulder, Colo.: EDUCAUSE.

O'malley, J. M. & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge University.

O'malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., & Küpper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied linguistics*, *10*(4), 418-437.

O'malley, J. M., & Pierce, L. V. (1996). *Authentic assessment for English language learners: Practical approaches for teachers*. New York: Addison-Wesley

Orey, M. (2010). *Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching and technology*. North Charleston.

Osada, N. (2001). What Strategy Do Less Proficient Learners Employ in Listening Comprehension?: A Reappraisal of Bottom-Up and Top-Down Processing. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, *5*(1), 73-90.

Osburne, A. G. (2003). Pronunciation strategies of advanced ESOL learners. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *41*(2), 131-143.

Oxford, R. L., & Leaver, B. L. (1996). A synthesis of strategy instruction for language learners. *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*, 227-246.

Oxford, R. (2001). *Integrated skills in the ESL/EFL classroom*. ERIC Digest.

Özbay, M (2012). *Comprehension techniques II: Listening training*. Ankara: Öncü

Oztürk, G., & Gürbüz, N. (2014). Speaking anxiety among Turkish EFL learners: The case at a state university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *10*(1), 1-17.

Pappas, C. C., Kiefer, B. Z., & Levstik, L. S. (1999). *An integrated language perspective in the elementary school: An action approach*. Addison Wesley Longman.

Pappas, E., Pierrakos, O., & Nagel, R. (2013). Using Bloom's Taxonomy to teach sustainability in multiple contexts. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *48*, 54-64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.09.039

Paris, S. G., & Byrnes, J. P. (1989). The constructivist approach to self-regulation and learning in the classroom. In *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement* (pp. 169-200). Springer, New York.

Paris, S. G., & Winograd, P. (1990). How metacognition can promote academic learning and instruction. *Dimensions of thinking and cognitive instruction, 1*, 15-51.

Peacock, M. (2009). The evaluation of foreign-language-teacher education programmes. *Language Teaching Research*, *13*(3), 259-278.

Pearson, P. D., & Fielding, L. (1991). Comprehension instruction. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 815–860). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Pennington, M. C. (1989). Teaching prounUnciation from the top down. *RELC journal*, *20*(1), 20-38.

Perkins, D. N., & Unger, C. (1999). Teaching and learning for understanding. *Instructional-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory*, *2*, 91-114.

Phakiti, A. (2003). A closer look at the relationship of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use to EFL reading achievement test performance. *Language testing*, *20*(1), 26-56.

Praslova, L. (2010). Adaptation of Kirkpatrick's four level model of training criteria to assessment of learning outcomes and program evaluation in higher education. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, *22*(3), 215-225.

Pressley, M., Wharton-McDonald, R., Mistretta-Hampston, J., & Echevarria, M. (1998). Literacy instruction in 10 fourth-grade classrooms in upstate New York. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *2*(2), 159-194.

Provus, M. M. (1969). *The Discrepancy Evaluation Model: An Approach to Local Program Improvement and Development*. Washington D.C.

Pintrich, P. R. (2002). A revision of Bloom's taxonomy: An overview, *Theory Into Practice, 41*, 219-225. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4104_2

Pintrich, P. R., Marx, R. W., & Boyle, R. A. (1993). Beyond cold conceptual change: The role of motivational beliefs and classroom contextual factors in the process of conceptual change. *Review of Educational research*, *63*(2), 167-199.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schrauben, B. (1992). Students' motivational beliefs and their cognitive engagement in classroom academic tasks. *Student perceptions in the classroom*, *7*, 149-183.

Pintrich, P. R., Wolters, C. A., & Baxter, G. P. (2000). Assessing metacognition and self-regulated learning. In Schraw, G. & Impara, J.C. (Eds.), *Issues in the measurement of metacognition* (pp.43-90).

Rahpeyma, A., & Khoshnood, A. (2015). The Analysis of Learning Objectives in Iranian Junior High School English Text books based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, *3*(2), 44-55.

Rasekh, Z. E., & Ranjbary, R. (2003). Metacognitive strategy training for vocabulary learning. *Tesl-Ej*, *7*(2), 1-15.

Razmjoo, S. A., & Kazempourfard, E. (2012). On the representation of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in Interchange coursebooks. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, *31*(1), 171-204.

Rea-Dickins, P., & Germaine, K. (1998). The price of everything and the value of nothing: trends in language program evaluation. *Managing evaluation and innovation in language teaching: Building bridges*, 3-19.

Rea-Dickens, P., & Germaine, K. (1992). *Language teaching evaluation*.

Rea-Dickins, P. (1994). Evaluation and English language teaching. *Language Teaching*, *27*(2), 71-91.

Reinders, H. (2010). Towards a classroom pedagogy for learner autonomy: A framework of independent language learning skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*(5), 40.

Reinders, H., & Hubbard, P. (2013). CALL and learner autonomy: Affordances and constraints. *Contemporary computer assisted language learning*, 359-375.

Renner, C. E. (1996, February). *Enriching learners' language production through content-based instruction*. Paper presented at National Conference on Lingua, Madena, Italy.

Resnick, L. B., & Klopfer, L. E. (1989). Toward the Thinking Curriculum: An Overview. *Toward the Thinking Curriculum: Current Cognitive Research*, 1.

Riazi, A. M., & Candlin, C. N. (2014). Mixed-methods research in language teaching and learning: Opportunities, issues and challenges. *Language Teaching*, *47*(2), 135-173.

Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*.

Richards, J. C. (2001). The role of textbooks in a language program. *RELC Guidelines*, *23*(2), 12-16.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge University.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University.

Roberts, J. T. (1996). Demystifying materials evaluation. *System*, *24*(3), 375-389.

Roberts, M. J., & Erdos, G. (1993). Strategy selection and metacognition. *Educational Psychology*, *13*(3-4), 259-266.

Robyn, E. (2014). Bloom's taxonomy. Denver, CO: Expert Beacon. Retrieved from https://expertbeacon.com/blooms-taxonomy/#.XAapFtszaM9

Rose, C., & Nyre, G. F. (1977). *The practice of evaluation*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation, Educational Testing Service.

Rosenbusch, M. H. (1991). Elementary school foreign language: The establishment and maintenance of strong programs. *Foreign Language Annals*, *24*(4), 297-314.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "Good Language Learner" Can Teach Us. *TESOL Quarterly*, *9*(1), 41-51. doi:10.2307/3586011

Russell, L. (1996). Lousiana Teacher Assistance and Assessment Program.University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Saricoban, G. (2012). Foreign language education policies in Turkey. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *46*, 2643-2648. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.539

Savaş, Ö. (2014). *Assessing listening exercises in secondary school Turkish language coursebooks in terms of higher order thinking skills according to Revised Bloom's Taxonomy*. Master's Thesis. Institute of Social Sciences. Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi, Bolu.

Schommer, M. (1990). Effects of beliefs about the nature of knowledge on comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*(3), 498.

Schraw G. (2001) Promoting General Metacognitive Awareness. In: Hartman H.J. (Ed.), *Metacognition in Learning and Instruction*. Neuropsychology and Cognition, (vol 19). Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-2243-8_1

Schraw, G. (1998). On the development of adult metacognition. *Adult learning and development: Perspectives from educational psychology*, 89-106.

Shabani, M. B. (2013). The effect of background knowledge on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. *language*, *1*(1), 25-33.

Shaw, C. & McDonough, J. (2012). *Materials and Methods in ELT*. John Wiley & Sons.

Sheldon, L. E. (1987). *ELT textbooks and materials: Problems in evaluation and development*. Modern English.

Simsek, C. S. (2008). Students' attitudes towards integration of ICTs in a reading course: A case in Turkey. *Computers & Education*, *51*(1), 200-211.

Smith, P. D. (1970). *A comparison of the cognitive and audiolingual approaches to foreign language instruction: The Pennsylvania foreign language project*. Center of Curriculum Development Incorporated.

Stanny, C. J. (2016). Reevaluating Bloom's Taxonomy: What Measurable Verbs Can and Cannot Say about Student Learning. *Education Sciences*, *6*(4), 37.

Stepp-Greany, J. (2002). Student perceptions on language learning in a technological environment: Implications for the new millennium. *Language Learning & Technology*, *6*(1), 165-180.

Stewart, T. L., Myers, A. C., & Culley, M. R. (2009). Enhanced learning and retention through "writing to learn" in the psychology classroom. *Teaching of Psychology*, *37*(1), 46-49.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (2003). The CIPP model for evaluation. In *International handbook of educational evaluation* (pp. 31-62). Springer, Dordrecht.

Stufflebeam, D. L., & Shinkfield, A. J. (1985). *Systematic evaluation*. Kluwer-Nijhoff.

Sultana, F. (2010). An Initial Study of a Method for Instructing Educators about the Revised Taxonomy. *ProQuest LLC*.

Swartzendruber-Putnam, D. (2000). Written reflection: Creating better thinkers, better writers. *The English Journal*, *90*(1), 88-93.

Taylan, H. (2013). *An evaluation of Breeze 9: The 9th grade English coursebook for Turkish public high schools*. Master's thesis, Çanakkale 18 Mart University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Çanakkale, Turkey.

Tercan, G., & Dikilitaş, K. (2015). EFL students' speaking anxiety: a case from tertiary level students. *ELT Research Journal*, *4*(1), 16-27.

Tho, L. N. M. (2000). A Survey of writing problems of USSH first-year students of English. *Ho Chi Minh City*.

Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing materials for language teaching*. A&C Black.

Topkaya & Küçük (2010). An evaluation of 4th and 5th grade English language teaching program. *Ilkogretim Online*, *9*(1).

Tuncer, M., & Doğan, Y. (2015). Effect of foreign language classroom anxiety on Turkish university students' academic achievement in foreign language learning. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 3*(6), 14-19.

Tyler, R. W. (1942). General statement on evaluation. *The Journal of Educational Research, 35*(7), 492-501.

Uhland, R. (1994). Social policy and adult education program planning: Perspectives on the Tyler and Boyle models. *PAACE Journal of Lifelong Learning*, *3*, 62-70.

Uğurlu, M. (2018). *The relationship between speaking performance and critical thinking skills in the learning process of English*. Master's Thesis. Institute of Social Sciences. Ankara University.

Ulum, Ö. G. (2016). A descriptive content analysis of the extent of Bloom's taxonomy in the reading comprehension questions of the course book Q: Skills for success 4 reading and writing. *The Qualitative Report*, *21*(9), 1674-1683. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol21/iss9/7?utm_source=nsuworks.nova.edu%2Ftqr%2Fvol21%2Fiss9%2F7&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPage

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching*: *Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language teaching*, *40*(3), 191-210.

Vandergrift, L. (2006). Second language listening: Listening ability or language proficiency? *The Modern Language Journal*, *90*(1), 6-18.

Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language learning*, *53*(3), 463-496.

Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign language annals*, *30*(3), 387-409.

Vandergrift, L. (1996). Listening Comprehension Strategies of Core French High School Students. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *52*(2), 200-23.

Vandergrift, L. & Goh, C. C. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action*. Routledge.

Veenman, M. V., Van Hout-Wolters, B. H., & Afflerbach, P. (2006). Metacognition and learning: Conceptual and methodological considerations. *Metacognition and learning*, *1*(1), 3-14.

Vinogradova, P. (2011). *Digital storytelling in ESL instruction: Identity negotiation through a pedagogy of multiliteracies*. University of Maryland, Baltimore County.

Vitanova, G., & Miller, A. (2002). Reflective practice in pronunciation learning. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *8*(1).

Wade, C. (1995). Using writing to develop and assess critical thinking. *Teaching of psychology*, *22*(1), 24-28.

Wang, V. C. (Ed.). (2010). *Assessing and evaluating adult learning in career and technical education*. IGI Global.

Warschauer, M., & Kern, R. (Eds.). (2000). *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice*. Cambridge University.

Weir, C. J., & Roberts, J. (1994). *Evaluation in ELT*.

Wenden, A. L. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied linguistics*, *19*(4), 515-537.

Whitehead, D., & Murphy, F. (2014). Mind Your Language. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *57*(6), 492-502.

Wilks, S. (1995). *Critical & creative thinking: Strategies for classroom inquiry*. Heinemann Educational.

Williams, R. B. (2003). *Higher order thinking skills: Challenging all students to achieve*. Corwin.

Worthen, B. R., & Sanders, J. R. (1987). *Educational evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines.* Longman.

Worthen, B. R., Sanders, J. R., & Fitzpatrick, J. L. (1997). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines*. Longman.

Yağız, O. (2009). *The academic writing of Turkish graduate students in social sciences: Approaches, processes, needs and challenges*. Doctoral Dissertation, Erzurum Atatürk University, Institute of Social Sciences. Erzurum.

Yüksel, İ. (2010). How to conduct a qualitative program evaluation in the light of Eisner's Educational Connoisseurship and Criticism Model. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, *1*(2), 78-83.

Zareian, G., Davoudi, M., Heshmatifar, Z., & Rahimi, J. (2015). An evaluation of questions in two ESP coursebooks based on Bloom's new taxonomy of cognitive learning domain. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *3*(8), 313-326.

Zinchuk, J. E. (2017). Getting" Writing Ready" at the University of Washington: Developing Metacognition at a Time of Academic Transition. In *Composition Forum* (Vol. 37). Association of Teachers of Advanced Composition.

Zohar, A. (1999). Teachers' metacognitive knowledge and the instruction of higher order thinking. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 15*(4), 413-429.

Zohar, A., & Cohen, A. (2016). Large scale implementation of higher order thinking (HOT) in civic education: The interplay of policy, politics, pedagogical leadership and detailed pedagogical planning. *Thinking Skills and Creativity, 21*, 85-96.

Zohar, A., & Dori, Y. J. (2003). Higher order thinking skills and low-achieving students: Are they mutually exclusive?. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences, 12*(2), 145-181.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The Original List

Table 1. Sample of 176 unique words identified for a level of Bloom's taxonomy by 4 or more lists in a sample of 30 published lists (*f* = number of lists that nominate the word for a level of Bloom's taxonomy).

Knowledge	*f*	Understand	*f*	Apply	*f*	Analyze	*f*	Evaluate	*f*	Create	*f*
arrange	6	articulate	4	act	19	analyze	24	appraise	22	arrange	22
choose	4	associate	4	adapt	4	appraise	11	argue	12	assemble	14
cite	17	characterize	4	apply	22	break	8	arrange	5	categorize	7
copy	4	cite	4	back/back up	5	break down	7	assess	17	choose	7
define	21	clarify	5	calculate	10	calculate	9	attach	4	collect	9
describe	14	classify	18	change	9	categorize	19	choose	10	combine	14
draw	5	compare	11	choose	11	classify	10	compare	18	compile	7
duplicate	7	contrast	7	classify	6	compare	24	conclude	13	compose	19
identify	20	convert	13	complete	5	conclude	6	contrast	8	construct	29
indicate	4	defend	12	compute	10	contrast	19	core	6	create	19
label	21	demonstrate	6	construct	13	correlate	5	counsel	4	design	24
list	27	describe	22	demonstrate	20	criticize	11	create	4	develop	18
locate	10	differentiate	8	develop	4	debate	8	criticize	11	devise	13
match	14	discuss	21	discover	8	deduce	6	critique	14	estimate	5
memorize	10	distinguish	12	dramatize	16	detect	7	decide	4	evaluate	4
name	22	estimate	11	employ	16	diagnose	4	defend	15	explain	8
order	5	explain	28	experiment	6	diagram	12	describe	4	facilitate	4
outline	11	express	17	explain	5	differentiate	20	design	4	formulate	18
quote	7	extend	11	generalize	5	discover	4	determine	6	generalize	7
read	4	extrapolate	5	identify	4	discriminate	11	discriminate	9	generate	11
recall	24	generalize	11	illustrate	18	dissect	6	estimate	15	hypothesize	8
recite	12	give	4	implement	4	distinguish	21	evaluate	16	improve	5
recognize	14	give examples	8	interpret	15	divide	12	explain	9	integrate	4
record	13	identify	14	interview	6	evaluate	4	grade	4	invent	10
relate	11	illustrate	9	manipulate	10	examine	18	invent	8	make	6
repeat	20	indicate	8	modify	12	experiment	9	judge	25	manage	8
reproduce	11	infer	15	operate	17	figure	4	manage	15	modify	10
review	4	interpolate	5	organize	4	group	4	mediate	9	organize	21
select	16	interpret	17	paint	4	identify	7	prepare	12	originate	9
state	23	locate	10	practice	15	illustrate	8	probe	4	plan	21
tabulate	4	match	7	predict	9	infer	14	rate	5	predict	8
tell	4	observe	5	prepare	11	inspect	8	rearrange	19	prepare	12
underline	7	organize	5	produce	13	inventory	9	reconcile	12	produce	13

Appendix 2

The Table of the Modifications

Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
	complete	answer	reorder	agree	
	discover	ask		disagree	
	practice	describe			
	read	express			
	respond	introduce			
	scan	locate			
	skim	participate			
		respond			

Appendix 3

The Taxonomy Table

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual						
Conceptual						
Procedural						
Metacognitive						

Appendix 4

Sample Categorizations of the Outcome Statements in the 9th Grade English Program

	Cognitive Process Dimension					
Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual	E9.1.R1					
Conceptual		E9.9.L1.	E9.1.S2	E9.7.R2		
Procedural		E9.1.R2			E9.3.R1	E9.8.W1
Metacognitive						

E9.1.R1. Students will be able to recognize familiar names, words and very basic phrases in simple texts such as postcards, greeting cards and emails.

E9.1.R2. Students will be able to find specific information (scan) in a simple text about jobs/nationalities/countries.

E9.3.R1. Students will be able to scan film reviews on blogs to decide which movie to see.

E9.1.S2. Students will be able to ask and answer about their personal belongings.

E9.7.R2. Students will be able to reorder the events in a short story.

E9.9.L1. Students will be able to complete the missing parts in a dialogue about invitations and apologies on a phone call.

E9.8.W1. Students will be able to prepare posters/leaflet/brochures about safety and health at work.

Appendix 5

Sample Activities

Sample Activity 1 (Conceptual Knowledge / Understanding)

2 **Read the speech bubbles and write Brenda, Gerard and Paul in the blanks.**

1. ..... 's days are really tiring.
2. ..... can't stand watching reality shows.
3. ..... hates watching sports programmes.
4. ..... will get rid of his TV.
5. ..... is a talent show freak.
6. ..... never misses travel programmes.

3 **Read the bubbles again and answer the following questions.**

1. What does Brenda's brother like doing?
   .....
2. What's Brenda doing tonight?
   .....
3. Is Gerard planning to buy a ticket and have a world tour? Why / Why not?
   .....
4. Why is Gerard going to go to bed after the travel show?
   .....
5. Why isn't Paul keen on watching TV?
   .....

I watch TV every day. I like lots of different programmes, but my favourites are TV series, talent and reality shows. I can't stand watching sports programmes. Dad and my brother are crazy about them. They never miss Chelsea matches. Tonight, I'm watching my favourite TV series, "Teen Wolf". I love all the characters, especially Allison and Derek. They are amazing. There is a good balance between horror and humour. I can't wait to find out what will happen next at the end of each episode.

Brenda

130

Sample Activity 2 (Conceptual Knowledge / Analyzing)

4 **Read the text again and choose the correct option.**

1. What's the main idea of the text?
   a) Going to the movies is a popular hobby for people of all ages.
   b) After watching some movies, you can take up a hobby.
2. The message in 'Eddie the Eagle" is ...
   a) "Never give up your dreams because nothing is impossible."
   b) "If it is too hard for you, let it go."
3. In line 2, "it" refers to ...
   a) the cinema
   b) a hobby
4. What is Eddie's dream?
   a) To travel to different countries
   b) To take part in Olympic events
5. *He tries his hand at* means ...
   a) he gets help from other people.
   b) he starts doing something new or different.
6. *He wants to reach for the moon* means ...
   a) he has very high goals.
   b) his ambition is to walk on the moon.

Do you ever take up a hobby just because you see it in a movie?

Sometimes you just go to the cinema to watch a movie but you get out of it with a new hobby. Some people start cooking after watching 'Julie & Julia' and some start playing the drums with the film 'Whiplash'. Some even try ski jumping. It is a little bit challenging, but when you watch 'Eddie the Eagle', you can change your mind. The movie is full of fascinating snow scenes and exciting ski jumps. It is the true story of Eddie Edwards. It is a comedy-drama. The stars are Taron Egerton (Eddie) and Hugh Jackman (the coach). Eddie is a teenager. His ambition is to join the Olympic Games. *He tries his hand at* different Olympic

Sample Activity 3 (Conceptual Knowledge / Understanding)

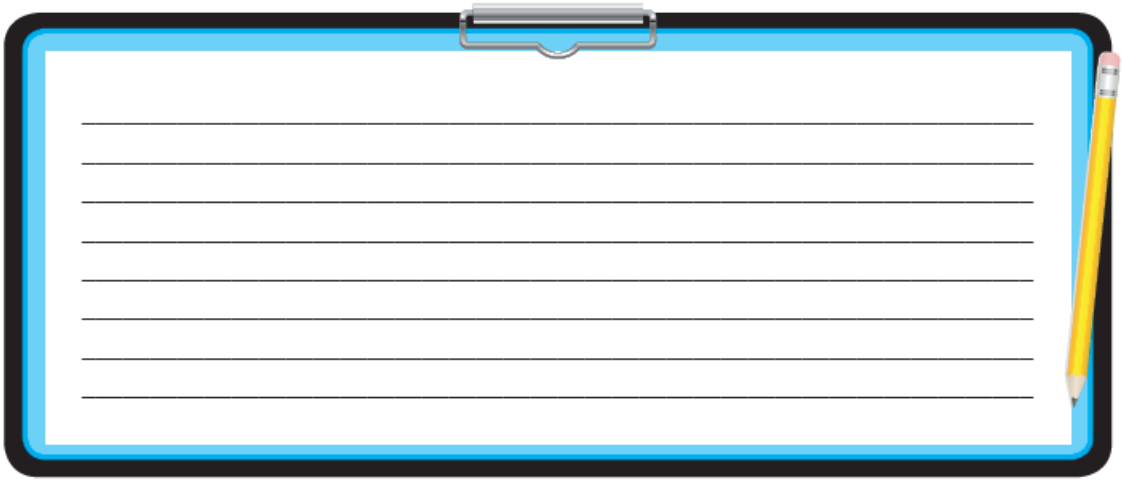
4 T:30 **Listen to Kate and Jake talking about their favourite actors. Choose the correct options.**

1. ***Kate*** / ***Jake*** wants to go to the cinema.
2. Jake thinks Arvin is a ***good*** / ***bad*** actor.
3. Kate ***knows*** / ***doesn't know*** Daniel Swift.
4. Jake thinks Arvin ***is*** / ***isn't*** as helpful as Daniel.
5. ***Arvin*** / ***Daniel*** has got rewards from several organisations.
6. Kate thinks Daniel is ***less*** / ***more*** generous than Arvin.
7. ***Arvin*** / ***Daniel*** is a down-to-earth sort of man.
8. ***Jake*** / ***Kate*** is going to the cinema.

Sample Activity 4 (Conceptual Knowledge / Applying)

8 **Imagine you are going to celebrate a local / traditional festival soon. Write a paragraph about your plans. Include:**

- **place and time**
- **preparations and shopping**
- **celebrations**

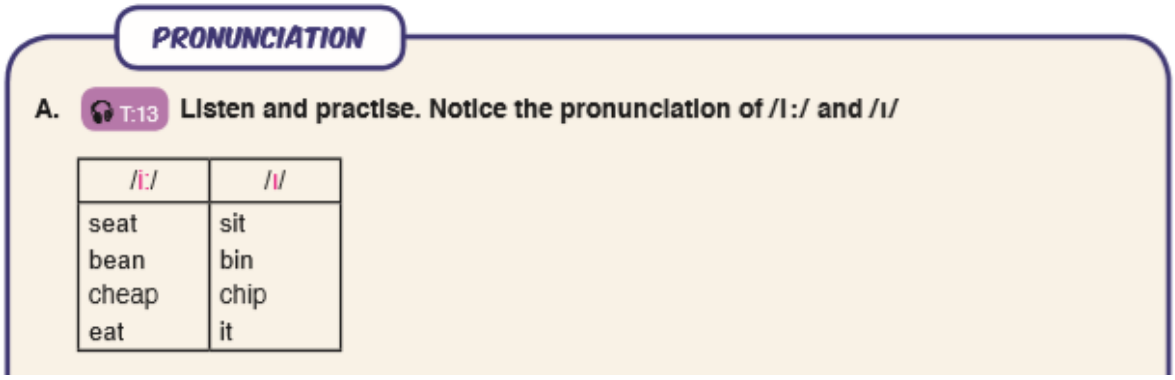


Sample Activity 5 (Conceptual Knowledge / Applying)

2 **Work in pairs. Imagine you are going on a camp. Talk about the things you can / can't do.**

Student A: I can set up a tent by myself. What about you?
Student B: I can't set up a tent, but I can make a campfire.

Sample Activity 6 (Factual Knowledge / Applying)



PRONUNCIATION

A. T:13 **Listen and practise. Notice the pronunciation of /iː/ and /ɪ/**

/iː/	/ɪ/
seat	sit
bean	bin
cheap	chip
eat	it

GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR