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Exploring English Majors' Views and Perceptions of Emergency Remote Learning, Learner Autonomy, and L1 Use in Asynchronous Video Lectures

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to explore university students' views and perceptions of emergency remote learning (ERL), their self-reported degree of learner autonomy, and the use of the first language (L1) in asynchronous classes (i.e., pre-recorded video lectures) during their transition to ERL in Spring 2020. The participants were predominantly freshmen students studying English Language and Literature (ELL) at a public university in Turkey. The data was collected via a cross-sectional five-part web-based questionnaire using convenience sampling (n = 86). The study reveals interesting findings regarding (a) students' views about ERL, (b) their self-reported degree of learner autonomy, (c) their views about lecturers' L1 use in asynchronous video lectures, and (d) whether and how these variables are interrelated and can be predicted by background variables. The qualitative findings further suggest that students hold mixed opinions regarding their new learning experience and mention the technical issues, lack of contact, and psychological problems as the most urgent issues to be addressed. Students were also found to be quite autonomous, and this was correlated with ERL ratings. Additionally, a majority of the ELL students considered the use of L1 in video lectures acceptable as long as it was limited. The findings are likely to inform the academicians who teach English majors at higher education institutions as well as learning management system designers by providing them with various insights.

Keywords: Asynchronous Learning, COVID-19, ELL Students, Learning Management System, Pre-recorded video lectures, Turkish students

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Introduction

Following the declaration of the COVID-19 pandemic in Turkey in March 2020, Turkish higher education institutions had to make a transition from face-to-face to online teaching and learning as smoothly and promptly as possible. They either had to

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completely close or switch to alternative models such as synchronous (e.g., videoconferences) or asynchronous (e.g., pre-recorded lecture videos) modes of learning and teaching. Prior to the pandemic, distance education was already implemented in higher education institutions in a very limited way; however, it was both optional and not as prevalent. Therefore, to distinguish between these two forms of online learning and teaching, new terms such as emergency remote learning (ERL), emergency e-learning, or emergency distance/remote education were introduced as a panacea to sustain the teaching and learning activities in these unpredictable times. Since ERL classes had been normally planned as conventional, face-to-face classes, various problems emerged upon their rapid transition to distance education. In the time of global confusion, students, instructors, educational institutions, as well as curriculum, material, and learning management system (LMS) developers were not prepared. While teachers had to learn how to teach and reach their students in this new way of learning, students had to adjust their learning and study habits. With the increased flexibility ERL brought together, students were expected to take control of their own learning process. However, although this control, also referred to as learner autonomy (for a discussion, see Andrade & Bunker, 2009) has been claimed to be one of the goals of education (Xu, 2013) and requirements of successful learning in distance education (Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Moore, 1972; Yen & Liu, 2009), how much learners were ready for such an autonomous learning experience was unknown and will be further investigated in this study.

Another topic the present study aims to investigate is students' views regarding instructors' first language (L1) use in ERL classes. Although L1 use in the language classroom has been debated over years, especially after the mid-1990s, scholars have started investigating the use of L1 as a valuable pedagogical tool in second language (L2) learning, and the field has "now reached the point where there are virtually no commentaries made in the SLA field advocating the exclusion or even the strong limitation of the L1" (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 2). The use of L1 by L2 students and teachers has been investigated extensively in the language learning and teaching contexts at tertiary level, and found to serve various instructional and communicative functions (e.g., Ataş & Sağın Şimşek, 2021; Köylü, 2018; Shin et al., 2020). Previous research has also shown that some of the functions of L1 use, among others, are "feeling of connectedness," "keep[ing] students engaged," (Raman & Yigitoglu, 2015, p. 6), and "[establishing] empathy/solidarity" (Grim, 2010, p. 195), which are especially important in courses delivered via distance education (Bagriacik Yilmaz & Banyard, 2020; LaPointe & Reisetter, 2008). L1 use has also been investigated in English-medium instruction (EMI) courses in which academic content is delivered via L2 English. Findings have shown that teachers used L1 in EMI courses usually for such reasons as clarification of a certain concept, establishing a connection between the content and students' "cultural 'prior knowledge'" (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 17) or promoting interaction and positive relationships (Breeze & Roothooft, 2021, p. 211). Despite its functions, it should also be noted that teachers and students are well aware of the drawbacks of L1 use on L2 development. Students prefer their teachers to "predominantly" use L2 English in the classroom, and expect their teachers to strive for making explanations in L2 English even when they need to explain a difficult concept

(Macaro et al., 2018, p. 13). In this study, English Language and Literature (ELL) students' opinions regarding their lecturers' use of L1 in the pre-recorded video lectures during ERL will be investigated.

Given the challenges and the circumstances of ERL, the present study aims to investigate ERL views and experiences of the students who are majoring in ELL at a public university in Turkey. ELL students' views on ERL will also be examined in relation to their self-reported degree of learner autonomy and views of L1 use in their asynchronous ERL classes.

Literature Review

Distance education was described as "the effort of providing access to learning for those who are geographically distant" (Moore et al., 2011). Similarly, distance learning, as decribed by Volery and Lord (2000), was seen as an ability, which was later expanded to include terms such as online learning or e-learning (For a discussion, see Moore et al., 2011). There are two basic modes of online learning: asynchronous and synchrounous. While synchronous learning describes learning and teaching which occur "simultaneously via an electronic mode," such as live sessions in real time, asynchronous learning takes place through the use of "readily available material in the form of audio/video lectures, handouts, articles and power point presentations" (Perveen, 2016, p. 22). Regardless of the mode, the effectiveness and the benefits of distance education are well-documented in the previous studies (e.g., Bernard et al., 2004; Traxler, 2018); however, ERL diverges from the traditional view of distance education due to its abrupt and unplanned way of maintaining learning and teaching practices (Bozkurt et al., 2020). As Hodges et al. (2020) indicate, the primary goal of remote learning and teaching is "to provide temporary access to instruction and instructional supports in a manner that is quick to set up and is reliably available during an emergency or crisis" rather than "to re-create a robust educational ecosystem" (p. 7). Although Hodges et al. (2020) further distinguish online and remote learning stating that the latter may also cover offline practices, for convenience, ERL (classes), online classes, or asynchronous video lectures will be used interchangeably to refer to the asynchronous type of learning in the current study.

Following the transition to ERL, students and teachers faced a variety of challenges and obstacles due to lockdowns. Since students had to adjust their learning habits and cope with many difficulties, a better understanding of students' views and experiences regarding this transition period is of vital importance for planning and implementing improvement practices. Studies investigating ERL experiences in the context of higher education in Turkey have reported negative findings related to ERL perceptions. Technical and infrastructural insufficiencies, lack of face-to-face interaction and communication, psychological problems, loss of engagement/motivation to learn, and assessment issues have been frequently found to be among the reasons which cause unfavorable perceptions and experiences of ERL (Alan et al., 2020; Durak & Çankaya, 2020; Erarslan, 2021; Taşçı, 2021). One study looking specifically at

English majors' views of ERL was conducted by Dinçer (2021). She investigated 11 first year English language teaching (ELT) students' and 4 instructors' views and experiences of ERL through journals, focus group discussions, and classroom observations, which took place online. The findings of her qualitative inquiry have shown that students and instructors had to face various technical, personal and assessment-related challenges while they also stated various benefits such as the availability of course recordings, convenience, and take-home exams. Dinçer's study is very important in revealing ERL perspectives of first year students who are majoring in English; however, further studies investigating various individual variables that might predict these views may help better understand the underlying factors.

Learner autonomy (LA) is one of these factors which has been researched in relation to distance education as a desirable characteristic of an online learner. It has been simply defined as learners' "ability to take charge of" (Holec, 1981, p. 3) or "the capacity to take control over" their own learning (Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Benson, 2001, p. 2). Learner autonomy is also underlined in self-determination theory (SDT). According to SDT, there are three psychological needs to be satisfied for internalizing academic motivation: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Students are considered to have autonomy when their behaviors are "volitional and reflectively self-endorsed," for example, in fulfilling the expectations of their courses, and to be competent when they have the feeling that they can overcome the difficulties of their studies (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009, p. 135). First used in the realms of political science and philosophical studies, the concept of autonomous learning has been linked to distance learning as "such [distance] forms of learning may require the exercise of autonomy" (Smith, 2008, p. 396). In distance education literature, LA is also one of the three main aspects noted in Moore's (1972, 2019) theory of transactional distance, which provides a cogent account of the flexible structure and "the pedagogical complexity of distance education" (Peters, 1998, p. 2). Moore (2019) describes the concept of transaction in distance education as "the interplay of the behaviors of teachers and learners in environments in which they are in separate places and have to communicate through a technology" (p. 13). So, he claims that when the transactional distance increases, the level of autonomy expected from the students also elevates. In this vein, compared to distance education, students need to have higher degrees of autonomy because the transactional distance Moore (1972, 2019) mentions seems to be very large in ERL. Therefore, a closer examination of the interplay of ERL and autonomy might reveal interesting insights into the nature of the asynchronous mode of learning.

In much of the previous research, the significance of learner autonomy for successful online learning is underlined (Bozkurt et al., 2020; Firat, 2016; Peters, 1998). Empirical studies have investigated the role of autonomy in distance education in the context of Turkey, and mixed findings have been reported. Altunay (2013) examined the autonomous language learning behaviors of EFL learners in the Turkish Open Education System in their obligatory synchronous courses. The findings revealed that participants did not display autonomous learning behaviors as measured by their completion of non-compulsory activities as a part of their courses. Firat (2016)

investigated the e-learning autonomy of distance education students and found that their level of autonomy was high and linked to their use of information and communication technologies. Another study by Güneş (2018) looked at the relationship between academic success, motivation, and LA in distance and blended learning students (for a definition, see Driscoll, 2002). The students' self-rated level of autonomy was found to be higher for distance education students than those involved in blended learning. These studies have examined LA in the context of distance education, but much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between LA and ERL experiences. Since ERL has additional drawbacks such as technical problems, infrastructure and lack of planning, the level of autonomy students would normally exert may be affected. One study conducted with Turkish teachers of English as a foreign language examined teachers' perceptions of LA during the lockdown period (Güler & Esen, 2021), but there is a need to understand the nature of this relationship for students.

An additional issue the present study seeks to explore is the students' views regarding lecturers' L1 Turkish use in their pre-recorded video lectures. L1 use in L2 classrooms has been extensively investigated although there are relatively fewer studies in the EMI context (Macaro et al., 2018). There has been hardly any consensus on whether and how much L1 use should be allowed in the L2 classrooms and even more so in classes where English is primarily used for delivering content. In asynchronous video lectures, despite the lack of interaction, the lecturers are encouraged to create a sense of community, engagement, and solidarity through various ways, one of which might be the use of L1 as shown by previous research in foreign language learning (e.g., Grim, 2010; Raman & Yigitoglu, 2015). Studies have also shown benefits of L1 use such as creating a friendly atmosphere (Köylü, 2018), a supportive language environment and a personal attitude (Istifci, 2019). Also, in the context of distance education, students reported that they enjoyed listening to their teachers using "the local language" in the pre-recorded videos (Lapitan et al., 2021). L1 use could potentially be regarded as a means of creating "relatedness" which was emphasized as one of the three requirements for internalizing academic motivation (Deci & Ryan,1985), and was often associated with "a sense of belongingness" and "connectedness" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 64) within the framework of SDT. So, L1 use could serve as one way to help students in online learning feel the sense of "inclusion", "importance," and "interpersonal support" leading to "academic outcomes" such as "engagement," "effort," and "positive affect" (Furrer & Skinner, 2003, p. 149). However, previous research has also pointed out detrimental effects of L1 use in L2 classrooms because it might not only deprive L2 learners of the opportunities of input but also interfere with the L2 development (see Lasagabaster, 2013). At a higher education institution, Karakas (2016) investigated instructors' opinions regarding L1 Turkish use in classes where academic content is delivered through L2 English. His findings indicated that although the overall attitude was mainly not a disapproving one, those lecturers who opposed L1 use have reported "policy rules," "disciplinary problems," and "presence of international students" as primary reasons for not using the L1 in their classrooms. Previous research (Cook, 2001) has suggested "a judicious and theoretically principled" use of L1 (for a discussion, see McMillan & Turnbull, 2009), but it is uncertain whether and how the use of L1 may be controlled once it is tolerated (Turnbull, 2001). L1 use deserves further

attention given the lack of agreement on the issue; therefore, the present study further seeks to explore the students' views on lecturers' use of L1 in the asynchronous lecture videos in relation to their perceptions of learner autonomy and ERL.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Previous studies have examined students' views in distance education as they relate to learner autonomy, but it is still unclear whether a similar pattern exists for ERL students majoring in English. Additionally, when the critical role of creating an atmosphere of connectedness, belongingness, and relatedness in ERL is considered, a better understanding of students' views regarding the use of L1 in video lectures is very much needed. In order to address the above-mentioned gaps in the literature, the current study seeks to explore the students' perceptions of ERL experiences, self-reported degrees of learner autonomy, and views regarding lecturers' L1 use in asynchronous video lectures. Another purpose of the study is to explore the relationship among these and other predictor variables (e.g., gender, age, place of residence, type of education).

With reference to these purposes, the present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are English-major university students' perceptions of ERL?
2. What is English-major university students' level of self-reported LA?
    a. What kind of a relationship exists between students' self-reported LA and their perceptions of ERL?
3. What are the English-major university students' views regarding lecturers' use of L1 in ERL classes?
    a. What kind of a relationship exists between students' views regarding lecturers' L1 use in ERL classes and their self-reported LA?
    b. What kind of a relationship exists between students' views regarding lecturers' L1 use in ERL classes and their perceptions of ERL?
4. How do English-major university students' perceptions of ERL, self-reported learner autonomy, and views regarding lecturers' L1 use in ERL classes differ according to socio-demographic variables (e.g., gender, age, place of residence, type of education) and online learning tendencies (e.g., ratings of the LMS, amount of time spent on the LMS, availability of internet)?

Method

Design

The present study employs a mixed-methods survey design in which the data was collected through a questionnaire with close- and open-ended items. Specifically, a parallel convergent design was employed aiming to combine and complement "quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings for a complete understanding of the research problem" (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 125). Of the parallel convergent design types, the present study employs the questionnaire variant in which qualitative data is collected through open-ended questions as "an add-on to a quantitative instrument" and "provide[s] the researcher with emergent themes and interesting quotes … to validate and embellish the quantitative survey findings" (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 73). In line with the convergent design, the students' responses to the open-ended items, which were collected simultaneously, were analyzed qualitatively for recurrent themes to better understand the quantitative findings.

Data Collection Tool and Procedure

The online survey used for data collection comprises the following parts: Learner Background Information Questionnaire (11 questions), Autonomous Learning Scale (ALS) (12 questions), Emergency Remote Learning Questionnaire (ERLQ) (12 questions), L1 use in ERL Questionnaire (6 questions), and open-ended questions regarding ERL and L1 use (3 questions). Participants who volunteered to participate in the survey were presented with 44 questions to be completed. All questions were prepared on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree except for the open-ended and some background information questions. The questions in the survey were compiled using adaptation or adoption based on relevant literature. The questions used to measure the self-reported degree of learner autonomy were taken from Macaskill & Taylor (2010). The scale has a two-factor structure and consisted of 12 questions (α = .81), all of which were initially included in the questionnaire without making any alternations. The questions which were used to investigate students' attitudes and views regarding their ERL experience were compiled from various resources (Bolliger & Wassilik, 2009; Kirmizi, 2015; Sahin & Shelley, 2008; Tekinarslan, 2008). The rest of the forced-choice questions which aimed to gather data on students' views on lecturers' L1 use and all three open-ended questions were created by the researcher taking into consideration the literature as well as the contextual needs and circumstances. Since the open-ended questions sought to further explore the quantitative findings, three general questions were formed: "What was best about ERL (if any)?", "What was worst about ERL (if any)?", and "What do you think about the use of L1 Turkish in ERL classes? Is it ok? Why/why not?" To further ensure the validity of the questions, a scholar with a Ph.D. in educational sciences reviewed the questions, which were then revised based on the suggestions. The online version of the questionnaire was prepared using GoogleForms, and the participants were sent out the link following the completion of the Spring 2020 semester.

Participants

The participants of the study involved the students studying ELL at a public university in Turkey, who were recruited on a convenience sampling. Due to COVID-19, the students started taking all their university courses as asynchronous, pre-recorded lecture videos in April 2020. Out of 170 students enrolled in a first-year advanced-level English grammar class, initially, 99 students completed the questionnaire. However, as the present study investigates students' preferences on L1 Turkish use in classes, 10 participants who reported speaking an L1 other than Turkish, and 3 additional duplicate records were removed from the data analysis (n = 86). It should be noted here that foreign students were required to pass a Turkish proficiency exam to enroll as a full-time student in the program as there were various courses, such as translation, which already assumed they spoke Turkish. The participation was voluntary, and the necessary ethical clearance was received.

Of 86 students included in the final analyses, 59 (69 %) had studied a two-semester compulsory intensive English preparatory program (IEPP) before matriculation. The rest had been exempted from the IEPP by either passing the proficiency exam at the beginning of the semester or showing evidence of an exam score whose equivalence was recognized by the school. Participants had completed a semester of classes, all of which were deployed asynchronously due to the pandemic. Female students constituted more than half of the sample (n = 49, 57 %). Finally, a majority of the students (n = 50, 58.2 %) reported living in a city with a population of 500.000 and more, which increases the likelihood of having access to the Internet. A majority of the participants were enrolled in evening education (n = 54, 62.8 %), and only 5 students (5.5 %) were 26 years and older.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed with IBM SPSS v23.0 (2015) and Jamovi v1.6 (The jamovi project, 2021). Descriptive statistics was calculated for all four sections of the survey. Then, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) followed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for the ALS. For the ERLQ, the only factor analysis method used was EFA. Then, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and regression analyses were run to determine the relationship between the predictor and outcome variables. Except for confirmatory factor analysis, all analyses were completed using IBM SPSSS v23.0. For the analysis of the qualitative data obtained from the open-ended questions, a thematic analysis with an inductive, data-driven approach following the six steps described in Braun and Clarke (2006) was used. Also, a combination of description-focused and interpretation-focused coding was used as they have been reported to "work well together" when the purpose of the coding was to describe and interpret the data (Adu, 2019, p. 55). The qualitative data was coded and categorized to determine the themes using QDA Miner Lite software v.2.0.9 (Provalis Research, 2018). For calculating the reliability, half of the data for each question, which is approximately 45% of the whole data, was coded by a scholar with a Ph.D. in educational sciences for

cross-checking. Then, Cohen's kappa was calculated for measuring inter-coder reliability and was found to be acceptable ($\kappa = .803$, $p < .01$).

Findings

Quantitative Findings

In the first part of the study, apart from the sociodemographic and language background questions, the participants were also asked questions regarding their ERL habits and experiences. Of 86, 53 (61 %) students reported spending 2 hours or less on the LMS used for ERL with 61 students (70.9 %) using a PC/Laptop with a reliable internet source (n = 63, 73 %). Only 13 students (15.1 %) stated using their phones alone to access their ERL classes with 23 students (27 %) reporting the unavailibity of a reliable internet source. Participants also rated how much they liked the platform on a scale out of five, and the findings indicate that only 15 students (17.5 %) gave score of 4 and above (n = 18, 20.9 %, a score of "1"; n = 23, 26.7 %, a score of "2"; n = 30, 34.9 %, a score of "3"; n = 14, 16.3 %, a score of "4"; n = 1, 1.2%, a score of "5"), which is an indication that the students were not very pleased with the platform (n = 86, M = 2.5, SD = 1.04, $Sk.$ = 0.03, $Ku.$ = -0.88). Students also rated to what extent they agreed with the statement that the workload was too much with ERL. Fifty-one of them (62 %) either agreed or strongly agreed with it (n = 86, M = 3.7, SD = 1.07, $Sk.$ = -.45, $Ku.$ = -.68). Finally, there was an item regarding the objectivity of evaluation practices in ERL. The students were asked to express their level of agreement with the statement that the evaluation of success in ERL was quite objective. While 28 students (32.5 %) either agreed or strongly agreed that the evaluation was objective, 39 of the students (45.3 %) were neutral, and 19 of them (22.1 %) disagreed or strongly disagreed (n = 86, M = 3.09, SD = .97, $Sk.$ = -.27, $Ku.$ = -.10). It is noteworthy that a minority of the students (n = 19, 22.1 %) indicated that they found the evaluation practices not very objective.

In the second part of the survey, the students responded to questions on the Emergency Remote Learning Questionnaire (ERLQ) compiled by the researcher in light of the relevant literature. As the descriptive statistics provided in Table 1 indicate, although students appreciated the flexibility of ERL classes (items 7, 8, and 9), the high mean values for items 11 and 12 further demonstrate that almost all students were frustrated with technical problems in ERL. A mean value of 2.00 for item 4, which asks students to rate their level of agreement with the statement "I learn better in online classes than in a traditional class environment," indicates that the students in the sample overall did not think that they learned better in ERL classes.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics on Attitudes Towards the ERL (n = 86)

#	Item	*M*	*SD*
1	Overall, I am satisfied with online classes	2.48	1.25
2	Online classes contribute to my educational development.	2.70	1.15
3	I prefer attending online classes to regular/traditional classes on campus.	2.20	1.47
4	I learn better in online classes than in a traditional class environment.	2.00	1.19
5	Online education provides me with rich resources on class content.	2.62	1.23
6	I look forward to taking my next online course.	2.16	1.11
7	I appreciate the ability to return to asynchronous lecture videos to go through them at my own pace.	3.76	.92
8	I like the flexibility provided by the online environment.	3.53	1.16
9	I appreciate that I can access my online course any time at my convenience.	3.63	1.09
10	*I can manage my time better with online classes.	2.69	1.17
11	*Online learning is often frustrating because of technical problems.	4.23	1.08
12	*Technical problems discourage me from learning online.	3.97	1.27

Note. Items reported here are the initial pool of items and are not reserve-coded.
* These items were removed from the questionnaire following factor analysis.

Before conducting a factor analysis, normality assumptions were checked. First, values for skewness (ranging from -.05 – 1. 45) and kurtosis (ranging from .11 – 1.11) were computed, and four items were found to be above the traditionally acceptable range although Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest values up to ± 1.5 should also be acceptable. Also, the Cook's distance values (ranging from .00 to .55) and VIF values were found tenable (ranging from 1.38 to 2.58), and thus the normality assumptions were met. The factorability of the data was confirmed based on Bartlett's test of sphericity [$\chi 2$ (66) = 439, p = 0.001] and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.85). The determinant (.004) of the R-matrix indicated no multicollinearity issues. Despite the relatively small sample size for conducting EFA, it is more than 7 times the number of items on the scale, which is considered acceptable (Gorsuch, 2003; Thompson, 2004). As the initial purpose of this analysis is to find the latent variables by considering item covariances rather than a reduction of items, EFA was preferred over principal components analysis (PCA) (Henson & Roberts, 2006; Plonsky & Gonulal, 2015). EFA with principal axis factor (PAF) extraction using direct oblimin (oblique) rotation was set as the extraction method to organize the latent variables. The oblimin rotation technique has been "a high-quality rotation decision" which has been shown to "better represent reality and produce better simple structure" (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003, p. 153; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Ford et al., 1986). However, since Jolliffe's (1972) criterion (eigenvalues > .7) yielded four distinct factors for a small number of items (two factors had two items), the eigenvalue was set to 1 for the analysis. In the initial analysis based on the extraction criteria, item 10 had a low factor loading (i.e., loading < .35), and thus was removed. Also, items 11 & 12 were removed for other reasons. First, they only affected the total variance explained by 1 %, and their removal would increase the alpha coefficient of the scale by about a score of 1.5. Next, previous research suggests having at least three items per factor (e.g., MacCallum et al., 1999). Finally, reliability was also

computed and revealed a high internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .85. The total variance explained by the model was 54.6%. Table 2 below summarizes the findings of the PAF analysis.

Table 2

Findings of the Principal Axis Factoring for ERLQ (n = 86)

#	Item	Factor 1 Satisfaction	Factor 2 Flexibility	h^{2*}
2	Online classes contribute to my educational development.	.816		.75
1	Overall, I am satisfied with online classes.	.771		.61
6	I look forward to taking my next online course.	.764		.61
4	I learn better in online classes than in a traditional class environment.	.734		.56
5	Online education provides me with rich resources on class content.	.734		.54
3	I prefer attending online classes to regular/traditional classes on campus.	.621		.40
8	I like the flexibility provided by the online environment.		.673	.79
7	I appreciate the ability to return to asynchronous lecture videos to go through them at my own pace.		.485	.31
9	I appreciate that I can access my online course any time at my convenience.		.455	.33
	Mean (SD)	2.36 (.98)	3.64 (.86)	
	Percent of variance	42.67	11.82	
	Cronbach's alpha	.88	.70	

Note. The principal axis factoring extraction method was used in combination with an oblimin rotation, and values smaller than .40 are not presented.
* h^2 represents the communality coefficient.

The third part of the survey included the questions of the Autonomous Learning Scale (Macaskill & Taylor, 2010). To meet the criteria for a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), data was checked for normality. The values for skewness (ranging from -.05 – 1. 37) and kurtosis (ranging from .33 – 1.46) were calculated for individual items and were found to fall outside of the traditionally acceptable range for only three items (cf. Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Multivariate normality was checked by an examination of the Cook's distance values, which were found to be tenable (ranging from .00 to .09). Moreover, VIF values were also acceptable (ranging from 1.35 to 1.98). Therefore, no serious outliers were observed in the data, and the normality assumptions were met. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) was conducted for two factors (independence of learning and study habits). The model fit was initially evaluated based on the values of the chi-squared degrees of freedom ratio [$\chi 2$ (53) = 109, $p < 0.001$], root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = .11), standardized root mean residual (SRMR = .08), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI = .66), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI = .73), and the values showed poor indices of fit of the dataset (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Since there was an existing model and factor structure for the ALS, CFA was the first preference (Loewen & Gönülal, 2015). However, if there is no satisfactory fitness, previous research suggests conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for scales used in a certain context for the first time as there will be variations in the data (Field, 2013; Loewen & Gonulal, 2015). The factorability of the data was confirmed by Bartlett's test of sphericity [$\chi 2$ (66) = 254, $p < 0.001$] and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.68). The determinant of the R-matrix showed no multicollinearity issues. The same factor analysis method, PAF with oblimin rotation, was used as in the previous analysis. Based on an inspection of the scree plot, the total variance explained, and Jolliffe's (1972) criterion (eigenvalues > .7), items with factor loadings smaller than the threshold .40 (Field, 2013) were removed from the analysis (items 5, 6, 10 in the original scale, Macaskill & Taylor, 2010), and nine items loaded on two factors accounted for 39.1 % of the total variance. The factorability of the final model was proven by Bartlett's significant test of sphericity [$\chi 2$ (36) = 184, $p < 0.001$] and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.65). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to check the internal consistency of the items and was found to be .73. A summary of the PAF analysis is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Findings of the Principal Axis Factoring for Autonomous Learning Scale (n = 86)

	Factor 1* Independence of learning	Factor 2* Study habits	h^2 **	*M*	*SD*
I enjoy new learning experiences.	.850		.70	3.74	.97
I am open to new ways of doing familiar things.	.534		.38	3.71	.81
I enjoy being set a challenge.	.466		.37	3.26	1.02
I enjoy finding information about new topics on my own.	.428		.20	3.84	.85
My time management is good.		.821	.65	3.51	1.17
I plan my time for study effectively.		.578	.42	3.10	1.13
I frequently find excuses for not getting down to work.***		.491	.51	3.02	1.13
I take responsibility for my learning experiences.****		.489	.51	4.02	.77
I am good at meeting deadlines.		.437	.56	4.02	.89
Mean (SD)	3.54 (.70)	3.64 (.65)			
Percent variance	18.2	20.9			
Cronbach's alpha	.68	.72			

Note. The principal axis factoring extraction method was used in combination with an oblimin rotation, and values smaller than .40 are not presented.

* Factor names in the original survey were retained for convenience.

** h^2 represents communality, which indicates the variance accounted for by all the factors.

*** The item was reverse-coded.

**** This item was loaded under Factor 1 in the original survey.

In the fourth part of the survey, students took a 6-item questionnaire on the instructors' (with or without a Ph.D.) use of L1 in online classes. Since the questions in this

questionnaire were exploratory, no model or factor structure was presumed and sought. Only Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for checking internal consistency and found to be .77. Descriptive statistics for the items are provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics on Professors' L1 use in Pre-recorded Video Lectures (n = 86)

#	Item	*M*	*SD*
1	I prefer my professors to use only English (not Turkish) in online classes.	3.36	1.25
2	My professors' use of Turkish in online classes damages my English language development.	2.62	1.24
3	I feel more comfortable in online classes when my professors use Turkish.	2.95	1.12
4	I understand concepts/class content better when professors use Turkish.	3.17	1.08
5	I prefer the professors to use Turkish when the class is boring.	3.26	1.08
6	I prefer explanations for online exams or homework to be in Turkish.	2.81	1.13

The questionnaire aimed to understand students' attitudes to L1 Turkish use in ERL classes. Once items 1 and 2 were reverse-coded, the mean was computed to be 3.04 (n = 86, SD = .80, $Sk.$ = -.48, $Ku.$ = .10). The skewness and kurtosis values were also below .59 for all items, and are not reported here. An examination of the individual items reveals interesting findings. Forty-three percent of the students (n = 37) strongly agree or agree that English should be the only means of communication in online classes (item 1); however, they (n = 38, 43 %) also strongly agree or agree that the professors should use L1 when the class becomes boring (item 5). Also, half of the students (n = 43, 50 %) either strongly disagree or disagree with the fact that L1 use in online classes will damage their English language development.

Next, to find out whether autonomous learning tendencies and the attitudes to ERL were linked, assumptions for the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (PPMCC) analysis were checked. Based on the mean scores for the ALS and the ERLQ, the data was checked for linearity, and no violations of normality was observed as suggested by tenable skewness (Sk_{LAS} = -.23, SE = .26; Sk_{ERL} = .32, SE = .26) and kurtosis (Ku_{LAS} = .55 SE = .51 Ku_{ERL} = -.10 SE =.51) values and non-significant Shapiro-Wilk tests (W_{LAS}= .984, df = 86, p =.362; W_{ERL}= .981, df = 86, p = .255). Table 5 provides a summary of the PPMCC analysis between the overall scores of the ALS and the ERLQ.

Table 5

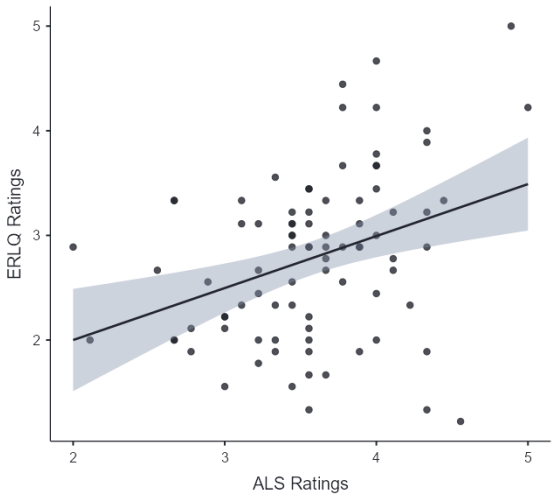
PPMC Matrix for the ALS and the ERLQ

	the ERLQ-Total
the ALS-Total	.347

Note. $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

Figure 1

The Correlation Between the ERLQ and the ALS Ratings



The analysis indicated a positive significant relationship between the ALS and the ERLQ [r (84) = .347, p = .001], which indicates a medium (Cohen, 1988) to small effect size (See Plonsky & Oswald, 2014 for a discussion). Also, a posthoc analysis of power given the reported parameters using Gpower v.3.1.9.4 (Faul et al., 2009) indicates a power of .92 for this correlation analysis. The linear relationship revealed by the correlation analysis is also presented in Table 5 and Figure 1.

For calculating the correlations across factors in two different questionnaires, first, the assumptions of normality were checked through an examination of skewness and kurtosis values, scatterplots, and normality tests. Although the skewness and kurtosis values were within the normal range for all four factors (two for each), the Shapiro-Wilk tests showed a significant departure from normality ($p < .05$) for all except for the Factor 1 (Independence of Learning) in the ALS (p = .07), which was confirmed by an examination of the residuals. Therefore, a Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to find out any correlations across the subdimensions of the scales.

The findings revealed a moderate to small significant relationship between the ALS Factor 1 (Independence of Learning) and the ELRQ Factor 1 (Satisfaction) [$r_s(84) = .31$, $p = .004$]. No other significant correlations were found ($p > .05$). The effect size interpretations were moderate to small, as informed by Cohen (1988) and Plonsky and Oswald (2014), with a posthoc power estimation of .85 for the present analysis.

All variables included in the background questionnaire were also computed using linear regression analysis to test if any of these variables significantly predicted the ERLQ or the ALS scores. The overall regression was statistically significant with the ratings of the platform accounting for 27% of the variability in the ERLQ ratings [$F(1, 84) = 30.96$, $p < .001$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .26$, $SE = .68$]

Finally, the data was also analyzed to see if students' attitudes regarding L1 use can be predicted by any variables on the background questionnaire as well as the ratings of ERLQ and the ALS. The regression analysis was conducted once the assumptions were met. The findings revealed that the ERLQ ratings and students' status as to whether they received IEPP together accounted for 18 % of the variability in students' self-reported attitudes to L1 use in ERL classes [$F(1, 84) = 8.93$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .18$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .16$]. Table 6 below summarized the results of the regression analysis showing the unique contributions of each variable.

Table 6

Results of a Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Attitudes to L1 Use in ERL Classes

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*B*	95% CI		Correlations
				L	U	Zero-order
ERLQ Ratings	.32	.10	.32	.12	.52	.3
Two-semester IEPP	.48	.17	.26	.10	.78	.27

Note. $R^2 / F = .18 / 8.9$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .16$, $p < .01$, Cohen's $f^2 = .26$

When the unique and collective contributions of each predictor variable are considered, it can be claimed that not each predictor explains the attitudes to L1 use in ERL classes equally well. When the contribution of the ERLQ ratings is considered as a single predictor, it explains 11 % of the variance [F (1, 84) = 10.53, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .11$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .10$, $R^2 = 0.11$, *Adj.* $R^2 = .10$] indicating that the ERLQ is a good predictor by itself. When the IEPP variable is added to the prediction equation already containing ERLQ, the predictive power of the equation increases by about 7 %.

Qualitative Findings

This section aims to complement and corroborate the quantitative findings of the study. The responses of the students to three open-ended survey questions were coded and analyzed using the qualitative data analysis software QDA Miner Lite v.2.0.9. A thematic analysis was conducted as a recursive process by first becoming acquainted with the data, and coding for determining and reviewing the themes. As a final step, the

themes were named and reported by situating them in previous research (for details, see Braun & Clark, 2006).

Of 3 open-ended questions, 2 were about students' emergency remote learning experiences. The other one was about their views regarding professors' use of L1 Turkish in asynchronous video lectures. The resulting themes, codes, and frequencies for the first and second questions [What was worst about ERL (if any)? &What was best about ERL (if any)?] are provided in Table 7, supported by their empirical indicators further below.

Table 7

Themes Under the Most Negative Aspects of ERL, Their Codes, and Frequencies

Themes	Subthemes/Codes	*f*
Technical issues	▪ LMS-related issues	
	▪ Using a low-quality/crashing LMS	25
	▪ Restrictions on the number of days for accessing the system	3
	▪ Personal issues	
	▪ Not having a reliable internet connection	6
	▪ Not owning a reliable device	3
Too much flexibility	▪ Lack of any regularity/discipline	7
	▪ Flexibility leading to laziness	4
Insufficient interaction	▪ Not being able to communicate/interact	7
	▪ Lack of body language	4
	▪ Lack of stimulants of a classroom environment	3
	▪ No image of the professors	3
Content delivery and assessment	▪ Online exams	5
	▪ Too long video recordings	3
	▪ No class notes	3
Psychological impact	▪ Feeling anxious	
	▪ Not being able to concentrate at home	5
	▪ Being concerned about not meeting deadlines	3
	▪ Feeling depressed	
	▪ Feeling like a computer addict	3
	▪ Feeling lonely/isolated	3

Relevant codes were created and later merged into themes iteratively to describe and interpret the data within the framework of the six-step procedure suggested by Braun and Clark (2006), and also methodologically described by Adu (2019). Five major themes (and sub-themes as needed) emerged as a result of the coding: Technical issues, Too much flexibility, Insufficient interaction, Content delivery and assessment, and Psychological impact. The qualitative analysis helped reveal further aspects of the students' ERL views and experiences which were not sometimes addressed in the close-ended survey questions. One of these aspects was undoubtedly related to technology and its use. The LMS seemed to be the biggest concern as it was the only means of

following the course content. Next, the flexibility of the ERL influenced students' learning in a negative way. As a case in point, student #56 mentioned "the ease" of ERL as the worst aspect of ERL, which was further supported by student #45 who stated that "there is no discipline, no regular class hours, and when you lose the thread of the online classes, you completely space out." Another student (#27) maintained that "since it was not required to attend classes, I always found myself shopping online whenever I intended to watch online recordings of courses." The quotes are interesting in revealing a different perception of flexibility in students' learning habits. Regarding this, some suggestions were having synchronous classes meet at their scheduled time with a certain percentage of attendance requirement being imposed, making attendance obligatory. Aside from the flexibility, students also reported having issues with the means of content delivery and assessment and having to deal with feelings such as anxiety and depression. Three students (#22, 30, and 47) stated that when professors did not turn on their cameras in the asynchronous video lectures, it caused them to feel distant and to stop watching the video recordings. They complained about not being able to interact with their professors and classmates for chatting, asking questions, and maintained that due to the asynchronous mode of conducting classes, they were unable to receive encouragement from their professors as revealed by the following quote: "Nothing can replace interactive, face-to-face learning" (student #30). Finally, students have also reported experiencing some psychological problems related to ERL. They felt anxious in fear that they would not be able to watch the recordings on time, upload their homework assignments in a timely manner, or would miss some important assignments/tasks. One student (#5) said "when the exams approached, I intentionally did not access the system for three days. It was overwhelming and depressing." Other than deadlines, it was clearly a combination of factors affecting the psychological well-being of the students including the pandemic effects, being online for extended hours, all of which might have led to the feeling of loneliness.

Regarding the second open-ended question on the survey [What was best about ERL (if any)?], the same procedure was followed, and the following themes and subthemes/codes emerged.

Table 8

Themes Under the Most Positive Aspects of ERL, Their Codes, and frequencies

Themes	Subthemes/Codes	*f*
Flexibility	▪ Ease of access	
	▪ Being able to access class video content any time	20
	▪ Being able to access class video content anywhere	19
	▪ Being able to rewatch or rewind the videos	15
	▪ Being able to watch them quietly at home	3
Academic contribution	▪ A better comprehension of content	8
	▪ Improved writing abilities through homework assignments	7
	▪ Improved note-taking skills	3

The students' responses did not show much variety in their positive views of ERL. Two major themes emerged: Flexibility and Academic contribution. The fact that the students were allowed to watch the videos as many times as needed and that they were able to rewind them were found to be very valuable because these features provided the students with the opportunity to take notes and watch the sections for further clarification. One student (#62) stated that she was able to "watch the videos whenever and wherever [she] liked, and was able to rewind the videos when [she] experienced difficulty understanding the lecture." Also, since students had to complete more written homework assignments usually over extended periods, this seemed to have contributed to the development of their writing skills in a positive way as one student (#3) put it: "Of course, the best thing was the homework assignments we had to complete. I really felt I was improving, which was reflected in my grades." So, the students preferred assignments instead of online exams as some (#3, #63, # 42) claimed that they were more "fair" and had a more "long-lasting" effect on their improvement and retention of content.

The last open-ended question on the survey was about the use of L1 Turkish in online classes. The question asked "What do you think about the use of L1 Turkish in ERL classes? Is it ok? Why/why not?" The codes were created as in the previous two procedures, and three themes emerged: Better comprehension, Classroom atmosphere, and Specific purposes.

Table 9

Themes Under the Use of L1 Turkish in Pre-Recorded Video Lectures, Their Codes, And Frequencies

Themes	Codes	*f*
Better comprehension	▪ For clarification of important points only	29
	▪ For complicated topics and classes	19
	▪ For explaining unfamiliar terminology	5
	▪ As support for L2 comprehension	3
Classroom atmosphere	▪ As an attention gatherer	5
	▪ For waking up students	4
	▪ For boring classes	3
Specific purposes	▪ For important announcements/guidelines	10
	▪ During technical problems in online classes	4
	▪ If covering content on Turkish culture/Turkish literature	3

Of the students who expressed their ideas, five students (#5, #43, #55, #57, #76) completely opposed the idea of using L1 Turkish in online classes without providing any explanations; however, one student (#57) said "it does not make any sense to use Turkish because we are studying ELL." Other than this specific comment, given the analysis, the students overall seem to agree that L1 Turkish might be acceptable and even desirable for a variety of purposes. They thought that L1 Turkish may be used for

any occasions where there is a breakdown of communication due to unfamiliar terminology, a complicated concept or topic, and for clarifying and emphasizing important points in class. Also, one student (#9) said L1 should be used "when the class gets boring because then the students start sleeping, and nobody listens to the professor." This indicates that students believe that L1 has the potential to stimulate the students when the classroom atmosphere becomes dull. The use of L1 was further recommended as an aid when technical issues arised. A few students mentioned that when the microphone or some other software lecturers use for recording does not properly work, making the professor incomprehensible, the professor might switch to L1 Turkish to make sure that everyone understands the content. One student (#54) further stated that "there are many classes, and the length of the video recordings are too long, so the professors can keep the sessions shorter and use more Turkish to emphasize the important aspects in shorter videos." To sum up, although students seem to provide various yet overlapping reasons for using L1 in online classes, an empirical indicator by one student (#8) deserves quoting: "if our brains possess the knowledge of two languages, why not use this to our benefit for better communication. I do not see any problems using [either] of them. The professors and we should not be limited to only one choice."

Discussion

The present study sought to explore ELL students' views about ERL, their self-reported degrees of learner autonomy, and lecturers' use of L1 in asynchronous lecture videos using a five-part questionnaire on a convergent design. To better understand each of the constructs in the survey and their relationships, the quantitative ratings of the survey were statistically analyzed, and the qualitative data was examined using QDA Miner Lite to support and further explain the quantitative findings of the study.

First, students' perceptual judgments regarding the ERL were found to be mostly neutral (45 %) with an average score of 3.09 (*SD* = .97). They were specifically dissatisfied with the LMS, and complained about the excessive workload, which was in line with previous research (Lischer, Safi & Dickson, 2021; Therisa Beena & Sony, 2022). Similarly, regarding their views of ERL, students in previous studies were generally reported to be of negative opinion (Alan et al., 2020; Karakuş et al., 2020; Rahiem, 2020) or had skepticism regarding their ERL experience (Adnan & Anwar, 2020). These findings are also in line with some findings reported by studies conducted prior to the pandemic outbreak (e.g., Özüdoğru & Hişmanoğlu, 2016). Comparing students' satisfaction scores on the distant mode of learning before and after the pandemic outbreak, Arık (2021) demonstrated a decrease in students' ratings in terms of overall satisfaction due to the obligatory status of the ERL classes. Students' responses to open-ended questions further supported the quantitative findings. Technical issues with the LMS were found to be the most frequently mentioned issue by the students, which was in support of previous literature (Durak & Çankaya, 2020; Tulaskar & Turunen, 2021). This is not very suprising given the extraordinary circumstances the pandemic brought together; however, the technical inadequacies or issues, including

minor ones, are likely to demotivate the students in online learning context. Therefore, ensuring a well-maintained and functional system should be considered a *sine qua non* for online learning. Regarding the most positive and the most negative aspects of ERL, qualitative findings further indicated technical issues being the most recurrent theme. Similar findings supported the fact the technical issues were critical (Durak & Çankaya, 2020; Öztürk Karataş & Tuncer, 2020), but they did not always constitute the most recurrent theme in different contexts (Hussein et al., 2020). As for the best aspects of ERL, flexibility in terms of availability of lecture videos regardless of time and space takes the lead, which was also supported by previous studies (Durak & Çankaya, 2020; Karim & Hassan, 2020; Öztürk Karataş & Tuncer, 2020; Taşçı, 2021).

The second major research question investigated students' reported level of learner autonomy, and the findings indicated a mean score above 3.5 for both factors of the ALS, which could be considered moderate to high. LA was also found to be positively related to ERLQ ratings, which meant that as students' self-reported degree of autonomous learning increased their positive perception of ERL also increased. A further look into whether and how the dimensions of each questionnaire were related demonstrated that there was a moderate to weak significant relationship between the students' Independence of Learning (the ALS Factor 1) and their level of Satisfaction in ERL (the ELRQ Factor 1). Although literature examining ERL in relation to autonomous learning is limited, the findings of the present study corroborate similar research conducted before COVID-19 (Firat, 2016; Güneş, 2018). Results indicated that more autonomous students, as measured by the ALS, had less difficulty in adapting to the new circumstances and thus perceived ERL more positively, which is also consistent with previous research (Taplin, 2000). The relationship between ERL and LA found in this study further supports Moore's (1972, 2019) theory of transactional distance underscoring the role of autonomy. None of the variables (e.g., gender, hours spent on LMS) as measured by the background questions predicted the ALS ratings although previous research using the same scale in its original form reported gender to be a good predictor of LA (Ozer & Yukselir, 2021). However, the sample size might have been small to reveal any such effects.

The third major research question examined the students' attitudes towards instructors' use of L1 in their asynchronous video lectures as a part of their ERL learning. The quantitative findings revealed that the students were neutral in their attitudes (M = 3.04, SD = .80) with half of the students (n = 43, 50 %) thinking that L1 use would damage their English language development. Macaro et al. (2018) reported similar findings in a study conducted in EMI context. The students preferred their course content to be delivered "predominantly" in their L2, and they were tolerant of the use of L1 especially when there is "a breakdown of communication" and "lack of understanding" (p. 17). Also, those with higher ratings of ERLQ reported more positive attitudes towards L1 use. Finally, students who studied at the IEPP for a year were found to be more tolerant of the use of L1 in ERL classes. There may be various reasons for this. Previous research has shown that students' proficiency level affects students' attitudes towards L1 use, with lower proficiency learners being more tolerant (Almohaimeed & Almurshed, 2018; Öz & Karaazmak, 2019). In this study, the students

who did not study at the IEPP were already exempted for passing the beginning-of-term IEPP proficiency exam or for holding an equivalent exam score. So, they were likely to have a higher proficiency although the other group of students, who also matriculated to their degree program, received one-year intensive English. However, to be able to make robust claims regarding the proficiency level of the students who completed the intensive English program in comparison to those who were exempted, a reliable and valid assessment of their English proficiency level is needed. Students' responses to the open-ended question asking them about their view of L1 use in ERL classes further corroborate the quantitative findings. The students mostly expressed views that support the use of L1 mostly, but only for specific purposes. The most recurrent theme was the use of L1 for better comprehension. They supported lecturers' L1 use especially to better understand critical or complex topics or unfamiliar terms. Students were also supportive of L1 use when the lecturers made announcements or provided guidelines for assignments and classroom management, which confirmed previous research (Timuçin & Baytar, 2015). However, the students in Macaro et al. (2018) specifically expressed that they preferred their teachers to use L2 English "when giving instructions for a task or assigning homework" (p. 13). Regarding the use of L1 in classes where the academic content is delivered in L2 English, there has not been a consensus in the literature. It is already known that lower-level L2 learners use their L1 as a crutch to make up for their lack of abilities in their interlanguage, which may unfortunately turn into a habit in the classroom. This is especially not a favorable situation because it may hinder, for instance, L2 speakers' inferencing and strategy use in meaning formation (Macaro, 2017). The present study does not specifically encourage the use of L1 in the classroom, but aims to better understand students' perspectives of L1 use in video lectures. Given that English majors might be expected to function in L2 English in a more competent way than other majors do, a restricted use of L1 use may be expected to help them improve their coping strategies in various communicative situations.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study have various implications for university lecturers, teacher trainers, curriculum designers as well as learning management system developers. First of all, higher education institutions should be provided access to highly functional and user-friendly infrastructure for online learning in an affordable way. More funding might be allocated to improve such systems to minimize the number of technical problems. Similar to orientation programs conducted in traditional education programs, brief hands-on training videos prepared for students and teachers introducing the basics and the dos and donts of online learning and teaching may help them feel more prepared and secure. Given that online learning and teaching have become an integral part of education, teacher education programs should be encouraged to include specific courses on their curriculum, in which the preservice teachers could practice teaching English online and be provided feedback and reflections by their instructors and peers. Such courses may help them experience teaching online in a way that is more effective and enjoyable for the language learners.

Compared to face-to-face classrooms, in online learning environments, it is easier for students to lose track of the class content given the flexibility offered. Therefore, curriculum designers and university lecturers are advised to plan their courses in a way to minimize students' feeling helpless while managing the academic content. This can be achieved by planning assignments in which the learners will work in a collaborative and/or individual manner based on certain projects to be completed. Discussion forums are another way to keep students engaged and on track. Instructors may ask students to post comments and respond to their classmates to encourage timely completion of the readings and other tasks. Depending on the content and the field of study, university instructors might as well come up with their own field-specific yet innovative ways of creating a more engaging online learning environment, which may lead to better learning outcomes. Since the key is to help students feel more engaged and manage their own learning adventure, the strategies and techniques suggested here should not be interpreted as teachers' extra control on the students. In fact, in a successfully designed syllabus, completion of tasks and engagement with the content should come as a natural consequence of learners' autonomous learning.

As for L1 use in online classes as well as face-to-face classrooms, there seems to be no one-size-fits-all solution. While a ban on the use of L1 does not seem realistic and even ideal for all, its overuse should also be avoided. There are various reasons for this. Students miss communication opportunities they may encounter later in their lives (Macaro et al., 2018), and eventually may not be able to reach the automaticity they aim for. This may in the long run affect their future careers by decreasing their competitiveness in the job market and professional life, and eventually, the likelihood of their employability in multinational companies or of winning study abroad scholarships. However, previous research, which was discussed earlier, has also shown various benefits of L1 use in the language classroom (Grim, 2010; Raman & Yigitoglu, 2015). Bearing the benefits and risks in mind and how these might affect the students' goals of language learning, instructors should be allowed to determine how much and in what contexts L1 use may be tolerated without causing injustice to those students who do not speak the L1 in their classrooms. Here, the role of EFL teacher education programs should be underscored as EFL teachers start shaping their philosophies and perspectives of language teaching during their early studies. However, L1 use should not be normally considered an aim in itself in a classroom where the purpose is to teach English or to deliver content in L2 English.

Limitations and Further Research

There are a few limitations to be noted. First, all limitations of studies with self-report measures apply to the current study, as well. Additional methods of data collection which allow for more in-depth analyses such as interviews may be used. Next, the final sample size was relatively small, and the data was limited in scope, so the generalizability of findings should be done with caution. For factor analyses, although there is a commonly established threshold of 100 participants, the present study adopted less strict criteria due to the small sample size. Therefore, as the factor solution diverged

from the original scale and three items had to be removed, the ALS findings should be interpreted wisely. However, it deserves noting that although no items had to be removed, similar adaptations on the same scale were also made in previous research (e.g. Scott et al., 2016). Further studies with higher number of participants might look at the issues raised in this study. One such area of investigation might be the use of L1 in the Turkish EMI context, both online and face-to-face classes using experimental as well as qualitative designs. Using structural equation modeling, a comprehensive look at the predictors of learner autonomy in English majors, and how these are related to success in online learning could also yield interesting findings.

Conclusion

Despite the limitations, the quantitative findings of the study demonstrated that ELL students were neutral in their views of ERL, and lecturers' L1 use in asynchronous lecture videos; however, in terms of perceived LA, their self-ratings were found to be moderate to high. The findings further indicated a positive relationship between ERL and LA as well as ERL and L1 use. Finally, the students who studied at IEPP for a year before matriculation were more tolerant of lecturers' L1 use, and LMS ratings were a good indicator of ERL rating. In addition to showing students' perspectives of ERL during COVID-19, these findings are significant in showing how supporting learners in developing their autonomous learning, which is critical for distance learners, will contribute to their perspectives regarding distance learning. Overall, the present study has extended research into ERL, learner autonomy and L1 use in asynchronous classes by looking at various demographic variables as well as study habits during the ERL transition. It is hoped that more studies with larger sample sizes will help better understand the underlying reasons for students' distant learning tendencies and attitudes, which will eventually lead stakeholders to provide more sustainable and effective distant education models.

Author's Note

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Üniversitede İngiliz Dili Bölümü Öğrencilerinin Acil Uzaktan Öğrenme, Öğrenen Özerkliği ve Asenkron Video Derslerindeki Ana Dil Kullanımına İlişkin Görüş ve Algılarının Araştırılması

Öz

Bu çalışmada, üniversite öğrencilerinin acil uzaktan öğrenme, özbildirim yoluyla belirlenmiş öğrenen özerkliği ve ana dilin (L1) asenkron sınıflarda (önceden kaydedilmiş video derslerinde) kullanımları konusundaki görüş ve algıları incelenmiştir. Katılımcılar ağırlıklı olarak Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitesinde İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı (ELL) okuyan birinci sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşmaktadır. Veriler, kolayda örneklem yöntemi (n = 86) kullanılarak çapraz kesişimli, beş bölümden oluşan web tabanlı bir anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Çalışma, (a) öğrencilerin acil uzaktan öğrenme hakkındaki görüşlerini, (b) onların özbildirimi yoluyla belirlenmiş öğrenen özerkliği düzeylerini, (c) öğrencilerin asenkron video derslerinde öğretim üyelerinin ana dil kullanımına ilişkin görüşlerini, ve (d) bu değişkenlerin birbiriyle nasıl ilişkili olduğunu ve bunun diğer özgeçmiş değişkenleri ile tahmin edilebileceğine dair ilginç bulgular ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca nitel sonuçlara göre, öğrencilerin yeni öğrenme deneyimleriyle ilgili görüşleri farklılık gösterdiği görülmüş olup teknik konular, etkileşim eksikliği ve psikolojik problemler çözülmesi gereken en acil konular olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin de oldukça özerk olduğu tespit edilmiş ve bunun acil uzaktan öğrenmeye verdikleri puanlarla ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı öğrencilerinin büyük bir kısmı video derslerinde ana dil kullanımının sınırlı olması koşuluyla kabul edilebilir olduğunu düşünmektedir. Bulguların, yükseköğretim kurumlarında İngilizce anadal eğitimi veren akademisyenlerin yanı sıra öğrenme yönetim sistemi tasarımcılarına da ilgili konularda ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Asenkron Öğrenme, Koronavirüs hastalığı, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Öğrencileri, Öğrenme Yönetim Sistemi, Kaydedilmiş video dersleri, Türk öğrenciler