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FOREWORD

Welcome to the new issue of The Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies; Vol. 9, No. 1, April 2013.

As the editorial team, we once again would like to extend our personal gratitude to those without whose valuable help and support, it would become impossible to complete this issue. Each day our team is making tremendous effort to reach the perfect in our services for our authors and readers.

In this new issue we have included 10 research papers, each of which is considered highly prestigious study. Mesbah, in her article entitled “***Results of the Students’ Lecturer Evaluations and Evaluations of Their Own Learning-Outcomes in Accordance with the Bologna Process in German as a Second Foreign Language Program (G2FL)***,” she focuses on the contribution of Bologna process. She maintains that while preparing for the Bologna process at tertiary, student involvement is essential. During the university-wide, end of semester survey, students are asked to evaluate their instructors as well as their individual learning outcomes. The ultimate goal, in the Department of G2FL, is to quantitatively analyze the survey results, the effectiveness of the Department’s language teaching methods and ultimately to ascertain student learning outcomes.

In his article “***Attitudinal Dispositions of Students toward the English Language: Sociolinguistic and Sociocultural Considerations***” Erdemir maintains that the status, value, and importance of a language is often measured by the attitudes toward that language. Learning a second or foreign language and attaining proficiency in it is closely related to the attitudes of learners toward the language. Surprisingly enough, in his view a few studies have investigated language attitudes of Turkish students toward the English language in Turkey. However, the same issue has not been explored among Turkish students learning and using the English language in a country where English is spoken as the first language.

Kaçar and Zengin has conducted a study on “***Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers of English towards Grammar Teaching in the Turkish Context***” in which they aim to investigate the perceptions and classroom practices of Turkish pre-service teachers of English employing a quantitative research design.

Another interesting article by Kurtul is on “***Semiotic Analysis of the Story “The Executioner and the Weeping Face”***” in which he reports that meaning is unclassified data and unshaped substance unless it exists on language level, which different languages form in various forms. That is to say that the same meaning is formed differently by each language. The said forms are the results of the functions of languages. Meaning cannot exist on its own except that it is the substance of a new form, which means that a specific form of language content arises as the make up of essence. Semiotics tries to answer the questions how meaning is created and how reality is projected by employing linguistics and logical methods drawing on signs.

In the article “***The Importance of Cultural Components in Foreign Language Teaching***” Alpar points out that the relationship between the social and cultural organizations of societies and languages is the subject of folklore. Each language contains a new form of life and thought. Language learning is also a process of culture transmission. A linguist should be aware of the fact that the language and culture of the society are the interconnected parts of a whole. In this context, an educator should not only aim at teaching

a language, but also help students to develop their personality by taking their cultural background into consideration.

Demirbaş in her study “*Performance Differences between ELT Freshmen’s Receptive and Productive Skills*” investigates whether the freshmen’s education at the preparatory school makes a meaningful difference in the freshmen’s performances who attend the preparatory program and those who are exempt from this program. Thus, it will lead to analyze the fact that whether the foreign language instruction that is offered at the preparatory school make learners more successful when they start their education in the department and in what skills the preparatory school helps learners develop more. In doing so, the efficiency of the preparatory school will become clearer, and both teachers and learners will be aware of their level of achievement.

Kayaoğlu has made a study on “*The Use of Corpus for Close Synonyms*” in which he reports that using corpora is still in its infancy in foreign language classes in spite of its great benefits and potential to offer solutions to the various challenges in foreign language instruction both for teachers and learners. This partly stems from a lack of interest and practical knowledge about the pedagogic role that the corpora can play. There is a pressing need to convince teachers of the great benefits of corpora with empirical data.

In “*Family Literacy and Second Language Literacy Research: Focus on Language Minority Children*,” Yıldırım states that Countries like the U. S. A. or Canada have citizens from various ethnic backgrounds. Although English is the dominant language in many parts of these countries, immigrants generally prefer speaking their native language when they are in their homes. Whatever the reason for using native language at home is, when we consider the children in these families, we can say that being exposed to different languages at home and at school may be a problem for their language development.

Kırmızı, in his study “*Learner Attitudes and Preferences in Terms of Learning Culture*,” aims at finding out Turkish learners’ preferences in terms of learning and teaching of culture in order to shed light on the practice of language teaching in an EFL context.

Doqaruni studies “*The Relationship between Communication Strategies and Noticing Function of Output Hypothesis in Teacher Talk*.” Doqaruni’s study, building upon communication strategies research and noticing function of output hypothesis, examines the relationship between these two issues in teacher talk.

Lastly, Khajavi and Abbasian have conducted a study on “*Improving EFL Students’ Self-regulation in Reading English Using a Cognitive Tool*.” Their study strives to investigate if concept mapping as a cognitive tool could contribute to improving self-regulation of students in a reading course.

Last but not the least we are happy to work with those who would like to publish their papers in our journal. Therefore, I am pleased to announce a “call for papers” for our future issues.

On behalf of the editorial board,
Best regards,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN
Chief-Editor

Results of the Students' Lecturer Evaluations and Evaluations of Their Own Learning-Outcomes in Accordance with the Bologna Process in German as a Second Foreign Language Program (G2FL)

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Abstract

Purpose of the Study: While preparing for the Bologna process at our university, student involvement was essential. During the university-wide, end of semester survey, students were asked to evaluate their instructors as well as their individual learning outcomes. Our goal, in the Department of G2FL, was to quantitatively analyze the survey results, the effectiveness of the Department's language teaching methods and ultimately to ascertain student learning outcomes.

Methods: In the first part of the survey, students evaluated their instructors. They answered 15 questions using a five-point scale. In the second part of the survey, they evaluated their own learning outcomes in five language competencies. The data obtained from the students' evaluation were qualitatively analyzed by the German Department.

Findings: Based on the survey results, the G2FL Department scored higher than the entire university. Most of the students rated themselves good/very good in listening, reading, and writing skills. However, they gave themselves lower marks in the two-way conversation and the oral explanation competencies.

Discussions: After the survey, the opinions of 778 students in German Language courses were evaluated by 12 German Language Lecturers. Finally, the opinions of both students and instructors were analyzed by the Department Head.

Conclusion: We concluded that our teaching strategy should include a greater emphasis on improving student conversational competency in German. As such, this year-end survey identifies essential learning, concomitantly, the teaching of specific competencies. Once the results are analyzed in detail, they are very useful for improving the quality of teaching as well as learning.

Keywords: German as a second foreign language (G2FL), quality assurance, European credit transfer system (ECTS), learning outcomes, Bologna process.

Introduction

In 1999, the Bologna Declaration was ratified by 29 European countries to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher education qualifications among the European universities. Today, 47 European countries participate in the process and the process was expected to be completed in 2010.

The Council of Higher Education in Turkey (CHET) has also issued a regulation concerning "Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement" on September 20, 2005. The Bologna Process has been defined by the Council as "an intergovernmental European reform process aimed at establishing the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by 2010." The "corner stones" of such an open space are "mutual recognition of degrees and other higher education qualifications, transparency (readable and comparable degrees organised in a three-cycle structure) and European cooperation in quality assurance" (YOK 2012).

Izmir University of Economics (IUE) is one of four universities in Turkey selected by CHET to pilot the Bologna Process. A goal of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) is to provide students with a seamless and transparent navigation between European Universities. A process of quality assurance has been instituted. Herein every faculty and department member at IUE receives a consummate review by the Board. The Board's assessment includes a review of course descriptions, student assignments, student learning objectives and outcomes, course prerequisites and course credits (IEU 2012).

Preparation of Course Portfolios for Alignment with the Bologna Process in IUE

As a first step of this process, a Bologna Coordination Committee (BCC) was established. The Committee requested each department to prepare a portfolio in preparation for the quality assurance process. The portfolios included the following items:

- 1) “Course Self-Evaluation Form”: We created this form to be filled out by the instructor for each course taught. Prior to completing the form, instructors are required to review their students’ course evaluation forms.
- 2) A second section, located at the bottom of each “Course Self-Evaluation form”, is completed by a randomly selected instructor. Department heads are responsible for the random selection of instructors.
- 3) Course syllabi contain the following: Detailed course introduction and application information, course objectives; Course learning outcomes; Summary of course content; Detailed list of weekly topics and reading list; Course materials and sources; Explanations of the course’s evaluation system; Course work load and assignments.
- 4) Sample midterm and final exams, homework, presentations, etc.
- 5) Sample high, average, low performing student exams, and
- 6) A general evaluation report by the department head.

After completing the evaluation process set forth above, the Course Portfolios were “... submitted to the Library Directorate for certification by the related Faculty Dean/Director of School. [They also] submit[ted] a report to the Bologna Coordination Committee for inclusion in the National Bologna Information Form” (IEU 2010).

In January and February, 2013, our institution will prepare a report of its own self-assessment. These "Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Reports" will be forwarded to the Higher Education Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Committee (YODEK) in March. Thereafter, YODEK will prepare a "Higher Education Academic Evaluation and Quality Improvement Report," and submit it to higher education organizations such as the Council of Higher Education (YOK) and the Inter-University Council of Turkey (UAK) (Edinsel, Gözen, and Köktaş 2008; Yıldız & Aydemir 2009).

Preparatory Activities of the Department of German Language as a Second Foreign Language (G2FL)

English is the language of instruction in IUE. Second to English, German is one of ten second foreign languages that are offered as compulsory electives. Students are required to enroll in a second foreign language class consisting of four hours a week, for a total duration of eight semesters.

As a part of the preparation process, the German as a Second Language Department (G2FL) reviewed all course descriptions and learning outcomes. All four levels of instruction are included within this stage of preparation. Also, this stage is in accord with the framework of language competencies described by the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2012; ALTE 2012). The G2FL courses and levels are shown in the table below:

Table 1

CEFR Levels and Course Codes of G2FL Program at IUE

GSFL	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior	
Semester	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	8 th
Course	GER	GER	GER	GER	GER	GER	GER	GER
Code	101	102	201	202	301	302	401	402
Level	A1.1	A1.2	A2.1	A2.2	A2.3	B1.1	B1.2	B1.3

In this preparation process, the German curriculum for all four levels underwent a meticulous review process and was thoroughly reorganized. After performing a series of detailed studies, Course Introduction and Application Information (Syllabus) were also prepared. Course objectives, learning outcomes, semester program, course grading system, and workloads were also revised. This was a time-consuming and exhaustive process with the sole purpose of improving the quality of teaching and learning in our classes. Student involvement in this process was deemed to be paramount, because, *“through effective, empowering opportunities to use students’ voice, experience and knowledge to make meaningful decisions, they can have ownership in their learning, and the investment to succeed”* (Fletcher 2012: 3). Consequently, our institution asked the students to evaluate their instructors and courses through an on-line survey at the end of each semester, prior to learning their grades.

Materials and Methods

The Survey

In the Spring Term, 2011-2012, the German Language Department offered a total of 47 classes taught by 11 full-time and one part-time instructor. The participants consisted of seven hundred and seventy-eight students from different faculties. The list of faculties, in the table below, selected G2FL participants.

Table 2

Faculties and Departments of IUE

Faculty of Science & Literature		Faculty of Economics & Administrative Sciences		Faculty of Communication		Faculty of Fine Arts & Design		Faculty of Engineering & Computer Sciences	
Mathematics	MATH	Economics	ECON	Public Relations & Advertising	PR	Fashion Design	FD	Software Eng.	SE
Psychology	PSY	Business Administration	BA	Media & Communi- cation	MC	Industrial Design	ID	Computer Eng.	CE
Translation & Interpretation	ETI	International Relations & the European Union	IREU			Interior Arch. & Environ. Design	IAED	Industrial System Eng.	ISE
Sociology	SOC	International Trade & Finance	ITF			Archi- tecture	ARCH	Electronics & Comm. Eng.	ETE
		Logistics Management	LOG			Visual Comm. Design	VCD		

The students evaluated their German instructors and their own learning outcomes in the semester-end university-wide survey.

The survey forms were divided in two categories:

- a) Lecturer evaluation by the students, and
- b) Students' evaluation of their own learning.

We analyzed the students' survey quantitatively, and we applied qualitative research design methods for the course evaluations by the lecturers.

Findings

German Lecturer Evaluations by the Students

In the first part of the survey entitled the “Lecturer Evaluation”, students answered 15 questions allotting a maximum of 5.00 points: 1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Totally Agree. Each rating reflects the students’ opinion of the German Language Instructor’s: Instructor’s subject knowledge; Teaching methodology; Classroom behavior and performance; Classroom management; Lesson flow; Course materials, etc. The results of the first part of the survey are shown in the table below:

Table 3

Lecturer evaluation by the students

INSTRUCTORS/ Total & Cumulative Average	German as a Second Foreign Language LEVELS				German ELECTIVE SUBJECTS	
	GER 102 A1.2	GER 202 A2.2	GER 302 B1.1	GER 402 B1.3	GER 312 Business German B1.1	GER 412 Advanced German B1.3
E.B. / 4.87 Cum.: 4.89		MATH1 / 4.92		BA1 / 4.85		
				ISE1 / 4.89		
C.T. / 4.68 Cum.: 4.67		ITF1 / 4.70		CE2 / 4.72	MIX / 4.41	
				SE1 / 4.84		
S.D.B. / 4.71 Cum.: 4.69	BA1 / 4.84		ARCH1 / 4.79			
	LOG1 / 4.61		BA1 / 4.61			
H.E. / 4.50 Cum.: 4.54		BA1 / 4.52		CE1 / 4.62		
		CE1 / 4.73		ISE1 / 4.23		
				ARCH1 / 4.38		
N.D. / 4.58 Cum.: 4.68	ETE+SE2 / 4.11		E1+PR1 / 4.76			
	MIX / 4.57		ISE1 / 4.88			
N.A.G. / 4.46 Cum.: 4.47	ITF1 / 3.89		ID1 / 4.69			
	PSY1 / 4.64		SE1 / 4.62			
B.S.M. / 4.47 Cum.: 4.50	SE1 / 4.53	LOG1 / 4.69		ETII / 4.18		
S.D. / 4.68 Cum.: 4.68		PSY1 / 4.78		ITF1 / 4.52		
		SE1 / 4.71		LOG1 / 4.77		
				MATH1 / 4.56		

T.I. / 4.60	ECON1 / 4.52		ITF1 / 4.91			MIX / 4.27
Cum.: 4.67			MATH1 / 4.71			
J.V. / 4.73		ISE1 / 4.78		E1 / 4.78		
Cum.: 4.74		ISE2 / 4.71		PSY1 / 4.53		
		E1 / 4.83				
H.Y. / 4.25	BA 2 / 3.99		CE1 / 3.89			
Cum.: 4.34	CE1 / 4.28		ITF1 / 4.54			
	LOG1 / 4.57					
B. T. / 4.01	VCD / 4.01					
Cum.: 4.01						
Instructors: 12	12 / 4.38	10 / 4.74	10 / 4.64	13 / 4.61	1 / 4.41	1 / 4.27
Classes: 47						
Average: 4.51						
Cumulative: 4.62						
Highest score: 5.00, P>0.0005						

The column on the left in Table 3, lists each of the German instructors (whose names are coded by their initials) and their total average score from all their classes. Cumulative scores are calculated by taking into account the number of students taught by each instructor. The scores for each course level and section are listed in the columns to the right. The bottom row of Table 3 shows that German instructors:

- scored 4.38 out of a possible 5.00 points from the first-year students
- scored 4.74 out of a possible 5.00 points from the second-year students
- scored 4.64 out of a possible 5.00 points from the third-year students
- scored 4.61 out of a possible 5.00 points from the fourth-year students
- scored 4.41 and 4.27 out of a possible 5.00 points from students who had elective German subjects.
- scored a *total average* of 4.51 out of the maximum possible of 5.00 points.

The G2FL Department received a higher score than the average score of the University as a whole, and 0.06 point lower than the score of the School of Foreign Languages (SFL).

Comparisons on Table 3 and Table 4 below shows that the G2FL Department (4.62) performed better than IUE (4.43) and SFL (4.57), since the scores are cumulatively calculated by the university:

Table 4

Average scores at the IUE

University Average:	4.43
School of Foreign Languages Average:	4.57
German Language Department Average :	4.62

Students’ Self Evaluation about Their Own Learning Outcomes in German Classes

In the second part of the survey, students evaluated themselves by allotting a maximum of 5.00 points: 1 = None, 2 = A Little, 3 = Some, 4 = A Lot, 5 = Quite A Lot. Students also evaluated how well they attained the learning outcomes. The learning outcomes were clearly set forth both on the syllabi as “Course Learning Outcomes”, and also in the survey as Student Learning Outcomes “SO-Questions”.

German language proficiency levels and the description of the learning outcomes were modeled after the "can do statements" in CEFR. The Learning Outcomes have been stated in five language competences as in the table below:

Table 5

Students’ learning outcomes-questions: an example for level GER 302

Q01)	Listening: The student will be able to comprehend the main points in a clear, standard communication -if spoken slowly- on common subjects which are met frequently in surroundings such as work, vacation, and trips. For example, food recipes, daily events or radio and television programs which are regarding personal interests.	4.00
Q02)	Reading: The student will be able to understand texts with words which are most frequently used in business life or in daily language. (For example, description of events in personal letters, wishes and feelings, instructions)	4.19
Q03)	Two-Way Conversation: The student will be able to join in the conversations regarding various situations which may appear while travelling in the country of the spoken language; regarding subjects which draw his/her attention or which are about his/her daily life. (For example, hobbies, work, apprenticeship, music, books and daily events)	4.00

Q04)	Oral explanation: The student will be able to express her opinion about a story, book or a movie's subject by using various structures which she has learned to describe a photo, her experiences, dreams, hopes, wishes and events.	4.00
Q05)	Writing: The student will be able to write a survey, article (for example, newspaper article) and a letter by describing his/her experiences and impressions related to subjects that are known or subjects that draw his/her interest.	4.06

The total survey results show that most of the students gave themselves above 4.00 points (“Good” to “Very Good”) in listening, reading, and writing competencies. However, students felt relatively weaker in “conversational” and “oral explanation” competencies. Here they self-scored between 3.50-4.00 points. Hence, in the future, we need to focus more on improving students' speaking and conversational abilities to every extent possible.

Discussions

Instructors' Opinions about the Course and Students

In evaluating the students' survey results, we employed qualitative research methods to obtain detailed descriptions of the instructors' opinions. The following are the highlights that emerged from the instructors' evaluations of the course and students:

In GER 101 (12 classes), students overall performed worse than expected, that is, they did not meet the workload requirements envisioned by the department. Students reported spending much less time and effort than is necessary for the successful completion of these classes. Students must take care to do their homework and be better motivated. Learning outcomes for this course were mostly achieved. However, the workload needs to be increased for some of the classes.

First-year students who come to the University from high school need to learn to adapt to the rhythms and demands of university-level work. Students need to learn to be independent researchers, to be attentive during lessons, and instructors need to provide them more information on how to study and how to become better learners and scholars. In short, students need more guidance, and encouragement in these matters.

In GER 202 level (10 classes), the students' self-reported workload was very close to the workload designated by the department. This shows that the students here have

greater motivation and are able to meet the demands of the course. The course materials and resource books used by the department treat all five competencies in language acquisition equally. As a result of the diligent work of the students in the GER 202 classes and their regular participation in class activities, all the learning outcomes -namely LO1, LO2, LO3, LO4, LO5- were achieved. Rightfully, students evaluated their own learning outcomes very close to 5.00 points.

In GER 302 (10 classes), the department offered students 99 hours of workload in the Spring Semester. However, some of the teaching staff commented that the workload, indicated by the students, was more than what was actually required. So, as the students here appear to be highly motivated, some instructors have suggested that they will increase the workload of this group in the coming semester.

In GER 402 (13 classes), the level of workload projected by the department was 99 hours, whereas, the students' estimate of the workload was between 90 and 108 hours. According to students' outcomes in this group, faculty members need to determine what kind of adjustment is needed in the use of class material. On the other hand, the motivation techniques must be adjusted to match the motivation of the students in each class.

In GER 312 (1 class / Business German, Elective Course), the instructor reported that the students have reached the A2 level by achieving all learning outcomes in Business German. The students' workload was close to the workload suggested by the German Department.

In GER 412 (1 class / Advanced Level, German, Elective Course), the instructor stated that the students reached the B1 level and achieved all learning outcomes for that course. The students' workload evaluation was also appropriate.

To summarize, instructors have reported that the main goals in German classes as second foreign language have been reached. At the end of the semester, students have reached anticipated objectives in each level.

Conclusion

With the start of the Bologna Process, higher education institutions in European countries generally concentrated on the following activities:

- 1) Creation of a triple rating system consisting of three cycles, thereby ensuring compatibility with rating systems in other European universities;

- 2) Creation of a national qualifications framework;
- 3) Implementation of European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System, and
- 4) Establishment of a system of Quality Assurance.

During the preparation for the Bologna process, our University was selected by the Turkish Council of Higher Education as one of four universities to establish a pilot program. Our university adopted the process and made the necessary improvements in the above mentioned areas in a very short time frame.

Examining learning outcomes and course and lecturer evaluations by the students is an important way of ensuring quality control in the process of teaching and learning. Likewise, student participation in the quality evaluation process is an essential part of the quality assurance of teaching and learning, and quality development.

All in all, the participants included 47 German classes in four levels, with a total 778 students' and 12 lecturers' whose evaluations were taken into consideration. As such, we obtained sufficient data about student expectations of quality and the expected level of quality of the academic staff. This quantitative study results show that the German Language Department teaching staff received scores exceeding the average score for IUE overall.

Students' self-evaluation was also above average and lecturers found the students' work load generally sufficient. Consequently, the German program succeeded in reaching its course objectives. Nevertheless, we strive to improve upon these findings and look for ways for the instructors to further engage the students in class activities, help them increase their work load, and encourage them to use more L3 in the classroom.

These surveys show the bases of performance indicators for either success or failure for the learners. In this way, we are able to follow up and evaluate the effectiveness of our higher educational teaching methods and learning outcomes. The results also give the department data-driven direction for future planning. Finally, the surveys and the data they provide, reveal the evidence of the necessity for continual improvement of the program and to ameliorate the program with visible and viable outcomes.

Such semester surveys are, therefore, extremely useful. Upon obtaining the survey findings, the results are best discussed in group meetings or workshops with the instructors to develop solutions to problems that are identified.

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Bologna Uyum Sürecinde Öğrencilerin, Öğretim Elemanı ve Öğrenme Çıktıları açısından İkinci Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretilen Almanca (A2YD) Programını Değerlendirme Sonuçları

Öz

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bologna uyum sürecinde üniversitemizde verilen öğretimde öğrenci katılımı esas alınmıştır. Dönem sonlarında üniversite çapında yapılan anketlerde, öğrencilerin öğretim elemanının yanı sıra kendi bireysel öğrenme çıktılarını da değerlendirmeleri istenmektedir. Amacımız, İkinci Yabancı Dil olarak öğretilen Almanca (A2YD) Bölümü adına anket sonuçlarını nicelik ve nitelik olarak analiz etmek, Almanca dil öğretim yöntemlerinin ne derece etkin olduğunu tespit etmek ve Almanca öğrencilerinin öğrenme çıktılarını (Learning Outcomes) değerlendirmektir.

Yöntem: Üniversite tarafından yapılan ve nicel bir yöntemle hazırlanmış olan dönem sonu anketinin ilk bölümünde öğrenciler 15 soru yanıtlayarak öğretim elemanlarını ve ikinci bölümde ise kendi yabancı dil yeterliklerini beş ölçekte değerlendirmişlerdir. Öğrencilerden elde edilen anket verileri Almanca birimi tarafından nitel araştırma yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular: Öğrenci anketlerinden elde edilen verilere göre, A2YD Bölümü'nün tüm üniversitenin ortalama puanından daha yüksek bir puan elde ettiği tespit edilmiştir. Öğrencilerin büyük bir çoğunluğunun kendilerini Almanca okuma, yazma ve dinleme-anlama becerilerinde iyi-çok iyi arasında değerlendirdikleri, ancak karşılıklı konuşma ve sözlü açıklama yetkinliklerinde kendilerine daha düşük not verdikleri görülmüştür.

Tartışma: Anket sonrasında 778 Almanca öğrencisinden elde edilen sonuçlar 12 Almanca öğretim elemanı tarafından değerlendirilmiştir. Son olarak, hem öğrenci çıktıları ve hem de öğretim elemanlarının görüşleri bölüm başkanı tarafından analiz edilmiştir.

Sonuç: Anketten elde edilen veriler ışığında, Almanca öğretim stratejisi açısından öğrencilerin konuşma yetilerinin geliştirilmesine daha çok önem verilmesi gerektiği sonucuna varılmıştır. Bu tür dönem sonu öğrenci anketleri temel öğrenme durumunu ortaya çıkarmakla birlikte aynı zamanda belirli yabancı dil yetkinliklerindeki öğretim durumunu da tanımlamaktadır. Anket sonuçlarının detaylı olarak analiz edilmesi Almanca öğretiminde tüm müfredatın ve öğretim stratejilerinin kalitesinin iyileştirilmesini kolaylaştırmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İkinci yabancı dil olarak Almanca (A2YD), kalite güvencesi, Avrupa kredi transfer sistemi (AKTS), öğrenme çıktıları, Bologna süreci.

**Attitudinal Dispositions of Students toward the English Language:
Sociolinguistic and Sociocultural Considerations**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: The status, value, and importance of a language is often measured by the attitudes toward that language. Learning a second or foreign language and attaining proficiency in it is closely related to the attitudes of learners toward the language. A few studies have investigated language attitudes of Turkish students toward the English language in Turkey. However, the same issue has not been explored among Turkish students learning and using the English language in a country where English is spoken as the first language.

Purpose: This exploratory study investigated the attitudes of Turkish students toward learning and using English language as they lived and pursued their university degrees in a northeastern city in the United States. The study examined students' attitudinal dispositions toward English based on sociolinguistic and sociocultural considerations.

Methods: The study included 8 student participants (4 male and 4 female) who were born in Turkey and spoke Turkish as their native language. They were all enrolled in a state university studying different programs in Engineering Sciences and Social Sciences. Data were collected conducting in-depth interviews with students over a two-month period. Participants were interviewed twice individually, and 16 interviews were conducted in total. Each interview took 50 to 60 minutes and was transcribed by the researcher. Data

analysis included (1) intensive (re)readings of interview transcripts and identifying attitudinal themes and patterns in the data through *emergent coding*; and (2) making qualitative connections among themes and patterns through identifying their consistency by applying *axial coding*. Coded dataset was then descriptively interpreted in its entirety.

Findings: Participants displayed mostly positive dispositions toward learning and using the English language; however, their attitudinal patterns varied with regards to sociolinguistic and sociocultural considerations. While they described English as a *beautiful* language, their perceptions about the *beauty* of the language associated with different interpretations regarding linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of English, such as euphonic sound system and lexical richness, and English as the language of global connection in different discourses (i.e., academia, media, and corporate world). On the other hand, participants viewed English as a threat to cultural and linguistic identities at the individual and societal dimensions. Devaluing the native language against English and the recent phenomenon of lexical penetration of English words into the Turkish language engendered participants' patriotic feelings about their native language and surfaced their nationalistic ties with their cultural and linguistic identities. Lastly, participants attached a variety of instrumental and survival values to the English language. They felt restricted expressing their feelings in English when they engaged in affective conversational discourses with native speakers. These attitudes, as well as the patterns they demonstrated in enacting such attitudes differed across genders significantly.

Conclusions and Recommendations: Different than a few studies that investigated the topic with English language learners in Turkey, the present study presents new insights by exploring the issue from the perspective of Turkish students as they learned and used the English language in the United States. Attitudinal studies can potentially shed light on the ways in which perceptions attached a language may impact learners' willingness to learn and develop proficiency in that language, and reveal their critical stances toward that language at sociolinguistic and sociocultural dimensions.

Keywords: language attitudes, language perceptions, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, English language, Turkish language, international students, ESL, EFL

Introduction

Heterogeneity in the population of the United States (U.S.) is on the rise as the country continues to attract people from diverse linguistic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds. Upon arrival to the U.S., newcomers go through a cultural adaptation period and begin mainstreaming into the American society wherein English language becomes the medium of communication. Thus, newcomers become language-minorities in this new environment and often struggle with developing communicative proficiency in the majority language in order to survive and fully function in the society. Emigration from the native land to the U.S. includes various reasons, such as work opportunities, marriage, or simply the pursuit of a better life. Education has also been another strong factor that has propelled many young students around the world to come to the U.S. in order to pursue their degrees. Some of these international students arrive to the country with a level of language proficiency that allows them to communicate fluently in English. Hence, these students primarily focus on pursuing their degrees rather than improving their English language proficiency. Some, on the other hand, come to the U.S. in order to learn and develop English as a second or foreign language by attending intensive English language institutions. Whether or not international students have attained academic and communicative proficiency in the English language, they may still be challenged to develop full competence with their language skills in order to excel in academic endeavors and survive everyday life. Thus, irrespective of their current proficiency, international students studying in the U.S. need to continually improve their English language skills in order to demonstrate robust academic development and acquire the essential communicative competencies exogenous to sustain their everyday needs.

Present Study

An important factor that needs to be examined in regards to second or foreign language learning are the perceptions of students regarding the target language, and how these perceptions impact the way they learn and develop competence in the language. In accordance with this, the present qualitative case study investigated the attitudinal dispositions of international Turkish students toward learning and using the English

language, and interpreted their attitudes in light of sociolinguistic and sociocultural considerations.

A review of relevant research shows that no studies have been published hitherto that focused on examining the attitudes of Turkish students toward English as a second language in the U.S. context. In fact, only a few studies have looked into the attitudes of Turkish native speakers toward the English language, and these studies were all conducted in Turkey (e.g., Karahan, 2007; Büyükkantarcıoğlu, 2004). Thus, while a few studies have focused on the language attitudes of Turkish speakers as they were exposed to English as a foreign language in Turkey, no studies have been conducted investigating the attitudes of Turkish speakers who learn English as a second or foreign language in a country other than Turkey. The present study on the other hand brings a new perspective into this limited strand of research by examining the attitudinal dispositions of Turkish students toward English as a second language in the U.S. context.

The context in which individuals are exposed to a particular language may considerably influence the development of perceptions toward that language. For example, Turkish native speakers who are exposed to the English language in a country other than Turkey, and learn English as a second or foreign language in that country may have substantially different attitudes toward English than those who were exposed to and learn English as a foreign language in Turkey. That is, whether the language is learned and spoken as the first, second, or a foreign language in the country where learners/speakers are situated may have direct associations with their attitudes toward that language. With this presumption taken into account, the present study investigated the attitudes of Turkish native speakers toward the English language as participants were situated in the U.S. where English is spoken as the first societal language, as opposed to prior studies conducted in Turkey where English is learned as a foreign language.

This study is also educationally significant in its attempt to elucidate and make sense of the connections between language attitudes and language learning. It has been argued that learning a language is closely related to the attitudes toward that language (Starks & Paltridge, 1996). Since the individual perceptions of a language could substantially shape the learning process of that language, attitudinal studies may shed light on the intertwined dynamics as to how perceptions attached to a language may operate the motivation to learn

that language. In this regard, the practical focus of this study is to provide ESL/EFL teachers and educators with insights about the attitudinal dispositions of a group of international Turkish students toward English as they learned and used this language in the U.S., and delineate the ways in which these attitudes shaped their language learning processes.

Research Questions

The study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do a group of Turkish students, attending a university in the U.S., perceive the English language in this context?
2. What kinds of sociolinguistic and sociocultural connotations does English evoke for these students?
3. What are their perceptions of the relationship between their attitudes toward English and how these attitudes influence their language learning experiences?

Review of the Literature

The status, value, and importance of a language is often measured by the attitudes toward that language. These attitudes may be measured at the individual level or explored within a group or community of people sharing the same language. At either level, information gathered from individuals, groups, or communities offers a way of democratically representing the views of the people toward the language (Baker, 1992). This information helps researchers understand the ways in which these views take shape and manifest themselves within the broader sociolinguistic and sociocultural domains of the society. Hence, the values and perceptions of individuals about languages may be influential factors in deeming these languages prestigious and valuable, or vice versa. If individuals' attributions to a specific language are likely to shape the status of that language and its use, these attributions then can be perceived as sociolinguistic indicators that determine the value of the language within the society at large.

Various empirical studies have documented the dynamics that underlie how people develop attitudes toward languages. For example, Villa (2002) indicates that language attitudes of people may lead them to suppress or change the use of particular languages that people do not favor or perceive positively. His study suggested that the use of Spanish

language in the U.S. for instance, specifically in the education domain, has been going through a deliberate change due to the unfavorable attitudes of some scholars toward the language. Therefore, devalued perceptions of Spanish language use in educational platforms have practically accounted for the decreased the use of this language in relevant discourses.

In his study, Marley (2004) investigated the language attitudes of high school students and teachers toward French, Arabic, and bilingualism in Morocco. The study showed that both students and teachers were widely in favor of a return to Arabic-French bilingualism within the education system and approved decisions to introduce foreign languages at an earlier stage in the curriculum. Thus, participants all displayed positively receptive attitudes toward Arabic and French and, in turn, more orientation toward learning both languages at the same time. The study demonstrated that the positive and favorable attitudes toward languages, as demonstrated by the majority, can in fact give more agency and autonomy to these languages at the pedagogical and even in educational policy levels.

El-Dash and Busnardo (2001) investigated the prestige and vitality of English as a foreign language in Brazil from the perspectives of adolescents. The study found that the majority of the participants perceived English more favorably than they did for their native Portuguese, and they acknowledged English as an international language. Thus, the study showed that native speakers of Portuguese attributed more privilege and prestige to English as opposed to their native language.

Flowerdew, Li and Miller (1998) examined the attitudes of Hong Kong Chinese university lecturers toward English and Cantonese. They found that rather ambivalent attitudes toward English existed among the participants. The researchers interpreted this pattern as an indication of the sociolinguistic tension existing within the society. In sum, the aforementioned studies have investigated attitudes towards particular languages, whether favorable, unfavorable, neutral, or mixed, can practically impact how these languages are used and practiced within society at large as well as the domains of the society, such as education.

The other strand of research focuses on examining individuals' language attitudes in conjunction with language learning, motivation, and the cultural manifestations of the language use. For instance, Graham (2004) investigated the relationship between attitudes

and the level of achievement in the language. She focused on the perceptions of students who were native speakers of English, toward the French language and how they perceived the factors that underlay their level of achievement in French. The study concluded that the students who attributed success to effort, high ability, and effective learning strategies had higher levels of achievement, and thus viewed French positively.

Relationships among language learning, motivation, and attitudes were also examined. Williams et al. (2002) looked into students' perceptions of motivation in language learning as they pertained to their attitudes toward learning French. The study found that the motivation to learn a foreign language may decrease with age regardless of the positive attitudes toward the language. Therefore, language learning was found to correlate more closely with the age of learners irrespective of the learners' positive perceptions about the language.

White (2002) examined the attitudes of Fijians using English in conversations with peers, and the extent to which peer culture valued or devalued the use of English language. The study found that English was viewed by many Fijians as a language of another culture and its usage in informal contexts was deemed inappropriate. That is, using English words and concepts among peers of Fiji was regarded disparaging by the participants. The finding also alluded to the sociocultural tension within the society as a result of the increasing popularity of the English language in the country.

Despite the variety of studies focusing on individuals' attitudes toward various languages, Turkish learners/speakers of English have been seldom examined as a focus of population within this fabric of research. Of the limited research with native Turkish speakers, all have been conducted with participants in Turkey. For example Karahan (2004) examined the relationship between language attitudes toward English and its use in Turkey. Participants in her study were found to have mildly positive attitudes toward the language, and especially female students assigned higher value rates. Participants recognized the importance of English but, interestingly, did not reveal high levels of orientation toward learning the language.

Büyükkantarcıoğlu (2004) looked into the present state of English language in Turkey in light of the historical and socio-political developments, and how English was perceived in the society as a result of these developments. She argued that the unplanned

and educationally unmediated spread of English in Turkey make people believe that English is a highly regarded language to learn in today's world in order to gain personal prestige. The researcher warned against the increasing penetration of English in Turkish language, and suggested that effective measures and realistic solutions should be taken to prevent the spread of English into Turkish. Different than these studies conducted in the context of Turkey, the present study specifically focused on the attitudes of a group of Turkish students toward the English language as they learned and spoke this language in the U.S.

Methodology

Participants

The study included eight student participants who were attending a university in a northeastern city in the U.S. Equal gender division was ensured by including four female and four male students. All of the participants were born in Turkey and self-reported Turkish as being their native language. At the time of the study, they were all learning English in the *English Language Institute* of their university. Except one of the participants who was fluent in Russian as well, they did not report knowledge of any other languages. They had started to take courses in their programs simultaneously with their English language courses. Their length of stay in the U.S. ranged from 4 months to 3 years. While three of the participants had been in the U.S. for more than two and a half years, three of them had been there less than two years. The rest had only been in the U.S. for less than a year. Six of the participants self-identified themselves as “partially proficient” in English, meaning they felt proficient in writing and reading skills but not as much in speaking and listening. Two of the participants did not consider themselves proficient in English yet. As they indicated, they were struggling with improving their speaking skills.

Given the exploratory and interpretive nature of the study with an exclusive focus on their attitudes, assessing or interpreting language skills of the participants were not within the scope and focus of the study. Therefore, no questionnaires or assessments were administered to identify their level of English proficiency. Participants' contact information was provided by the president of the *Turkish Student Association*—a student group at the

university where the study was conducted. Upon initial contact with the students, 4 male and 4 female students were recruited in the study¹.

Data Collection

Data were collected through conducting personal interviews with the participants. Interviews were extended over a two-month period, and each was carried out individually. The number of the interviews varied depending on the relevance and the depth of the data gathered from the initial interview. In total, two personal interviews were conducted with participants. Each interview lasted about 50 to 60 minutes and included pre-determined questions prepared by the researcher. However, given then spontaneous nature of the interviews, many specific conversations and questions emerged that were not pre-determined, but added more layers into the depth of the data. Interviews were carried out either in Turkish or English depending on participants' preference. While 6 of them (4 female and 2 male) preferred to conduct the interviews in English, two remaining participants (2 male) preferred Turkish. However, despite the initial preference of the former to conduct the interviews in English, they switched to Turkish frequently since they were more at ease communicating their thoughts in Turkish. Interviews were audiotaped and transcribed by the researcher, and those conducted in Turkish were subsequently translated to English.

Data Analysis

Data analysis included two phases. The first phase included intensive re-readings of interview transcriptions, and identifying the themes and the patterns of language attitudes for each individual participant through emergent coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In the second phase, themes and patterns that were scrutinized in the first phase for each participant were gathered and interpreted all together. The connections between themes and patterns and the extent to which they were consistently shared across all participants were identified through axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Coded dataset was then interpreted in its entirety.

¹ Pseudonyms are used throughout the paper in order to maintain participants' anonymity.

On a related note, the process of data analysis did not seek to identify any particular or pre-determined themes. Rather, analysis strived to confront all the themes that the review of literature presented. The themes and patterns of language attitudes presented in the next section were included in the study after ensuring that each of them occurred recursively across all transcriptions. Themes and patterns that did not consistently occur in the data were omitted from the findings. Thus, each attitudinal theme presented in the findings section along with its respective patterns was identified in the data collected from the majority of the participants, and analyzed accordingly.

Findings

This exploratory study aimed to gain an in-depth understanding into the attitudes of Turkish students toward the English language as they learned this language in the U.S. Rigorous analyses demonstrated three attitudinal themes that emerged from the data: (1) English as a *beautiful* language, (2) English as a threat to cultural identity, and (3) English as an instrumental and survival language. These were the consistent themes shared among the participants. The next section details and discusses these attitudinal themes along with their patterns by presenting interview excerpts from the data.

English as a *Beautiful* Language

Across the interview data, the most common perception shared among the participants was English as a *beautiful* language. Yet, the attributions of participants to English as being a *beautiful* language varied based on different considerations. Three of them stated that English sounds euphonic thus *beautiful*, and therefore, they enjoyed hearing this language.

Excerpt 1 (interview with Türkü).

“It sounds cool and I enjoy listening people speaking in English. They rise up and lower their voices; they can express their ideas through the sounds of this language. So it doesn’t only have to be the sentences and words only but the sound of the language, its voices make it sound beautiful. I don’t know but in my language sounds are harsh but English have polite sounds. Even if I knew French I would prefer listening English songs than in French because it sounds musical, and kind of gentle and soft to ear...”

The participant here attributes the beauty of the English language to its sound and phonetic system. She favors English over French and concludes that the former sounds more gentle and musical thus *beautiful*. Other participants also expressed similar perceptions and thought that English is pleasant to hear, and they described it as a language that sounds soft and comforting, not as raspy or discordant.

In addition to attributing the *beauty* of English to its sound system, some of the participants mentioned that the rich repertoire of words in English for naming and describing things in a variety of ways makes it a *beautiful* language. They stated that English offers its speakers a lot of different words for labeling and naming things, whose translation-equivalents or corresponding words, participants thought, did not necessarily exist in their native language, Turkish. Thus, the fact that English offers a more comprehensive lexicon to define and name things in a myriad of ways, as opposed to Turkish, led the participants consider English as a *beautiful* language.

Excerpt 2 (interview with Seçil).

“Since I started to learn English, my vocabulary has been improving. It has lots of words and I can’t even find the direct Turkish meanings for these words. For example *cool* or *appreciate*. And I learned the word *spiffy* recently. I can’t translate them in Turkish because Turkish does not have these meanings directly. Like this, here I learned many words and sometimes I think my vocabulary knowledge here is bigger than Turkish.”

As Seçil’s quote suggests, a common pattern shared among the participants was that they felt the English language allowed them the freedom and flexibility to express their ideas more fluently thanks to its lexical richness. That is, being able to use a variety of words and phrases to express themselves was something they appreciated about the *beauty* of the English language. Yet, this pattern of perception was mostly common among the participants who had been in the U.S. for over two years and self-reported to have developed a rich vocabulary repertoire. The analyses did not identify similar perceptions among participants who had been in the U.S. for less than two years. In fact, those who had been in the U.S. for less than two years acknowledged their limited competence in vocabulary and indicated that learning new words and using them in academic work and

daily life was an area they were struggling to improve. This attitudinal pattern suggests that those who had relatively longer exposure to the English language were aware that their relatively richer vocabulary knowledge afforded them with the opportunity to verbalize their ideas using a variety of words, which, consequently, led them to view English as a *beautiful* language.

Some of the participants also attributed the beauty of the English language to its accessibility, prestige, and dominant use in different discourses, such as academia, media, or corporate business world. Participants appreciated the accessibility of English and indicated that its increasing use around the world connects people in specific spaces in which they can communicate in English regardless of their varied linguistic backgrounds. For instance, one of the participants thought that English creates a venue for him to communicate with people of his major in different parts of the world, thereby adding on to his expertise and enriching his knowledge through these exchanges.

Excerpt 3 (interview with Baran).

“When I do research and publish them I write in English. I have to do it only in English. Because it is the global language of publishing. It’s amazing that even I can read and listen to academicians from China, Japan talking about their studies in English. You know this is very beautiful. People all around the world, speaking different languages but they get together and communicate under in one language when they want their articles or research to be heard and understood by other colleagues who may be at the other side of the world. It connects these people to me...It’s like a bridge where we meet. This also helps me to improve my knowledge”.

Baran views English as a language that bridges the gaps and affords him a common space to get together with people from different language backgrounds in order to exchange information on content-specific topics, which he found particularly impressive thus, *beautiful*. Other participants also mentioned how English helped them broaden their perspectives and build on their world knowledge given that it is an international lingua franca now shared by a mass of people in academia, media, and the business world. Aligned with this, they mentioned how English was emerging as the language of pop

culture entertaining a generation of youth. For some of the participants, movies, either in subtitles or not, and songs in English gave them the feeling of connecting with people around the world who would watch the same movie and listen to the same song in the same language, which they found particularly intriguing and “cool”. Such dialogic and communicative uses of English led the participants to develop positive attitudes, and consequently, they considered English as a *beautiful* language.

English as a Threat to Linguistic and Cultural Identities

Analysis of the data also pointed to an interesting attitudinal pattern shared among the participants. They tended to perceive English as a threat to linguistic and cultural identities of language-minority groups when the native language is neglected and/or devalued against English. Such attitude is clearly counterintuitive in light of their positive and favorable perceptions of English as a *beautiful* language; yet, many of them were critical of how English is increasingly becoming a powerful tool of assimilation. Some of the participants shared that immersing in the American culture and using only English in their everyday lives made them feel that they were being too “Americanized”. Participants who expressed this attitude viewed language and culture as being intertwined with one another and that the practice of language infuses its culture. Aligned with this perception, Kramsch (1998) states: “language expresses, embodies, and symbolizes cultural reality” (p. 3). Likewise, participants thought that when native language use diminishes, or is devalued, English then becomes a powerful means of acculturation. Therefore, the fact that they had to use English in every aspect of daily lives in the U.S. evoked the feeling of detraction from their linguistic and cultural roots. Yet, participants who expressed a perception of such did not necessarily ascribe negative sentiments or attitudes to the English language. Rather, they enjoyed speaking and using English to the extent that this language was not assimilating or reshaping their cultural identities and turning them into “Americanized” Turks.

Interestingly, this pattern of attitude was only identified among male participants, especially those who had been living in the U.S. relatively longer than the others. None of the female participants expressed any opinion that viewed English as an assimilative language or a potential danger to their cultural and linguistic identities. Thus, the perception

of English as a cultural and linguistic threat and that it would detract language-minorities from their cultural and linguistic identities, varied based on the gender of the participants.

Excerpt 4 (interview with Buğra).

“I speak so little Turkish here that English is as if becoming my native language and I don’t want that. And you know sometimes speaking so much English I seem like an American or the way I behave. When I go back to Turkey my friends sometimes say “Why do you speak Turkish like English” or “You’ve changed into exactly like those stupid American guys on MTV”. I don’t like these things and I don’t want this happen to myself”.

Being exposed to the American culture and speaking only in English in the U.S. makes Buğra question how his native language accent and behaviors, which might have been slightly influenced by the American culture and the English language, were criticized and ridiculed by his friends in Turkey. Apparently, he did not want to be stereotyped as an *Americanized Turk* with an assimilated linguistic and cultural identity, which he presumed could happen if he were to immerse more into the American culture using the English language. As a result, the lack of opportunities to speak in his native language in the U.S. led the participant think that speaking only in English can be a threat in maintaining his linguistic and cultural bonds with his native roots.

Some of the male participants also perceived the use of English language based on nationalistic ideas and even patriotic feelings. They thought using too much English might disrupt and deteriorate individuals’ proud feelings for their country, culture, and native language. This pattern of attitude alluded to the common perception that “Turks are patriotic for their countries and culture” (Canefe, 2002). Even though they were aware that they had to use English in order to survive and pursue their academic endeavors, they thought favoring English over their native language would undermine the pride they held for their cultural and national identities. However, this pattern of attitude did not necessarily bespeak negative connotations of English. Participants were aware of the necessity of speaking in English for their survival needs and academic pursuits. Yet, they stated that perceiving English as if more significant and prestigious than their native language and devaluing Turkish would mean denying their national identities. Hence, some

of the participants were critical of and not tolerant with their Turkish friends speaking English among themselves or inserting English words to their conversations in Turkish.

Excerpt 5 (interview with Burçak).

“There are some Turkish guys here just speak English between themselves. This is so strange and I don’t know, wrong. Why speaking in English? Because Turkish is their native language! I am not saying I don’t like English. I just don’t use it when I speak to my Turkish friends. If I did that, I don’t like my country or my own language. Those guys won’t even tell strangers they are Turkish! It is annoying and I can never be like them and I don’t want to!”

One of the male participants emphasized how English imposed its culture in everyday life of Turkey. He complained about the cultural products English brought along, and how people were led to favor and consume those products. He stated that the increasing popularity of English use in Turkey is infusing its own values into the society and causing a clash between the two cultures. Interviews with this participant elicited striking statements, such as “I want to learn English, not its cultural imperialism” and “I was brought up in Turkish culture and I don’t want English to have a right to influence my culture”. Given the increasing dominance of English across the world, including Turkey, the participant thought that English had the potential to have significant impacts on cultural identities of nations.

Some of the participants also raised the issue of how the new generation Turkish youth has developed a tendency to insert English-origin words into their conversations. They interpreted this societal linguistic pattern as a tool to show off, and at the same time, a detriment to cultural identities of the upcoming generation. Participants emphasized their discomfort with the recent phenomenon of the penetration of the English language in Turkish society through advertisements or store signs being written in English or embellished with English words, radio stations playing more songs in English than Turkish, and the reality shows and TV series that originated from the U.S. and were cultured with American values being aired in Turkish. Considering these, male participants perceived English as an “insidious” language that tends to instill its culture and values into the societies where it is learned and spoken popularly. Nevertheless, they recognized it as a

language they needed to use for their academic pursuits and survival needs in everyday life of the U.S.

English as an Instrumental and Survival Language

It has been argued that minority languages evoke more positive, personal, and affective feelings whereas the majority languages evoke more instrumental values (Wölck, 2005). Analysis of the interviews alluded to a similar pattern among the participants when they discussed about the functional and emotional values English evoked for them, as well as in how they perceived their native language, Turkish, as a minority language in the U.S. context. Unsurprisingly, the majority of the participants acknowledged the importance of English language to have better jobs and become more accomplished in their careers. Thus, they perceived English as an instrumental language in which they had to be proficient in order to accomplish their objectives.

Excerpt 6 (interview with Seçil).

“English is a big concern for me. Finally, I’ll be working as an engineer Turkey. All jobs require to know English very well. I’ll not definitely be offered a job if I don’t know English. So I have to work hard to return to Turkey with a good level of English knowledge. But I also like it. If I was still in Turkey and had a job and if that job did not have language requirements, I would still learn English. To some people language learning is an enjoyable thing. And I am one of those like that”.

Most of the participants’ thoughts cohered with Seçil’s statement above on the necessity to learn and fluently speak in English in order to meet their career and job requirements. Thus, they demonstrated more instrumental orientations toward learning and using the language. That is, English language served as an instrument in accomplishing career-oriented objectives. This pattern of attitude reflects participants’ utilitarian motives in attaining English language proficiency in order to gain social recognition and economic advantage in the workplace (Baker, 1992).

Aside from the instrumental values attached to English, some of the participants stated that they needed to learn English to survive in the U.S., not necessarily to achieve a higher economic or social status. Such perceptions were especially common among the

participants who reported their future jobs did not require English language proficiency and those who were planning to pursue careers in the U.S. Attaining communicative competence in the English language was essential to fully function in the society. Therefore, it was crucial for them to learn this language thoroughly and use it fluently in the contexts of academic and daily life, if they were to survive and pursue a career in the U.S. For some of the participants, English was of vital survival importance in the sense that if they did not have the English language proficiency to make progress in their academic work and communicate in daily life, then they would be forced to go back home. For these participants, English language was perceived as the primary tool to survive in the U.S., not necessarily a language that helped them gain higher economic and social status in the society.

In light of this attitudinal pattern among the participants, it may be argued that having a survival-oriented attitude toward the majority language still expresses the instrumental values that its non-native speakers perceive toward that language. Baker (1992) states: “instrumental attitudes to learning a second language, or persevering a minority language might be, for example, for vocational reasons, status, achievement, personal success, self enhancement, self actualization, or basic security and survival” (p. 32). Whether their purpose of learning English was to secure better jobs, attain a social status, or survive in the U.S., participants demonstrated instrumental attitudes toward learning English.

At the micro-level of their interpersonal survival needs, some of the participants mentioned that they felt restricted with English language when they wanted to express their feelings, whereas they felt flexible and confident expressing those feelings in their native language. They were at ease discussing emotional and personal topics in Turkish; yet, using English in similar circumstances was challenging and restricting. At the same time, trying to articulate their feelings in English did not evoke the feeling of sincerity and closeness with interlocutors when they were engaged in affective conversational discourses. Therefore, using the English language to open up to the native speakers of English and articulating their feelings in personal discourses was a challenge for the participants.

Excerpt 7 (interview with Türkü).

“It is difficult to talk to my American friends when I want to express my feelings to their achievements or to their bad situations. I can’t make good sentences then. I say to my friends I wouldn’t want to have a relationship with an American boyfriend because I cannot make beautiful sentences for my feelings. It is difficult, I don’t know why. What I say to them is not always what I felt and how I wanted to say my feelings.”

Similar to how Türkü perceived English and Turkish at the level of personal and emotional conversation, four other participants concurred that they had the same feelings. While they were able to use English in academic settings and formal daily conversations, they did not feel comfortable expressing their feelings and emotions in English when they had to. One of the participants found it particularly difficult to read texts or watch movies that involved articulation of highly interpersonal feelings. She speculated that this pattern of difficulty might be due to her limited exposure to such affective and highly personal discourses in English, rather than her lack of vocabulary. As he participant indicated, she was accustomed to engage in personal and emotional conversations in Turkish, more so than English.

The perception of English as a restricting language for emotional and personal expression was identified among the female participants. While the interviews with male participants did not hint at similar and/or opposite patterns, the female participants emphasized that their native language, Turkish, rendered personal conversations more expressive and meaningful. They felt they were able to better empathize with each other when such personal and emotional topics were discussed in Turkish. Thus, being able to articulate and get across their feelings in English was a challenge for the participants and created a bottleneck for their interpersonal interactions within their circle of friends.

Discussion

Participants of this study were Turkish students pursuing their university degrees and learning English as a second language in the United States. Thus, it was not surprising to find that most of them demonstrated positive attitudes toward English. Participants described English as a *beautiful* language; yet, their attributions to *beautiful* concerned

different aspects of the language. Some of the recursive adjectives they used to describe the *beauty* of English included *exotic*, *cool*, *melodic*, and *musical*. They liked the flow of English in conversation, and they enjoyed listening to and speaking in it. Thus, when alluding to the *beauty* of this language, participants focused more on the phonetic aspects of English and how soft and euphonic it sounded to them. In addition, the *beauty* of English associated with its flexibility in offering numerous words, phrases, and expressions to name and articulate things in a lot of different ways. Participants acknowledged English as a lexically rich language that allowed them the opportunity to name and express things in a variety of creative ways. They also perceived English valuable for being the language of connection to people in different parts of the world in order to receive and disseminate knowledge and exchange content-specific information related to their area of study. Being able to globally communicate in English with people from varied linguistic backgrounds within the discourses of academia, media and business world added to the *beauty* of English language.

The study documented interesting findings regarding the ways in which male participants perceived English as a threat to cultural and linguistic identities. Living in the U.S. and immersing in this culture led the participants to feel that using English the entire time and favoring it over their native language would Americanize their selves. They were critical of the English language imposing its culture and values in subtle ways at individual and societal levels, which, according to them, could undermine the cultural and linguistic identities of people. Participants' opinion that getting overly immersed in the American culture through speaking and thinking in English gave rise to their patriotic feelings and surfaced their nationalistic ties with their culture and linguistic identities. Their concern about the cultural values of the U.S. prevailing in Turkish society through the English language as well as their worries about the lexical penetration of English into Turkish demonstrated participants' discomfort with this current situation. This discomfort also spoke to their protective stances of their native language and culture against the emerging popularity of English in Turkey. Nevertheless, these patterns of attitudes did not generate animosity or any negative perceptions of the language. Rather, participants recognized the significance of English in fulfilling their goals. Hence, they developed positive attitudes

toward learning and speaking it; yet, they were critical of and opposed to English language acculturating the society and engendering degraded perceptions of Turkish against itself.

Findings also suggest that the English language carried instrumental and survival values for the participants. For those who were planning to go back and start working in Turkey, attaining proficiency in English was essential in order to gain economic advantage and social status in the workplace. On the other hand, participants who expressed an interest in staying in the U.S. to pursue a career were concerned about English more for their professional development and survival needs. Developing full proficiency in English was an objective they strived to accomplish since they had to stand out competitive with their language skills in the U.S. job market as a non-native speaker. In the immediate context, developing communicative competence in English was an indispensable component of their everyday lives to fulfill survival needs while they stayed in the U.S. However, the value of English at the level of interpersonal interactions was contradicted when participants thought that it did not feel genuine to articulate their feelings in English, and that it restricted them from fully communicating their emotions. Turkish was therefore the language of emotional expression for them.

These attitudinal dispositions demonstrated certain patterns in light of the gender of the participants. While the males perceived English as a potential threat to cultural and linguistic identities, the females did not express an attitude of such. The perception that getting immersed in the American culture *too much* through English language may undermine one's cultural and linguistic values, originated from the male participants. Female participants did not state any similar or opposing perceptions, and they did not express their stances toward the current situation of the English language in Turkey. Therefore, their perceptions of English language and its use in Turkey did not allude to patriotic (or non-patriotic) feelings of any sort toward their native language and culture as most of the male participants' did. In addition, only the female participants mentioned the challenges of articulating their feelings in English.

Findings of attitudinal patterns in which gender differences were observed should be interpreted cautiously. It should *not* be assumed that the female participants did not perceive English as a potential cultural and linguistic threat, or that they would not take any nationalistic stances on the emerging dominance of the English language in Turkish

society, or vice-versa respectively. Similarly, findings do not assume whether or not the male participants found the English language challenging to express their feelings. The study did not include any leading questions that compared thoughts of the participants with each other across interviews, and they were not prompted to share their take on these particular issues as well. Therefore, aside from elucidating these patterns identified across genders, it would be misleading to conjecture or conclude on behalf of the participants who did not express any thoughts on these issues.

Overall, student participants reported to have positive attitudes toward English, and they acknowledged the importance of learning and developing proficiency in this language. The patterns in their varying attitudes toward English demonstrate the points in which participants tended to become more sensitive and critical of, such as the penetration of English vocabulary in Turkish and the infusion of its cultural values in societies where it has become trendy to learn and use it. Nevertheless, these concerns did not precipitate any negative or hostile attitudes toward English. Rather, the majority of the participants enjoyed using and speaking in this language.

Given that the participants were all university students in the U.S. learning English language and taking courses in their areas of study, it is not surprising that they had developed positive attitudes toward the language. They all preferred to come to the U.S. in order to pursue their professional goals. Therefore, it would be counterintuitive to hear negative attitudes toward learning and using English. Likewise, since some of the participants needed to learn and develop proficiency in English for their future professional occupations in Turkey, it is not surprising to see them attaching more instrumental values to this language. Also, associating the value of English with survival needs is also anticipated given that they had to survive in the society where English is spoken as the first language. These findings are predictable considering the background of the participants, their future professional aspirations, and the context in which they were situated then. Nevertheless, the study offers interesting insights about the perceptions of participants as to the ways in which they perceived English as a threat to cultural and linguistic identities, how they thought the abundance of lexical items and euphonic sound system made the language beautiful, and how at the same time, English restricted them from expressing their feelings genuinely. From these vantage points, the present study adds new perspectives to the

existing literature about the sociolinguistic and sociocultural patterns of perceptions that may shape the attitudes of learners toward the English language.

Conclusion

This was an in-depth exploratory study that examined the attitudes of eight Turkish students toward the English language as they attended a university in the U.S. Findings describe the patterns of attitudinal dispositions shared among the participants based on sociolinguistic and sociocultural considerations. The positive attitudes participants demonstrated also cohere with their success in learning the language, as the majority considered themselves “successful” learners of English. It is possible that their positive attitudes toward English might have provided them with the motivation and orientation to learn and master the language. As the research suggests, when learners develop positive attitudes toward a language, their language skills become less prone to attrition, which, at the same time, makes it less likely for them to lose their overall language proficiency, unless they continue to use it (Gardner, Lalonde & MacPherson, 1985).

The study contributes to the limited body of research that focuses on the attitudinal dispositions of Turkish speakers toward the English language as well as the attitudes of students toward learning and speaking English. Future research can expand this study to include students in Turkey in order to make comparative analyses of language attitudes between the U.S. and Turkish contexts. This will be an important piece of research in illuminating the ways in which the perceptions of students in Turkey about English differ from those who are learning and using it in a foreign context. The present study was qualitative, exploratory, and descriptive in nature. A similar but quantitative study with a more narrowed focus can investigate the links between language attitudes of students and their attainment levels. This will shed light on the intricacies of language attitudes in relation to language proficiency, and how these two constructs influence each other. Lastly, research can also examine the relationship between students’ motivation to learn a language and their language attitudes. This will help understand how attitudes developed toward a language impact learners’ motivation to learn the language, or how being motivated or demotivated to learn a language shapes the attitudes of learners toward that language.

At the pedagogical level, empirical knowledge garnered through these future studies will be useful to draw conclusions and suggest implications for language teaching. At the

same time, it will help educators understand how language teachers can support the development of positive attitudes toward a language and learning of that language. Eventually, robust empirical evidence in these areas will lend impetus to thinking about the practical ways in which second or foreign language learning processes can be scaffolded and enhanced through manifestations of students' attitudinal dispositions toward the target language.

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Öğrencilerin İngilizce Diline Yönelik Tutumsal Eğilimleri: Toplumdilbilimsel ve Sosyokültürel Değerlendirmeler

Öz

Problem Beyanı: Bir dilin statüsü, değeri, ve önemi çoğunlukla o dile yönelik tutumlar ile ölçülür. İkinci veya yabancı bir dil öğrenmek ve bu dilde yeterlilik kazanmak öğrencilerin o dile yönelik tutumları ile yakından ilgilidir. Türkiye’de yaşayan ve ana dili Türkçe olan öğrencilerin İngilizce diline yönelik tutumları literatürdeki bir kaç çalışma içerisinde incelenmiştir. Fakat aynı konu İngilizceyi bu dilin ilk dil olarak konuşulduğu bir ülkede öğrenen ve kullanan Türk öğrencileri arasında incelenmemiştir.

Amaç: Bu keşifsel çalışma Amerika’nın kuzeydoğu bölgesindeki bir şehirde yaşayıp burada üniversite eğitimi gören Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce dilini öğrenme ve kullanmaya yönelik olan tutumlarını incelemiştir. Çalışma, öğrencilerin İngilizceye yönelik tutumsal eğilimlerini toplumdilbilimsel ve sosyokültürel açılardan değerlendirmiştir.

Yöntem: Bu çalışma Türkiye’de doğup Türkçe’yi ana dilleri olarak konuşan 8 öğrenci katılımcı (4 erkek ve 4 bayan) ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcılar bir eyalet üniversitesinde öğrenci olup Mühendislik Bilimleri ve Sosyal Bilimler alanlarında farklı programlarda tahsil görmekteydiler. Araştırma verileri, öğrencilerle iki aylık bir süreyi kapsayan zaman dilimi içerisinde derinlemesine yapılan röportajlar ile toplandı. Katılımcılarla birseyssel olarak iki kez röportaj yapıldı. Toplamda on altı röportaj gerçekleştirildi. Her bir röportaj 50 ila 60 dakika sürüp araştırmacı tarafından ses kaydından yazıya çevrildi. Veri analizi iki aşamada gerçekleştirildi: (1) Röportajların yazıya çevrilmiş hali yoğun bir şekilde tekrar tekrar okunup yorumlanarak verilerde ortaya çıkan temalar ve tutum motifleri kodlandı; ve (2) eksenel kodlama yöntemi ile temalar ve tutum motifleri arasındaki tutarlılık nitel bağlantılarla belirlendi. Kodlanan veriler betimleyici bir yöntemle kendi bütünlüğü içerisinde yorumlandı.

Bulgular: Katılımcılar çoğunlukla İngilizce dilini öğrenme ve kullanmaya yönelik olumlu eğilimler sergilediler; ancak, tutumsal davranış motifleri toplumdilbilimsel ve sosyokültürel değerlendirmeler ışığında farklılıklar gösterdi. Katılımcılar İngilizceyi “güzel” bir dil olarak tanımlarken, dile yönelik güzellik algıları İngilizcenin dilbilimsel ve toplumdilbilimsel yönlerine göre, kulağa hoş gelen bir ses sistemi, kelimesel zenginliği, ve farklı ortamlarda (akademi, medya, kurumsal iş alanları gibi) dünya çapında bağlantı sağlayan bir dil olması

gibi farklı yorumlamalar ile bağdaştı. Öte yandan, katılımcılar İngilizceyi bireysel ve toplumsal seviyelerde kültürel ve dilsel kimliklere karşı bir tehdit unsuru olarak gördü. Ana dile İngilizceye göre daha az değer verilmesi ve son zamanlarda ortaya çıkan İngilizce kelimelerin Türkçeye'ye girmesi gibi konular katılımcıların ana dillerine yönelik vatansever duygularını tetikleyerek, kültürleri ve dilsel kimliklerine olan milliyetçi bağlarını ortaya çıkardı. Son olarak, katılımcılar İngilizce diline bir çok işlevsel ve yaşamsal değerler yüklediler. Katılımcılar, ana dili İngilizce olan insanlar ile kişisel ve duygusal konuşma ortamlarına girdikleri koşullarda, duygularını İngilizce ifade etmekte kısıtlanmış hissettiklerini belirttiler. Katılımcıların tutumları, ve bu tutumları sergilerken gösterdikleri davranış motifleri, cinsiyetler arasında önemli derecede farklılık gösterdi.

Sonuçlar ve Öneriler: Türkiye'de İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin tutumlarını inceleyen bir kaç çalışmadan farklı olarak, bu araştırma konuyu Amerika'da İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin perspektifi dahilinde inceleyip bu doğrultuda yeni kavrayışlar öne sürmektedir. Tutumsal çalışmalar dile yönelik tutum ve algıların, öğrencilerin o dili öğrenmesi ve dilde yeterlilik geliştirme isteklerini nasıl etkileyebileceği gibi konulara ışık tutup, öğrencilerin dile yönelik kritik duruşlarını toplumdilbilimsel ve sosyokültürel değerlendirmeler neticesinde ortaya çıkarabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dil tutumları, Dil algıları, Toplumdilbilim, Sosyokültürel, İngilizce dili, Türkçe, Yabancı öğrenciler

**Perceptions of Pre-service Teachers of English towards Grammar Teaching in the
Turkish Context**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: ESL/EFL grammar teaching has been a controversial issue due to the contextual differences. Therefore, there is a growing need to explore how English teachers perceive and practise grammar teaching in a variety of contexts. Research studies into this issue can provide them with context-sensitive perspectives.

Purpose of Study: This study aimed to investigate the perceptions and classroom practices of Turkish pre-service teachers of English employing a quantitative research design.

Methods: In this study, which employs a quantitative research design, the questionnaire adapted from a recently conducted study was distributed to 39 female and 5 male senior students at the Department of English Language Teaching at an English-medium state university in Turkey. They were all enrolled in the course *Practice Teaching*. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.

Findings and Results: The student-teachers favored benefiting from not only form-focused instruction and but also holistic, meaning-based approaches. They assumed an active role in the teaching process as informed decision-makers sensitized to cultural and individual variables in their contexts within which their perceptions were shaped. Instructional

challenges were the establishment of form-meaning mappings, informed use of authentic texts, contextualization, target language use, and skills integration.

Conclusions and Recommendations: Classroom experience has helped student-teachers internalize the need for a balanced approach to grammar. Practice teaching course hours should be increased to proceduralize the skills of context-sensitive adjustments.

Keywords: perceptions towards grammar teaching, beliefs, pre-service teachers of English, context, explicit/implicit grammar instruction

Introduction

Grammar instruction still remains a popular field of investigation in empirical and practical terms in the field of second/foreign language (L2/FL) learning in the face of the ever-changing prevalence of different language teaching methodologies. Although the degree of attention and prominence attached to it has altered at different points in the history of L2 teaching, it has continued to play a pivotal role in moulding different orientations to L2 pedagogy. Regardless of its controversial status from certain perspectives of second language acquisition (SLA) and English Language Teaching (ELT), it is now widely acknowledged that some formal, conscious attention to form promotes language learning, as suggested by Burgess and Etherington (2002) and Borg and Burns (2008).

Accordingly, the notion of integration, i.e., the integration of focus on form and the focus on meaning, is, in fact, considered an important thread in the teaching of grammar in the Turkish context as well as it is elsewhere. The last three decades has witnessed the emergence of a variety of methodological frameworks (see Borg and Burns, 2008) for L2 practitioners to address the issue of grammar instruction from a broad perspective including linguistic, contextual and communicational dimensions (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2006).

With regard to the integration models for grammar teaching, Ellis (2006, p. 100) proposes three different options, which overlap with those of Doughty and Williams (1998) to a great extent. The first one is *focus on forms*, described as a structuralist, synthetic approach to language with an isolated focus on the language forms at the expense of the meanings to be conveyed (Burgess and Etherington, 2002). The second one is *planned*

focus on form, “where a focused task is required to elicit occasions for using a predetermined grammatical structure” (Ellis, 2006). It is considered to provide L2 learners with “cognitive processing support” through an overriding focus on meaning or communication as learners’ attention is drawn to a particular linguistic feature in a communicative situation (Burgess and Etherington, 2002, p. 434). The third one, *incidental focus on form*, can be defined as the “unplanned attention to form in the context of communicative work” (Borg and Burns, 2008, p. 457).

Despite the proliferation of pedagogical models for grammar instruction, the implementation of the methodological procedures in the classroom is yet to be investigated (Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen, 2002). To illustrate, isolated (as opposed to integrated) grammar activities may have a beneficial impact on the interlanguage development of students sharing the same L1, whereas the integration of grammar may assist fluency and automaticity development (Ellis et al., 2002). In fact, both options are considered as beneficial by students and teachers (Spada and Lightbrown, 2008). The choice for any option is not an exclusive either/or choice and depends on the context (Borg, 2001).

In his argument on the available pedagogical options for grammar instruction, Borg (2001) points out that teachers’ pedagogical choices are, to a great extent, context-sensitive in that they are not fixed, but subject to change in accordance with certain variables. These variables are the student profile, the students’ background, previous learning experiences and learning styles, the syllabus demands, time constraints, administrative concerns, the teachers’ pedagogical preferences, and the institutional culture. Additionally, he emphasizes that teachers tend to choose to operate within a continuum of pedagogical options (implicit-explicit, inductive-deductive, sentence level-text level, controlled-free, accuracy-fluency, discrete-integrated), rather than favour polarization.

In the same way, Swan (2005, p. 376) warns against the unconstructive polarization of meaning and form-based instruction in the face of “the recurrent pattern of damaging ideological swings in language theory and practice”. He states that “excessive reliance on one or other kind of approach can only lead teachers to unproductive extremes” suggesting that it is better to draw on all the available resources and techniques rather than limiting oneself to one type of activity. Likewise, Lightbrown (2000) cautions against bandwagonism, frequent paradigm shifts, and application of new methods to the classroom

without any critical professional scrutiny or any reference to all the accumulated professional wisdom of teachers.

A recent comment from a seasoned practitioner and materials writer, Azar (2007), in relation to pedagogical choices at the disposal of the grammar teacher, resonates with both Borg (2001) and Swan (2005), asserting doing both options relatively close to the ends of the curriculum. Despite the multiplicity of methodological frameworks and pedagogical options to account for the relation between grammar teaching and communicative work, the field of SLA lacks consensus as to the degree and direction of the grammar to accomplish effective language learning (Borg & Burns, 2008).

There is a theoretical disagreement on which types of form-focused instruction are most effective in language learning (focus on forms, planned focus on form, and incidental focus on form). However, still one point agreed on is the need “to ensure that learners are able to connect grammatical forms to the meanings they realise in communication” (Ellis, 2006, p. 101). As Ellis (2006) pointed out, the salience of descriptive grammar is a target in grammar teaching, with an emphasis on the form and meaning relations and the treatment of the linguistic form along with the semantic and discursal meaning. He validates use of a focus-on-forms approach “as long as it includes an opportunity for learners to practise behaviour in communicative tasks” (Ellis, 2006, p. 102).

Grammar learning entails the establishment of form-meaning connections as a fundamental aspect of L2 acquisition (Ellis, et al. 2002; Ellis, 2006; VanPatten, Williams, and Rott, 2004). In the same vein, the goal of grammar teaching involves helping learners create new form-meaning mapping(s) and integrate them into the already existing repertoire of the form-meaning system (Batstone & Ellis, 2009, p. 194). In this respect, it should be kept in mind that just as one form may encode one meaning or multiple meanings, one meaning may be encoded by multiple forms (VanPatten, Williams, and Rott, 2004).

As for the contribution of practice to implicit grammatical knowledge, Ellis (2002) maintains that grammar teaching has a delayed effect and an indirect role in converting explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge through extensive communicative practice. Hedge (2000) argues that through engagement in frequent practice opportunities of a specific form, learners can notice the form relatively easily. Through extensive exposure, varied and intensive practice opportunities, learners can test their hypotheses and develop

familiarity with available forms and begin to discover the rules. Also, through practice, learners may enrich their explicit knowledge about language forms, gradually developing the ability to utilize the rule accurately and automatically in production. Underlining the contribution, in an indirect way, of explicit grammar rules to second language acquisition, Scheffler and Cinciata (2011, p. 22) conclude their study, stating that “language teachers should invest some classroom time in explicit grammar instruction”. Spada and Lightbown’s (2008) conclusion overlaps the findings of Scheffler and Cinciata (2011, p. 22), underlining the benefit of form-focused instruction for language features that may be hard to acquire without guidance. Walter (2012) summarizes what the “rigorously conducted meta-analyses of a wide range of studies have shown” succinctly: “within a generally communicative approach, explicit teaching of grammar rules leads to better learning and to unconscious knowledge, and this knowledge lasts over time” (p.4). She makes her point very clear, indicating that the explicit teaching of grammar is more effective than the implicit or not teaching at all, an argument for a preplanned focus on grammar. In Bax’s (2003) opinion, context matters considerably, which is in line with Walter’s (2012) distinction between ESL and low exposure or input-poor EFL settings, the latter constituting the majority of the English language learning contexts all over the world.

Considering a great range of options at L2/EFL teachers’ disposal in the grammar class, it is of utmost importance that the opinions and experiences of teachers themselves not be ignored. The available knowledge about how teachers transform their technical knowledge about the teaching of grammar is relatively scarce, a point stressed by Ellis (1998). With the emergence of the „Post-method condition“, it has become all the more evident that the choices the teachers make focusing their own „unique“ contexts have a crucial impact on the relevance of their teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Arıkan, 2006; Burgess and Etherington, 2002). It is interesting to note that in different teaching contexts, teachers’ instructional approaches may vary significantly. For instance, Burgess and Etherington (2002) revealed that teachers of English for academic purposes (EAP) in UK universities reported favourable attitudes towards formal instruction. They expressed their firm conviction on the validity of the role conscious knowledge of grammar plays in the development of the EAP students’ proficiency. They also highlighted students’ expectations to have explicit presentation of grammar points. The study also pointed out the

teachers' inclination towards an integrated, focus-on-form approach to teaching grammar, involving a reactive focus. On the other hand, Saraç (as cited in Alptekin & Tatar, 2011), in his study on Turkish instructors' attitudes towards grammar teaching, reported teachers' dissatisfaction with an excessive focus on explicit grammar instruction, the interview data revealing participants' deployment of pedagogical techniques geared towards "the activation of functional and contextual elements in teaching grammar" (e.g., discovery learning) (p. 337).

There is a good deal of evidence that teachers derive their personal theories from their own teaching experiences, their understandings of their own teaching contexts and their training courses (Borg and Burns, 2008). According to Ur (2012, p. 4) "the main source of professional learning is classroom experience. What can enrich it is appropriate conclusions drawn from the critical assessment of research, the supplemental value of which can not be replaced with discussion with colleagues, student feedback, handbooks, or practical journals, which are themselves enriching sources as well. However, she emphasizes that researchers possess relatively little amount of classroom teaching experience.

Teachers' practices are reported to be affected by "their beliefs about learners' affective involvement, (the learner profile), background knowledge, conceptions of language use and usage, and teacher role as guide and manager" (Burns, as cited in Baleghizadeh and Farschi, 2009, p. 31). As indicated by many studies, teachers engage in a complicated process of instructional decision making, shaped by a variety of interacting factors in and out of class (Bailey, 1996; Burns, 1996; Borg, 1999). Individual teachers' decisions are the consequence of multifarious interacting sources of knowledge. Declarative knowledge about language (i.e, subject matter knowledge) is one of these; teachers also draw on "their own knowledge of the immediate classroom environment, the knowledge of instructional techniques, their knowledge of learners, and knowledge about teaching and learning derived from prior experience" (Borg, 2003, p. 105). Consequently, the beliefs and attitudes, i.e., teacher cognition, which affect teachers' classroom decisions concerning how to teach grammar, are important areas of study (Andrews, 2003; Burgess and Etherington, 2002; Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers, 1997; Schulz, 1996, 2001). However, unlike a multitude of studies into the perceptions of instructors towards grammar

teaching in the ESL context, the number of studies in this regard in the Turkish EFL context is relatively scarce (See the above-mentioned study by Saraç, as cited in Alptekin and Tatar, 2011). Considering the lack of research studies related to grammar teaching in the Turkish context, this study aims to contribute to the relevant literature by exploring a group of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions concerning grammar instruction.

The study set out to investigate the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of the 4th year Turkish pre-service teachers of EFL in the course of grammar instruction during the practicum period?
2. What are the affective concerns of the 4th year Turkish pre-service teachers of EFL concerning grammar instruction?
3. What are the prior experiences of 4th year Turkish pre-service teachers of EFL as to grammar learning?
4. What are the challenges of the 4th year Turkish pre-service teachers of EFL in teaching grammar?

Method

Participants and Settings

Forty-five Turkish pre-service teachers of English with an age range of 20 to 25, with the mean being 2.02, participated in the study. All the participants (39 females and 5 males) were senior students at the Department of English Language Teaching (ELT) at an English-medium state university in Turkey. They were all enrolled in the course *Practice Teaching* then, which was offered to the fourth-year students at the department in the spring semester of the academic year 2010-2011, when the study was carried out. As part of the course requirements, the participants were assigned a mentor teacher in pairs or groups at the practice teaching schools, where they were involved in the instructional activities 6 hours a week. Apart from the field work, they were also supposed to attend the contact hours at the university, which served as academic sharing or discussion sessions related to different aspects of EFL teaching or interactive input sessions. In these, the instructor discussed the recent trends in ELT with the whole class or imparted information on certain problematic aspects of teaching English, particularly those that posed difficulties for trainee teachers in the course of instruction. All the practice teaching schools were state schools based in Ankara, the capital of Turkey. Some of the participants were allocated to primary

and secondary schools whereas others were sent to high schools. They were all pre-service teachers of EFL, with little or no experience in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) apart from the practicum experience in the fall semester. The course *Practice Teaching* entailed classroom observations, three teaching tasks of 40-/50-minute classes, and one assessed teaching session at the designated practice teaching schools. All the teaching tasks were evaluated jointly by the mentor teacher and the course instructor (also the researcher). All the participants took the course *School Experience*, in the fall semester prior to their engagement in the study. As to the assessment of the teaching tasks in this course, all the teaching tasks were evaluated jointly, just as in the course *Practice Teaching*. All the student performances in teaching tasks in the course, including the assessed teaching sessions, were video-taped.

Research Design

This descriptive study adopts a quantitative research design to provide an account of the perceptions of the Turkish pre-service teachers of EFL concerning grammar instruction, their affective concerns related to grammar teaching, the challenges faced in the instructional process, and their prior grammar learning experiences. The data were collected over a period of 14 weeks. Data sources include a questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale.

For the data collection purposes, a questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-scale (strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, not sure/undecided = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5), consisting of 54 items in Turkish, was used to collect the quantitative data in the study. Besides, four open-ended items were added to the questionnaire, which constitute the qualitative data in the study, together with the semi-structured interviews with randomly-selected participants. The quantitative items in the questionnaire were analyzed in four main subscales.

Regarding the item breakdown in the questionnaire, items 1, 2, 3, 6, 14, 29, and 44 investigated the pre-service teachers' affective concerns related to teaching grammar, while items 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 39, 40, 41, 42, 50, 47, 48, and 49 explored their perceptions of teaching grammar. The challenges of the pre-service teachers in teaching grammar were investigated via items 23, 28, 30, 31, 32, 34,

35, 36, 37, and 38. The items about their previous grammar learning experiences were as follows: 51, 52, and 54.

The internal consistency reliability figure (the Cronbach Alpha coefficient) for the questionnaire was calculated to be .71. This might be considered justifiable given that the questionnaire consisted of items exploring many different areas (Dörnyei, 2007). The questionnaire was designed in Turkish, based on an adaptation of the survey developed by Burgess and Etherington (2002) to avoid misunderstandings on the part of the pre-service teachers due to the grammar terminology and to obtain more reliable data. The researcher obtained expert opinion on the questionnaire items from a group of colleagues at the university before doing a pilot study on a small scale. After the pilot study, the items which were reported to be confusing or misleading were modified before it was administered to the pre-service teachers in the study. As regards the analysis of the quantitative data in the study, the close-ended items on the questionnaire, the SPSS 18 was used to calculate the descriptive statistics (i.e., the means, standard deviations and the percentages).

Results

In this section the results of the quantitative data analysis are displayed. The descriptive statistics for the EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions concerning grammar instruction are provided in the Appendix. The results of the quantitative analysis is reported in four parts. These are the pre-service teachers' affective concerns related to teaching grammar, their perceptions of teaching grammar, their challenges in teaching grammar, and their prior grammar learning experiences.

Pre-service Teachers' Affective Concerns Related to Teaching Grammar

As regards the pre-service teachers' affective concerns about teaching grammar, it can be deduced from the responses that they considered grammar teaching a somewhat anxiety-inducing process. In fact, almost one half of them (40%) reported that teaching grammar in the classroom caused disquiet for them (item 1, 2.96), while the other half indicated it did not cause any anxiety on their part. A little over 60% of the pre-service teachers reported having a fear of making mistakes (item 2, 3.42). In relation to responding to unpredictable questions from students while teaching grammar (item 3), nearly half of them (46.7% - 3.27) pointed out their insecurity as the majority (62.2%) did not consider

themselves an authority figure in grammar instruction (item 44, 3.42). This finding is not considered surprising as the majority of the participants in the study did not have any or had little classroom experience, particularly in the field of grammar teaching. This renders it hard for them to translate their declarative knowledge into the procedural one in the classroom context. In relation to the pre-service teachers' confidence in handling students' unexpected grammar questions in class, the pre-service teachers might be having a hard time expressing the complicated structural aspects of the English language in detail. They were offered the courses that aim to enhance their proficiency level (eg. grammar courses), only in their freshman year for two semesters, which may account for the participants' relative lack of confidence in their own linguistic competence.

The number of those who liked or enjoyed teaching grammar was not many, that is 13 participants constituting almost less than one-third (28.8%) of the sample (item 29, 2.82), which was another reflection of their affective concerns. Likewise, nearly half of the participants (46.7%) reported grammar teaching to be boring (item 6, 3.07). On the other hand, half of the participants (51.1%) asserted that they did not have difficulty teaching grammar, as opposed to a little over one third of the sample (35.6%) who found it hard (item 14, 2.91). It seemed that the pre-service teachers in the study held different opinions about grammar teaching. The majority were in consensus on the point that the idea of teaching grammar instilled anxiety, insecurity and lack of confidence while the minority described grammar teaching as an enjoyable process. Although they associated grammar teaching with negative feelings, there were some who found it an exciting and enjoyable experience.

Pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching grammar. The participants' responses to the items regarding their perceptions of teaching grammar revealed that their methodological preferences were diverse but complementary to one another. As to the pre-service teachers' instructional options for grammar teaching, the majority of the participants (item 4) indicated their preferences towards inductive teaching over deductive teaching. Most of them (34 preservice teachers – 75.6%) definitely did not prefer deductive teaching (item 4, 2.04). However, over one-third (35%) of the sample indicated that the students at practice teaching schools mainly preferred to be taught grammar deductively. In fact the two-fifths of all the participants expressed mixed feelings about the students'

preferences (item 9). For over one-third (16 – 35.6%) of the sample, not many students asked them to give rules and shift to exercises (item 7, 3.18). It can be said that the students' preferences might have reflected those of the mentor teachers.

It can be said that preservice teachers' preferences might have reflected those of their mentor teachers' method of delivery in grammar as they were accustomed to learning grammar by the same teachers in a certain manner. When they were asked if the mentor teacher asked for an explicit presentation of the rules of the grammar topic (item 5), the pre-service teachers' responses varied in line with their mentor teachers' preferences. Nearly one half (42.2%) revealed that their mentor teachers were disposed to deductive teaching whereas the other half (46.7%) were in favour of the inductive. It appears that the mentor teachers opted for different instructional choices (i.e., inductive, deductive or both) when it comes to teaching grammar. As to the pre-service teachers' preferences, the majority (80%) reported applying discovery learning techniques, which guides students to discover the rules themselves (item 8, 4.02). However, they were not in full agreement on whether teaching grammar without a provision of grammar rules, by using discovery learning techniques exclusively, might make students feel insecure about what they learnt. , with 40% of agreement as opposed to another 40% who disagreed and one-fifth expressing their uncertainty about the issue (item 25, 3.09). Over one-third of the participants were of the opinion that indirect grammar teaching might lead the students to be unsure or even dissatisfied about their grammar knowledge (item 26, 3.09). The rate of those who thought students preferred sentence-based examples was a little below half of the sample (44.4%) while the rate of the undecided was the same as well (item 9, 3.38). On the other hand, with respect to their language choice in teaching grammar (item 10), a consensus was observed among the pre-service teachers that English should be the medium of instruction in grammar teaching (80%).

Nearly one-half of the pre-service teachers in the study (42.2%) stated that their mentor teachers also thought in the same lines concerning the language choice in grammar instruction whereas a little above one-fourth (26.7 %) indicated that their mentors insisted on their making grammar explanations in Turkish (Item 11: 2.82). It was interesting to note that one-third of the participants were undecided about their mentor teachers' ideas in this respect. Some pre-service teachers revealed that the mentor teachers asked them to offer

students Turkish explanations when they were doing a grammar point which has a complicated form-meaning relationships such as conditional sentences. The trainees showed that their mentor teachers advised them to use Turkish to facilitate student learning when they were dealing with topics that students might find challenging. As to the pre-service teachers' perceptions of the students' preferences concerning the language choice, the former claimed that nearly 65% of the students were in favour of Turkish explanations (item 19, 3.76). This does not seem surprising, considering the students' educational background and previous language learning experiences.

As to their preferred style of presentation, more than 90% of the pre-service teachers indicated their tendency to present new grammar topics in context (item 13, 4.40), and the integration of grammar activities into other skills (item 13, 4.40). It is not that most of their students want to discover the relation between structure and meaning by themselves, actually the opposite, they apparently need their help (item 15, 2.71). As for their preferences to integrate communicative activities into grammar instruction, those preservice teachers preferring to integrate pair-work or group-work and other communicative activities into grammar classes constituted nearly one-fourth of the participants (26.7%), as opposed to 40% doing the opposite (item 16, 3.69). It was interesting to point out that one-third of the participants were undecided on this issue. Although these results seemed contradictory with the pre-service teachers' tendency towards inductive teaching at first sight, it could be understandable, taking into consideration that they felt a pressing need to organize their teaching in accordance with the external factors such as time limitation and syllabus demands. Also, although there was no obligation, the pre-service teachers felt obliged to follow their mentor teachers' method of teaching even though it was not always in line with their own. Some trainees even reported having several clashes with their mentor teachers due to the latter's adherence to the inductive teaching techniques. Nevertheless, they indicated some reluctance to introduce new grammar points their own way, mostly in an inductive fashion, as they were not very familiar with the learner profile and the students might have difficulty learning the grammar points through a method which they might not be used to.

Unlike their reservations about the integration of communicative activities in grammar lessons, 60% of the pre-service teachers reported that their students found pair or

group work activities helpful while those disagreeing were nearly 20% and the undecided a little over 20% (item 48, 3.33). In the interviews, the pre-service teachers pointed out that students saw the integration of communicative activities into grammar lessons a novelty which they enjoyed a lot. As the students were used to receiving grammar instruction in a deductive manner in the mainstream Turkish education system, they viewed such activities as interesting and a break from the routine.

As to the grammar revision techniques, an overwhelming majority of the pre-service teachers (95.6%) reported that they preferred to consolidate, reinforce the grammar points through worksheets (item 17, 4.40). More than ninety percent of the sample (93.3%) agree that the worksheet use is a beneficial pedagogical practice in terms of providing students with practice opportunities (item 40, 4.35). As to their perceptions of the students' benefits of the worksheet use, there is almost a consensus (88.9%) on reported students' favourable views in this respect (item 49, 4.22).

Concerning the participants' perceptions of the use of meta-language (item 27, 3.09), more than half of the participants (55.6%) reported unfavourable views while less than one-third (28.9%) supported its use (item 18, 3.44). The number of those undecided on this issue was noticeable. As for their views on what students might think on the same issue, those who had reservations about the benefits of metalanguage use (44%) outnumbered those who agreed on its usefulness (28.8%) and those who found it unhelpful (28.8%).

Regarding the variations in pre-service teachers' preferences of the grammar teaching approaches, more than 70% agreed on the view that approaches used in grammar teaching should present differences depending on the level acquired in the target language by the student (item 39, 3.80). Quite a large number of pre-service teachers were in total agreement that students should be equipped with grammar knowledge to function efficiently in communicative contexts in the target language (item 40, 3.53). However, the level of agreement (item 50, 2.20) was observed to decrease to nearly 50% as far as the necessity of a theoretical, rule-based background in grammar for effective communication is concerned.

With respect to the need for the explicit presentation of the rules followed by exercises found a negative response from more than half of our sample, the rate of those

agreeing constituting almost one-fourth (item 4, 2.71). The responses to this item was quite congruent with the responses (those) to item 8, which is concerned with the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards inductive teaching, indicating a general tendency towards inductive teaching. More than ninety percent of the preservice teachers stated that the teacher should play the role of a guide (item 42, 4.00). Little over 70% of our sample stated that students see them as a figure of authority in teaching grammar (item 43, 3.60). It was a view shared by not all but still more than two thirds of the preservice teachers, who thought likewise, whereas those who were not of the same opinion constituted one-third (item 44, 3.42). Speaking of disagreement, the grammar teaching styles of more than two-thirds of our sample did not overlap with those of their mentor teachers (item 45, 2.16). According to more than 90% of our sample, incidental teaching (teaching grammar in indirect ways) should also have its place in order to develop their students' language skills (item 46, 4.11).

As regards perceptions about grammar instruction, more than half of the pre-service teachers (57%) did not believe that grammar must be an aim in language teaching (item 20, 2.64). On the contrary, an overwhelming majority (nearly 90%) reported that according to their observations, their mentor teachers consider grammar teaching as an aim (item 21, 4.02). With respect to the importance of form-meaning relationships in teaching grammar, 80% of our sample considered it important to explain the connection between form and meaning (item 22, 3.93) with only four percent disagreeing.

Concerning their perceptions of the employment of authentic texts in grammar instruction, over one-third of the participants (40%) reported that they opted for authentic texts for grammar instruction while nearly one-fifth indicated that authentic texts were not their preference in grammar teaching (item 24, 3.80). Despite the students' favourable attitudes towards the authentic text use, as reported by the participants, about one half of the latter were not sure about its benefits (item 33, 2.62).

Pre-service teachers' prior grammar learning experiences

As far as the participants' prior grammar learning experiences are concerned, more than 90% of the sample pointed out that their English teachers often preferred a rule-based (deductive) teaching (item 51, 4.22). Slightly over 70% considered the English grammar courses taken prior to the university to be beneficial, the rates of the undecided and the disagreeing more or less equally sharing the rest of the percentage (item 52, 3.77). As to the

views on level of satisfaction with their current grammar teaching method, a little over three-fourths of the sample were of the opinion that the method they employed was a beneficial one

(item 53, 3.82), with only four of them dissatisfied.

Pre-service Teachers' Challenges Concerning Grammar Teaching

As the participants' responses to the questionnaire items indicate, the most challenging aspects of grammar teaching for pre-service teachers were finding understandable examples closely aligned with the students' level of proficiency, the use of authentic materials, the activity design based on authentic materials, and error correction practices. However, some difficulties were more challenging while others less so. As regards finding examples suitable to the students' level of proficiency, it was only almost two-thirds of the participants (57.7 %) who did not consider it challenging to find examples that their students could understand whereas less than one-fifth expressed the difficulty they had in this respect (item 23, 2.60). Regarding the authentic material use, the majority of the participants pointed out their preference for the integration of authentic texts into grammar lessons. However, they expressed their reservations in using them in grammar instruction due to the complicated syntactic features, the cultural elements pertinent to the target culture, and the vocabulary load they contain. According to almost half of them (48.9 %), their students had difficulty with authentic texts since these texts contained several grammatical structures whereas one-third (33.3%) disagreed on that (item 28, 3.22). The rate of those who agreed on the cultural elements as a source of their difficulty with authentic texts was almost the same as the rate of those who disagreed, with the former almost five percent more than the latter who constituted 37.7% (item 30, 3.07). Those stating that the heavy lexical load of the authentic texts challenged students to a great extent formed over half of the participants (53.3%) despite one-third who did not consider the lexis a big obstacle for students. (item 31, 3.24). In fact, the majority of the pre-service teachers were of the opinion that vocabulary load posed a greater challenge for students than the cultural elements interwoven into the authentic texts. More than 50% of the pre-service teachers displayed some uncertainty as regards students' need for the teacher guidance in understanding, analyzing and internalizing the form-meaning relations when authentic texts are used in grammar teaching (item 32, 3.51). However, in their opinion

(42.2%), their students saw the use of authentic texts as a useful pedagogical practice. As to the creative activity design based on authentic materials, the majority of the participants considered it difficult to use authentic texts in producing activities which suit the levels of their students. More than 60% indicated that they found it hard to create tasks and activities in line with the student proficiency level while nearly 20% did not mention any difficulties as such (item 31, 2.49).

With respect to the difficulties with error correction practices, more than 80% of the participants reported that they did not have difficulty dealing with error correction in a written communicative text. In contrast, over 60% stated having a hard time providing corrective feedback or errors in an oral communicative context (item 36, 2.53). The trainee teachers in the study described providing corrective feedback for students as a challenging experience for them.

In relation to their perceptions of the students' difficulty with self-correction practices in a communicative activity, while the pre-service teachers stating the presence of student difficulty constituted 40%, the number of the undecided were almost the same (35.6%) causing the mean to be 3.13 for item 37. Pre-service teachers' opinions were divided regarding the students' responses to the application of problem-solving techniques in grammar instruction (item 38, 2.66). The rate of disagreement is the same as that of agreement (fourty percent) in item 38, which investigated the students' level of satisfaction with the application of problem-solving techniques in grammar instruction (2.66). The pre-service teachers' responses to this item echoes those to item 15, which was concerned with the teachers' perceptions of the students' willingness to discover the form and meaning relations in learning grammar.

As can be seen from the quantitative analysis results, the highest mean in the questionnaire belongs to a balance of approaches/methods/techniques. Most of the participants favored a balanced approach towards grammar teaching, welcoming both the discovery-based learning and a rule-based learning style (item 53, 4.27). On the other hand, the means within the 3.00 – 3.50 range underlined the variability across the unique contexts of classroom of each preservice teacher. Those equal to or over 4 demonstrated common points, which can be more easily generalised.

Discussion

The discussion in this paper will focus on the findings from the three main perspectives as regards EFL grammar instruction in the Turkish context. The first perspective is concerned with the Turkish pre-service teachers' perceptions of the EFL grammar instruction with an emphasis on the affective concerns. The second perspective is related to the impact of their prior grammar learning experiences on their instructional decisions on teaching grammar. The final one is in connection with the challenges of the pre-service teachers in the course of grammar instruction.

In relation to the first issue, the study contributes to the existing research in the field of ELT (English Language Teaching). The findings from the literature suggest that teachers of adolescents and adults in the EFL/ESL context tend to display a favourable disposition towards some form of explicit grammar work (Schulz, 1996; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Borg & Burns, 2008, Baleghizadeh & Farschi, 2009; Burgess & Etherington, 2002). However, this is not to imply a tendency towards the direct instruction of grammar due to the number of many pre-service teachers who advocated a balanced treatment of inductive and deductive approaches (Andrews, 2003). Despite their strong preferences towards inductive, implicit, problem-solving activities, the teachers in the study also expressed their acknowledgement of the positive impact of grammar practice on developing communicative ability, particularly on the development of learners' fluency, as pointed out in Schulz (2001). In a nutshell, the approach to grammar instruction adopted by the participants of this study was an eclectic one. The inductive presentation of new grammar structures in a meaningful context initially to encourage learners to discover the rules is followed by a focus on form, usually accompanied by some explicit form-related explanations in L2 or sometimes in L1, with contextualized, communicative practice of the target structure. Such an eclectic approach is supported by Richards and Rodgers (2001), emphasizing the context-dependent nature of language instruction in the post-method era observed that "choice of teaching method cannot therefore be determined in isolation from other planning and implementation practices" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 244-245). The trainees indicated that skills-integrated work and contextualization are the sine qua non of grammar instruction in the EFL classroom. They were found to be extremely positive about the value of the integration of grammar and skills work, as indicated in Borg and

Burns (2008). It is interesting to note that in this study, the pre-service teachers, despite being novice with practically no teaching experience, displayed a high level of awareness towards the adoption of a holistic approach to grammar instruction, embracing both implicit and explicit teaching approaches, which reinforces some previous studies (e.g., Baleghizadeh and Farschi, 2009; Burgess and Etherington, 2002), but contradicting others such as Schulz (1996; 2001). All the same, for the interpretation of the findings of this study it is important to bear in mind that the sample in this study consisted of exclusively pre-service teachers at university whereas EAP teachers, experienced, or inexperienced, constituted the sample in the previous studies mentioned above.

The participants in the study did not seem to think highly of the metalanguage use in grammar instruction. In fact, the majority of the participants expressed their reservations about this issue, which is voiced in some studies such as Garrett (1986). The participants' concerns in this respect can be justifiable to a certain extent, considering its traditional link with formal grammar instruction and the negative connotation attached to its use in CLT-oriented L2 classrooms with the advent, rise and spread of communicative language teaching (Elder and Manwaring, 2004). However, in accordance with the findings of some recent studies which suggest that metalanguage may influence L2 proficiency indirectly through its relationship with metalinguistic knowledge (Ellis, 2005; Hu, 2011), the place of metalanguage in the L2 classrooms should be reconsidered. As a matter of fact, instead of discarding it as an extra cognitive burden for learners, teachers should recognize advantages for the L2 learners. In communicative classrooms, it is quite common "to have an explicit discussion of the structural and functional features of highly complex structure" (Hu, 2011: 181).

They should raise learners' awareness of the target structures or provide opportunities for them "to conform to or modify the rules they internalized as a result of their own hypothesis formation and testing the efficient delimitation of the contexts to which the generalization applies" (Hu, 2011, p. 181). The study revealed that the pre-service teachers had reservations concerning the employment of the learners' first language (L1) and saw them as an impediment to learning in that it may block the provision of comprehensible input in the L2. They displayed a lack of awareness on how to use L1 to maximize L2 learning. Use of L1 in EFL settings can be regarded as an integral part of "a

particular, practical, and possible pedagogy”, with a particular emphasis on the local setting to develop solutions to local problems (Kumaravadivelu, as cited in Copland and Neokleous, 2011, p. 280). Copland and Neokleous (2011) find the actual practice to be likewise despite a lip service paid to the contrary opinion, which are inculcated by non-local sources.

In fact, a questionnaire and interview study of teachers of English at a university in Turkey revealed that their position is a practical and pragmatic one that favors L1 use despite popular assumptions to the contrary (Kayaoğlu, 2012). It can be suggested that teacher education programs should clarify to the teacher candidates the identification of the L1 role. This involves how to assist learners to develop an appropriate L2 conceptualization, how to exploit L1 in L2 classrooms beneficially, the different functions for L1 use in the L2 classroom and the rationales for using L1 for functions (Mojica-Diaz and Sanchez-Lopez, 2010).

The study revealed a finding which might be considered unusual for the pre-service EFL teachers. The majority of the participants in the study displayed favourable attitudes towards the employment of authentic materials in the presentation of grammar, which they described as a challenging practice. There was dissonance between their favourable attitudes in this respect and their classroom practice, which also echoes Baleghizadeh and Farshchi’s (2009) study with the state school teachers. Although the participants generally stated that they were positive about the inclusion of authentic materials in grammar classes, they reported having difficulty dealing with the structural, lexical and cultural load in such texts. The pre-service teachers might be reminded to try the adapted materials for “a streamlined focus in class” when the use of authentic materials produced confusion for students or “digression” from the main teaching points. They should be indicated that both types of materials are “mutually supportive within a curriculum”; the use of one does not prevent the use of the other (Azar, 2007, p. 10).

The study disclosed the complicated mechanism underlying the teachers’ instructional decisions. All the institutional, pedagogical, and individual (teachers’ beliefs and their knowledge of instructional techniques, their knowledge of learners and knowledge about teaching and learning- derived from prior experience) factors might sometimes be in conflict with one another and might not be congruent with the classroom practices (Borg,

2003). To illustrate, the majority of the teachers in the study reported their confusion about the nature of their role as a grammar teacher; a guide or an authority? Owing to the pre-service teacher education program they were involved in and their previous ELT methodology courses, the pre-service teachers mainly associated their role with that of a guide/ facilitator. However, in the practice teaching school that they attended, they saw they were expected to play the role of a grammar authority, which they were unwilling to assume. Therefore, it seems necessary to ask the trainee teachers to articulate and reflect on their beliefs about teaching and their rationales behind their classroom practices. This way, they can gain valuable insights into their particular pedagogical options in grammar instruction, and the different kinds of roles they would like to assume as a prospective grammar teacher when teaching different levels and audience and to evaluate the effectiveness of their grammar lessons. In order to highlight the relationships between teacher cognition and practice in grammar teaching, one technique that can be feasible is “describing actual classroom practices and ground the analyses of teacher cognition in these practices“ (Borg, 2003, p. 105).

The study also depicted the challenges the pre-service teachers faced in the establishment and the reinforcement of the form-meaning relationships in ESL/EFL instruction. One recommendation to alleviate this difficulty might be the deployment of concept checking questions, those which aim to check learners’ understanding of form and meaning in a given context (Scrivener, 2011). Another might be to use a constructivist approach to help learners develop concept formation through L1 as the source of difficulty for adults with form-meaning connections is said to arise from mainly “the first language (L1) semantic and conceptual system (Mojica-Diaz and Sanchez-Lopez, 2010). With a view to improving the quality of grammar instruction in the EFL, the teacher educators need to raise pre-service teachers’ awareness on the following four issues underlying the grammatical explanations of four experienced ESL teachers and work with them on an individual basis if necessary. Shulman (as cited in Borg, 2003) reports issues as improving their “content knowledge (knowledge of the subject matter), pedagogical content knowledge (knowledge of the effective representation of subject matter to learners) and knowledge of learners”. As regards the above-mentioned elements, the participants in this study expressed their difficulty with the content knowledge and the knowledge of learners.

They reported that they had gaps in their own (declarative) knowledge about grammar. They indicated that as grammar is offered to only the freshman students at the department, they reported having forgotten some structural features, the form and meaning maps, exceptions to the rules and small nuances by the time they started doing their practicum. To illustrate what might serve as a refresher as well as a confidence booster for the pre-service teachers, some suggestions can be made. For instance, it might be beneficial to offer a contextual grammar course with a strong conceptual basis. Another contribution might be through incorporating “a discovery process that allows the learner to be actively involved in the process by forming and testing hypotheses concerning the function and meaning of grammatical structures in a given context” with the use of authentic texts in a constructivist framework.

As Mojica-Diaz and Sanchez-Lopez (2010) offer, a few suggestions can be made so as to alleviate the pre-service teachers’ difficulty with giving responses to students’ questions and giving oral corrective feedback in class. Raising their metalinguistic awareness focusing on increasing “language teachers’ explicit knowledge about grammar through teacher education” is one thing. Raising “their pedagogical skills to use this knowledge to enhance learning” in the teacher development programs at university is another (Borg, 2003, p. 101-102). In order to render their oral error correction practices more effective, the pre-service teachers might be encouraged to incorporate the self-correction and peer-correction techniques into their grammar instruction (Azar, 2007).

The quality of the grammar instruction in the EFL context can be enhanced by raising the awareness level of EFL pre-service teachers towards their own belief systems within a reflective framework. This can be accomplished in several ways. Pre-service teachers might be presented effective and ineffective grammar teaching samples through the videorecordings of real classrooms and then they might be asked to reflect on the appropriacy of the teaching methods and techniques for the learner profile in these contexts along with the strengths and the weaknesses of the instructors in the videos. In addition, in order to see the interrelationship between their beliefs about teaching and their actual classroom practices, the pre-service teachers can be encouraged to videotape their own performances in teaching tasks. They can also be encouraged to prepare self-reflection papers on these videotapes and then critically analyze the aspects that went well during the

teaching performance and those that need improving. They can also be encouraged to do peer evaluation to provide feedback on each other's performances.

A further implication of this study is concerned with the new roles for today's grammar teachers and students in the grammar class. It is crucial that the role of the grammar teachers should change drastically. The instructor's role was supposed to be regarded as an input provider, an authority offering explanations /descriptions and one giving corrective feedback on the learners' hypotheses in the past. However, today it is essential to adopt multiple roles as a grammar instructor: ranging from an input provider and one offering explanations, clarifying concepts, and doing comprehension checks to a facilitator of information and the guide of the student (Corder, 1988). Similarly, students in grammar classes should adopt a more active role in the learning process, analyzing the data provided by the grammar instructor and developing hypotheses based upon that data (Mojica-Diaz and Sanchez-Lopez, 2011). These roles necessitate the implementation of "genre-based approaches" and "constructivist classrooms" (Mojica-Diaz and Sanchez-Lopez, 2011: 473). On a more general platform, today's grammar teachers are expected to be informed decision makers, making judicious choices about their method, strategy, and technique use taking into consideration the local needs, the availability of equipment and the contextual factors (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; and Arıkan, 2006).

The study revealed that the pre-service teachers seemed to have adopted a holistic perspective towards teaching grammar, embracing both explicit and implicit grammar instruction, which might be considered a good start for their future professional development.

Conclusion

It is important to acknowledge that the study was carried out with a relatively small group of EFL pre-service teachers at the tertiary level in the Turkish context, composed of mostly female participants. A further limitation is the gender of the participants. The participants were mostly female. The final limitation is the duration of the study, which lasted about 3 months in the 2010-2011 spring semester. The small sample size, the restricted number of observed classroom practices, the gender factor, and the short duration of the study do not permit the findings to be generalizable beyond the local context. Taking into consideration these limitations, this research study has provided a number of valuable

insights. These are particularly in relation to the pre-service teachers' perceptions of EFL grammar teaching, their challenges in EFL grammar teaching, their affective concerns about grammar teaching, and their prior grammar learning experiences in a specific tertiary setting in Turkey. It illuminated the motives underlying the pre-service teachers' cognitions concerning EFL grammar instruction and their affective concerns in relation to their classroom practices, along with the revelation of a variety of interacting factors intervening the teachers' complicated process of instructional decision-making. Of importance too is the way the pre-service teachers described and justified their chosen approach to teach grammar (i.e., the integrated focus on form approach to teaching grammar). It is also noteworthy to observe the effort the pre-service teachers make to integrate grammar with other language skills in a contextualized manner.

This study is significant in that the findings are somewhat different from some other studies conducted in the Turkish context regarding the Turkish instructors' attitudes towards grammar teaching (e.g., Saraç, as cited in Alptekin and Tatar, 2011). Saraç (as cited in Alptekin and Tatar, 2011) indicates a growing dissatisfaction among teachers in relation to an explicit focus on explicit grammar instruction and the teachers' employment of pedagogical techniques for the activation of functional and contextual elements. Unlike Saraç (as cited in Alptekin and Tatar, 2011), the present study revealed the pre-service teachers' tendency towards an integrated focus-on-form approach to teaching grammar, embracing both explicit and implicit teaching in a situated context-sensitive manner, in line with Burgess and Etherington (2002). The findings can be said to shed light into pre-service teachers' perceptions and challenges concerning grammar teaching and the relationship between their perceptions and their actual classroom practices in other similar EFL contexts. The results might be used to draw some guidelines and develop new frameworks to enhance the quality of EFL grammar instruction in Turkey and abroad.

It is also remarkable to notice a relatively high level of awareness among the pre-service teachers in the study concerning a variety of grammar teaching approaches. The variety included the implementation of a holistic approach to grammar teaching, both explicit/implicit instruction with a focus-on-forms and meaning-focused, focus-on-form approaches. The holistic complementary perspective adopted allows flexibility in line with the contextual factors, which might be regarded as the reflection of a sound ELT

methodology knowledge they possessed. This case study can act as a catalyst to help other teachers to reflect on and examine their own perceptions about grammar teaching. As Ur (2012) emphasizes, since classroom context is the main source for learning to be a professional teacher, the participating students are likely to finetune their generalizations prior to recruitment as they appreciate the value of context-sensitiveness. It can be said that the pre-service teachers in the study gained a lot of insights into teaching grammar thanks to the mentor teachers assigned to them at practice teaching schools, probably more than that provided by their instructors at the university, although the former had certain conflicts with the latter in terms of the way they approached grammar teaching, and the latter sometimes interfered with the way the former taught grammar.

Grammar teaching is treated as a component of an elt methodology course entitled *teaching language skills* offered to juniors (third-year). They are introduced to a variety of grammar teaching methods and techniques, however they are not provided with sufficient opportunities to practice this declarative knowledge in different contexts with variety of learner profiles. Whenever they are given opportunities to proceduralize their declarative knowledge, they can only do so through a few microteaching practices predominantly performed in groups due to time restrictions. The study contributes to the existing literature on the field of grammar instruction by depicting the profile of a sample of prospective EFL/ESL grammar teacher in the post-method era - one who is an informed, active, thinking decision maker engaged in reflective and exploratory practice situated in context. And we would like to end with what Cook and Seidlhofer (1995: 9) have to say relevant to our study: “as with the competing theories of language, so with theories of language teaching and learning: we do not have to express allegiance to one or other. Language teaching, if it is to promote language learning, must go in all of these directions.”

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İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Türkiye Bağlamında Dilbilgisi Öğretimiyle ilgili Algıları

Öz

Problem Tanımı: İkinci/yabancı dil olarak İngilizce dilbilgisinin öğretimi geride bıraktığımız yüzyılın son çeyreğinden itibaren tartışmalı bir konu olmuştur. Bu da İngilizce öğretmenlerinin farklı bağlamlardaki dilbilgisi öğretimi uygulamalarının ve bu uygulamalara dair algılarının araştırılması gereğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu konuda yapılan araştırmalar öğretmen adaylarının bağlama duyarlı bakış açıları sağlayabilecektir.

Çalışmanın Amacı: Bu çalışma Türk İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının farklı bağlamlarda dilbilgisi öğretimine dair algıları ve sınıf-içi uygulamalarını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Yöntem: Nicel bir araştırma deseni kullanılan bu çalışmada, yakın zamanda yürütülen bir çalışmadan adapte edilerek hazırlanan anket öğretim dili İngilizce olan bir Türk üniversitesinin İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümünde öğretmenlik uygulaması dersini alan son sınıf öğrencileri (39 kadın ve 5 erkek) tarafından cevaplandırılmıştır. Veri analizinde SPSS 18 kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular: Elde edilen verilere göre, İngilizce öğretmen adayları hem biçim odaklı hem de anlam odaklı yaklaşımlardan yararlanılmasından yana bir tutum sergilemişlerdir. Bilgiye dayalı karar alan bireyler olarak öğretim sürecinde aktif rol üstlenmişler, algılarını şekillendiren öğretim bağlamlarındaki kültürel ve bireysel değişkenlere duyarlı hale gelmiş, bilgiye dayalı kararlar alan bireyler olarak öğretim sürecinde aktif rol üstlenmişlerdir. Karşılaştıkları zorluklar anlam-biçim haritalamaların kurulması, otantik metinlerin bilinçli kullanımı, hedef dil kullanımı ve dil becerilerinin bütünleştirme olmuştur.

Sonuçlar ve Öneriler: Sınıf-içi deneyimleri öğretmen adaylarının dilbilgisinde biçim ve anlam ağırlıklı yaklaşımlar arasındaki dengeyi içselleştirmelerinde yardımcı olmuştur. Üniversitelerde öğretmenlik uygulaması dersi için ayrılan zaman adayların bağlama duyarlı ayarlamaları yapma becerilerini otomatik hale getirmeleri için arttırılmalıdır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: dilbilgisi öğretimiyle ilgili algılar, inançlar, İngilizce öğretmen adayları, bağlam, doğrudan/dolaylı dilbilgisi öğretimi

Appendix

Table 1

The results of the quantitative analysis

Item	Mean (M)	Sd	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
			5 & 4	5 & 4	3	3	2 & 1	2 & 1
1.	2.96	1.31	18	40	8	17.8	19	42.3
2.	3.42	1.22	28	62.2	2	4.4	15	33.3
3.	3.27	1.21	21	46.7	10	22.2	14	33.1
4.	2.04	.93	3	6.6	8	17.8	34	75.6
5.	3.07	1.29	19	42.2	5	11	21	46.7
6.	3.27	1.29	21	46.7	10	22.2	14	31.1
7.	3.18	.96	16	35.6	18	40	11	24.4
8.	4.00	1.16	36	80	5	11	4	8.9
9.	3.38	.94	20	44.4	18	40	7	15.5
10.	3.93	.96	36	80	4	8.9	5	11.1
11.	2.82	1.07	12	26.7	14	31.1	19	42.2
12.	4.40	.91	42	93.4	1	2.2	2	4.4
13.	4.40	.78	42	93.3	2	4.4	1	2.2
14.	2.91	1.33	16	35.6	6	13.3	23	51.1
15.	2.71	.87	7	33.3	23	51.1	15	33.3
16.	3.69	1.06	12	26.7	15	33	18	40
17.	4.40	.65	43	95.6	1	2.2	1	2.2
18.	3.44	1.16	25	55.6	7	51.1	13	28.9
19.	3.76	1.00	25	64.4	11	24.4	5	11.1
20.	2.64	1.32	14	31.1	5	11.1	26	57
21.	4.02	.75	40	89.9	3	6.7	2	4.4
22.	3.93	.84	36	80	5	11.1	4	8.9
23.	2.60	.94	8	17.7	11	24.4	26	57.7
24.	3.80	1.01	33	40	4	8.9	8	17.8
25.	3.09	1.33	18	40	9	20	18	40
26.	3.09	1.12	21	46.7	7	15.6	17	37.8
27.	3.04	.88	13	28.8	20	44.4	12	26.6
28.	3.22	.99	22	48.9	8	17.8	15	33.3
29.	2.82	1.07	13	28.8	14	31.1	18	40.1
30.	3.07	1.07	19	42.3	9	20	17	37.7
31.	3.24	1.00	24	53.3	7	15.6	14	31.1
32.	3.51	.79	2	4.4	25	55.6	18	40
33.	2.62	.94	8	17.8	18	40	19	42.2
34.	2.49	.99	9	20	8	17.8	28	62.2
35.	2.18	.83	6	13.3	2	4.4	37	82.2
36.	2.53	.94	11	24.4	5	11.1	29	64.5
37.	3.13	.84	18	40	16	35.6	11	24.4
38.	2.66	.68	18	40	9	20	18	40

39.	3.80	.94	33	73.3	7	15.6	5	11.1
40.	3.53	1.14	32	71.1	2	4.4	11	24.5
41.	2.71	1.23	11	24.4	10	22.2	24	53.3
42.	4.00	.71	41	91.2	2	4.4	2	4.4
43.	3.60	.99	32	71.1	7	15.6	6	13.4
50.	2.20	1.01	22	48.8	10	22.2	13	2.8
51.	4.22	0.99	41	91.1	0	0	4	8.8
52.	3.77	0.99	32	71.1	7	15.6	6	13.3
53.	4.27	0.75	42	93.4	2	4.4	1	2.2
54.	3.82	0.96	34	75.6	7	15.6	4	8.8

**“Cellât ve Ağlayan Yüz” Adlı Hikâyenin
Göstergebilimsel Açıdan Çözümlemesi***

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Öz

Araştırma Konusu: Dil düzleminde belirmediği sürece anlam, çözümlenmemiş bir veri, biçimlenmemiş bir tözdür ve her dilde değişik biçimlerde şekillenir. Başka bir ifadeyle, aynı anlam farklı dillerde değişik biçimlere bürünür. Bu biçimleri ise dilin işlevleri belirler. Anlamın her seferinde yeni bir biçimin tözü olması dışında var olma olanağı yoktur. Bu durum dilsel içerikte özgül bir biçimin, yani içeriğin biçiminin oluşması demektir. Göstergebilim anlamın nasıl oluşturulduğu ve gerçekliğin nasıl sunulduğu sorularını göstergelerden yola çıkarak, dilbilimsel ve mantıksal yöntemler aracılığıyla yanıtlamaya çalışır.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada, Orhan Pamuk’un “Kara Kitap” adlı romanında yer alan “Cellat ve Ağlayan Yüz” adlı hikaye, Gremias’ın eyleyenler modeli aracılığıyla, göstergebilimsel açıdan çözümlenmiştir. Bu amaçla, ilkin yüzeysel metin düzeyinde, metnin öne çıkan özellikleri üzerinde durulmuştur. Sözdizimi ve temel anlamsal düzeyde, metin kesitlere ayrılarak her kesitin sahip olduğu çekirdek işlevler ve belirtiler

* Çalışma 26. Ulusal Dilbilim Sempozyumu’nda , (24-26 Mayıs 2012, Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi) bildiri olarak sunulmuştur.

belirlendikten sonra, burada yer alan kesit içi çatışmalar ve çelişkiler göstergebilimsel karelerle çözümlenmiştir.

Sonuç: Göstergebilimsel çözümleme sonucunda elde edilen verilerle kurmaca ve yaşam arasındaki ilişkiyi gösteren derin anlamsal düzeye ulaşılmış ve hikâyenin en alt katmanında yer alan ileti ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: göstergebilim, göstergebilimsel çözümleme, anlam, A. J. Greimas, eyleyenler modeli

Giriş: Göstergebilimsel Çözümleme

Göstergebilim anlamın nasıl oluşturulduğu ve gerçekliğin nasıl sunulduğu sorularını göstergelerden yola çıkarak, dilbilimsel ve mantıksal yöntemler aracılığıyla yanıtlamaya çalışır. Göstergebilimsel bakış açısı uyarınca, dil düzleminde belirmediği sürece anlam, çözümlenmemiş bir veri, biçimlenmemiş bir tözdür ve her dilde değişik biçimlerde şekillenir. Başka bir ifadeyle, aynı anlam farklı dillerde değişik biçimlere bürünür. Bu biçimleri ise dilin işlevleri belirler. Anlamın her seferinde yeni bir biçimin tözü olması dışında var olma olanağı yoktur. Bu durum dilsel içerikte özgül bir biçimin, yani içeriğin biçiminin oluşması demektir (Yücel, 1999:40'tan aktaran: İşeri, 2008:120). Bu bakış açısına sahip göstergebilim, göstergelerin birleşiminden oluşan sözlü ya da yazılı her metnin sahip olduğu anlamın tek olduğunu, ne var ki farklı bakış açılarının, tek olan bu anlamı değişik özellikleriyle belirginleştirerek farklılaştırdığını öne sürer. Buna göre, bir metnin anlamı en derinde yer alan katmandan başlayarak metinde kullanılan ses, sözcük, tümce ve daha üst birimlerin karşılıklı ilişkisiyle oluşur. Ancak bu anlam her zaman metnin yüzeyinde belirgin bir şekilde görülemeyebilir ve bulanık bir halde keşfedilmeyi bekler. Göstergebilimsel çözümleme sözü edilen bu belirsiz anlamı açık ve anlaşılabilir kılma amacındadır (Kıran, 1990, 1998).

Göstergebilim geleneğinde metinler kendi içinde anlamlı bütün oluşturan, aynı zamanda asıl metnin bütünselliği içerisinde görev üstlenen parçalara yani, anlam kavşaklarına –kesitlere- ayrılır ve düşey, yani seçenek düzleminde dört katmana, yatay, yani eklemleme düzleminde ise iki katmana ayrılarak incelenir. Değinilen bu katmanlar

anlatısal ve anlamsal iki ayrı bölümden oluşurlar. Bu bakış açısı uyarınca, metnin en derininde yer alan ilk katmanda temel sözdizim ve temel anlam bulunurken, ikinci katmanı anlatısal ve anlamsal sözdizim, üçüncü katmanı da söylemsel sözdizim ve anlam oluşturur. Son katman durumundaki görünen ve okunan dördüncü düzeyde, metin nihai biçimine kavuşur.

Göstergebilim kuramını oluşturan A. J. Greimas'ın geliştirdiği “eyleyenler modeline göre, herhangi bir anlatının oluşması için bir başlangıç durumu ile bir sonuç durumu ve bu iki durum arasındaki temel dönüşümü, edim sözcüğü gerçekleştirerek dönüştürecek bir öznenin varlığı gerekir (A. J. Greimas, 1983). Söz konusu model, her metinde anlatıyı oluşturan altı eyleyen bulunduğunu savlar: (i) Özne: Eylem gerçekleştirir; (ii) Nesne: Eylemin konusudur; (iii) Gönderen: Eylemi belirler; (iv) Gönderilen: Kendisi için eylemin gerçekleştiği kişidir; (v) Yardımcı: Eyleme yardım eder; (vi) Engelleyici: Eylemi engeller.

Eyleyenler, öznelere tarafından gerçekleştirilir ve bir özne (Ö) birden çok eyleyeni gerçekleştirebilirken, tek bir eyleyenin de (E) birkaç özne tarafından gerçekleştirilebilmesi mümkündür (Greimas, 1983: 49; 1979: 161). Greimas'ın anlatısal sözdizimdeki işlevlerin adı olarak gördüğü eyleyen kavramının, kişi kavramından çok daha geniş özellikler taşıdığını, insan olabileceği gibi, nesne, tekil, çoğul, somut ya da soyut özellikler içerebileceğini belirtmek gerekir (Akbulut 2002: 71). Eyleyenler arasındaki ilişkilerden gönderen-gönderilen ilişkisi iletişime, özne-nesne ilişkisi isteğe, yardımcı-engelleyici ilişkisi ise güce dayalıdır. Eyleyenler örnekçesi özne tarafından amaçlanmış nesne üzerinde yoğunlaşırken gönderen ile gönderilen arasında doğrudan ya da dolaylı bir iletişim söz konusudur.

Bu çalışmada, Orhan Pamuk'un “Kara Kitap” adlı romanında yer alan “Cellât ve Ağlayan Yüz” adlı hikâye, Greimas'ın eyleyenler modeli aracılığıyla, göstergebilimsel açıdan çözümlenmiştir. Bu amaçla, ilkin yüzeysel metin düzeyinde, metnin öne çıkan özellikleri üzerinde durulmuştur. Sözdizimi ve temel anlamsal düzeyde, metin kesitlere ayrılarak her kesitin sahip olduğu çekirdek işlevler ve belirtiler belirlendikten sonra, burada yer alan kesit içi çatışmalar ve çelişkiler göstergebilimsel karelerle çözümlenmiştir. Son olarak, bu verilerden hareketle kurmaca ve yaşam arasındaki ilişkiyi gösteren derin anlamsal düzeye ulaşılarak, hikâyenin en alt katmanında yer alan ileti ortaya konulmuştur.

Metnin Çözümlemesi

Söylemsel Düzey

Zaman. Hikâye bir bahar sabahı başlar ve Cellât Kara Ömer'in rüyalarındaki geri dönüşler dışında süreklilik göstererek yirmi dört günlük bir zaman dilimini kapsar. Cellât Kara Ömer hikâye başladığında İstanbul'dan Erzurum'a doğru yola çıkmış durumdadır; "...on iki gün önce padişah kararı ve Bostancıbaşı'nın görevlendirmesiyle ve eline tutuşturulan bir fermanla Erzurum Kalesine hükmeden Abdi Paşa'yı idam etmeye yollanmıştı"□* (Pamuk, O. 1994: 273). Kaleye gelip paşayı idam etmesi bir, Kemah'a ulaşması ise bir buçuk gün sürer ve burada yarım gün kalır (sf. 275). Paşanın ağlayan yüzünün ifadesini değiştirmeye karar vermesine kadar geçen altı günlük süre ayrıntılı bir anlatımla verilir (sf. 275-279). Kelleyi alıp İstanbul'a dönmesi de altı gün alır. Böylece hikâye on iki gün Erzurum'a gidiş, on iki gün de İstanbul'a dönüş olmak üzere toplam yirmi dört günlük bir sürede anlatılır. Cellâtın kendisine ve dünyaya yabancılaşmasına yol açan, Paşanın yüzündeki o garip ifadenin olduğu andan, yüzü tekrar eski haline getirmesine kadar geçen süre, hikâyenin ana izleğini oluşturur ve büyük kısmını kapsar.

Uzam. İstanbul şehrinde sıklıkla söz edilse de hikâye ağırlıklı olarak Anadolu'da geçer. Anlatı genelindeki veriler hikâyenin Osmanlı İmparatorluğu döneminde geçtiğini düşündürmektedir. Bu nedenle, zamanın tarihsel dokusuna uygun yerleşim yerleri (saray, han, kervansaray) ve ulaşım araçları (at) anlatımda yer alır. Anadolu'daki şehir ve kasabalar kimi zaman adlarıyla (Erzurum, Kemah vb.) kimi zaman ad verilmeden (Batıdaki küçük köyler vb.) anılmaktadır. "O mevsimde sıradan bir yolcunun bir ayda alacağı İstanbul-Erzurum yolunu on iki günde aldığı için memnundu" (sf.273); ..."Yarım gün sonra aralarından geçeceği Batıdaki mor dağların ve onların tam üstündeki, minyatürlerden çıkma bulutların, dünyanın çıplak, çırılçıplak bir yer olduğuna işaret ettiğini yeni görüyordu" (sf. 274). Ancak asıl uzam, doğada (dağlar, ırmaklar, kayalıklar, ormanlar vb.) oluşturulmuştur. Bunun nedenini doğa betimlemelerinin Cellâtın kendisine, kültürüne ve dünyaya yabancılaşmasını daha iyi anlatma olanağını vermeleri oluşturur. "... şaşkıncu çam ve kayın

* Orhan Pamuk, **Kara Kitap**, 17. Baskı, İletişim Yay., İstanbul, 1994. Bundan sonra kitaptan yapılacak alıntıların sayfası parantez içerisinde gösterilecektir.

ağaçları ve buz gibi derelerin kıyılarındaki tuhaf çakıl taşları arasından atını sürerken, terkisinde taşıdığı yüzün ifadesini bir daha hiç düşünmedi.” (sf. 276-277)

Kahramanlar

Cellât Kara Ömer. Ömer ismi sözcük düzeyinde (Ar.) “hayat”, “yaşam” anlamına gelir**. Kara sözcüğü ise “kötü” ve “uğursuz” başta olmak üzere, olumsuz çağrışımlarına sahip bir sıfattır***. Dolayısıyla “Kara Ömer”in hikâyesinin bütünü de göz önüne alarak – “Otuz yıllık meslek hayatında yirmiye yakın şehzade, iki sadrazam, altı vezir, yirmi üç paşa, hırlı, hırsız, suçlu, suçsuz, kadın, erkek, çocuk, ihtiyar, Hıristiyan, Müslüman altı yüzün üzerinde kişiyi idam etmiş, çıraklığından başlayarak bu güne kadar binlerce kişiyi işkenceden geçirmişti.” (sf. 274)- kötü, istenmeyen bir yaşam, belki de “sefil hayat” anlamına geldiği söylenebilir.

Ancak her şeye karşın Cellât Kara Ömer kendinden emin ve güvenli bir şekilde hayatını sürdürmektedir, ta ki son kurbanının yüzündeki o garip ifadeyi görene kadar. O andan sonra Ömer “eski” güvenli halinden uzaklaşır ve ağır ağır kendine ve yaşadığı dünyaya yabancılaşmaya başlar. Ağlayan yüzde gördüğü ifade şimdiye kadar “...bir adalet, bir zorunluluk, bir geri dönülmezlik mantığıyla dengelediği...” (sf. 276) ve bilinçaltına attığı korku ve suçluluk duygularının ortaya çıkmasına ve oluşturduğu dengenin bozulmasına neden olur. “Bütün ağaçların uykusuz gecelerde hatıralarının arasında kıpırdanan karanlık gölgelere benzediğini yeni fark ediyordu.” (sf. 277)

Cellât Kara Ömer ağlayan yüzün ifadesini değiştirmeden o “eski”, bildiği, güvenli hayata dönemeyeceğini anlar ancak yapacağı hareket neticesinde kötü de olsa sürdürdüğü hayatından bile olma tehlikesiyle yüz yüzedir. Ömer yabancılaştığı bu hayattan kurtulup kendi iç huzurunu bulmayı, yaşamaya tercih eder ve “sefil hayat”ı bir başka cellâdın ellerinde sefil bir şekilde sona erer.

Abdi Paşa. Abdi Paşa İstanbul’daki padişaha bağlı olarak Erzurum bölgesini yöneten üst düzey bir görevlidir. Ne var ki hikâye başladığında idam edilmesini gerektirecek kadar büyük bir suç işlemiş haldedir. Öldürüldüğü andaki anlatıma göre, kurallara bağlı, çevresindekileri etkisi altına almayı seven ve dünyaya sıkı sıkıya bağlı

** <http://tdkterim.gov.tr/bts/ömer>

*** <http://tdkterim.gov.tr/bts/kara>

biridir. Zaten Abdi sözcüğü “kul”, “köle” anlamına gelir*. Paşa (Fa.) ise “çocuk”, “yavru” anlamları taşıyan bir sözcüktür ** ve Abdi Paşa’nın gösterdiği davranışlar, adıyla uyum içindedir. “...kuşağında yağlı kemendiyle ve usturayla kazılı kafasında kızıl keçeden külahıyla cellâdı görür görmez tanıyan Paşa, başına gelecekleri hemen anladı, ama kural dışı denebilecek hiçbir zorluk çıkarmadı. Belki de suçunu bildiği için kaderine kendini çoktan hazırlamıştı. .” (sf. 274).

Anlatısal Düzey

Göstergebilim kuralları uyarınca her tür anlatıda var olan Özne ve Nesne, Gönderen ve Gönderilen, Yardım Eden ve Engelleyen kahramanlar bu hikâyede de karşımıza çıkar. Buna göre Cellât Kara Ömer’i emriyle Erzurum kalesine hükmeden Abdi Paşa’yı idam etmeye yollayan Padişah Gönderen konumundadır.

Başlangıç:

Gönderen → Cellât Kara Ömer

G₁- Padişah Ö₁

Başka bir açıdan Padişahın, Cellâdı doğrudan muhatap almayıp, mesajını kendisi aracılığıyla ilettiği Bostancıbaşı da Cellat Kara Ömer’in Göndereni durumundadır.

Gönderen → Bostancıbaşı → Cellat Kara Ömer G₁ + G₂

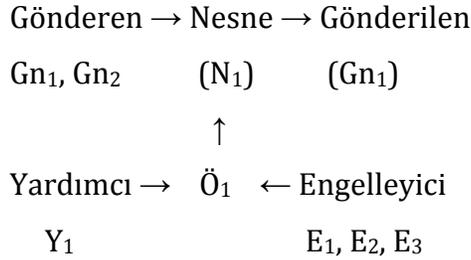
G₁ G₂ Ö₁ Özne

Abdi Paşa’nın idam edilmesinin gerekliliğinden dolayı Abdi Paşa Nesne (N₁)’dir. Padişahın fermanı Yardımcı Güç (Y₁), Öznenin Erzurum şehrine girmeden az önce üzerinde hissettiği durgunluk ve belli belirsiz lanet duygusu (E₁) ile Paşanın adamları (E₂) ve kendi ölümüne karşı çıkma olasılığı doğal olarak var olan Paşa (E₃) Engelleyecilerdir. Paşanın kellesi (N₁) kendisine getirileceği için Padişah aynı zamanda Gönderilendir (G₁ = Gn₁).

* <http://tdkterim.gov.tr/bts/abdi>

** <http://www.nisanyansozluk.com/?k=paşa>

Şekil 1

Eyleyenler şeması

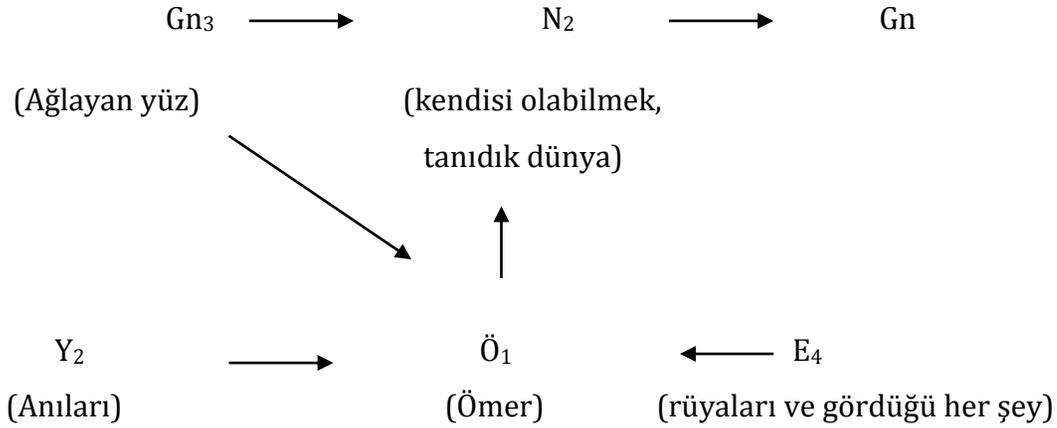
Cellat Kara Ömer Padişahın emriyle Abdi Paşa'nın (N₁) yaşadığı kaleye gelir ve onu öldürür, böylece Nesnesine (N₁) kavuşur. Abdi Paşa böylece Ö₁, N₁ ve E₃ rollerinden sonra Nesne (N₁) rolünü de yerine getirir. E₃=N₁= Abdi Paşa

Ancak Paşanın ölmeden az önce yüzünde gördüğü ifade, Cellât Kara Ömer'in uzun meslek hayatındaki ilk kararsızlığı geçirip daha önce hiç yapmadığı bir şeyi yapmasına, kurbanının yüzüne bir kumaş parçası örtmesine yol açar. Her şeye karşın Kara Ömer (Ö₁) görevini başarmış, nesnesine kavuşmuş ve dönüş yolculuğuna başlamıştır. Ne var ki nesnesi dönüş yolunda yeni roller üstlenecektir. Cellâdın öldürmeden az önce Paşanın yüzünde gördüğü alışılmadık ifade, Kara Ömer'in kendini ve dünyayı yeniden yorumlamasına yol açacak; Paşa, idamdan sonra ise paşanın kellesi, Nesne (N₁) ve Engelleyici (E₃) rollerinin ardından yeni bir rolü, Gönderen (G₃) rolünü oynamaya başlayacaklardır. N₁=E₃=G₃

Bu olay sonrasında Ömer bildiği, tanıdığı dünyasına yabancılaşmaya başlar (Ö₁ v Ö₂). Rüyaları ve çevresinde gördüğü dünyaya ait her şey bu yolculukta “kendisi olmasının” engelleyicileridir (E₄). Dünyasını yine bildik, tanıdık dünyaya çevirebilmesinde (N₂), yani kendisi olabilmesinde yardımcısı ise anılarıdır (Y₂). “...uykusunun orta yerinde keşfettiği bu gerçeğin anılarıyla örtüştüğünü düşündü.” (sf. 276).

Şekil 2

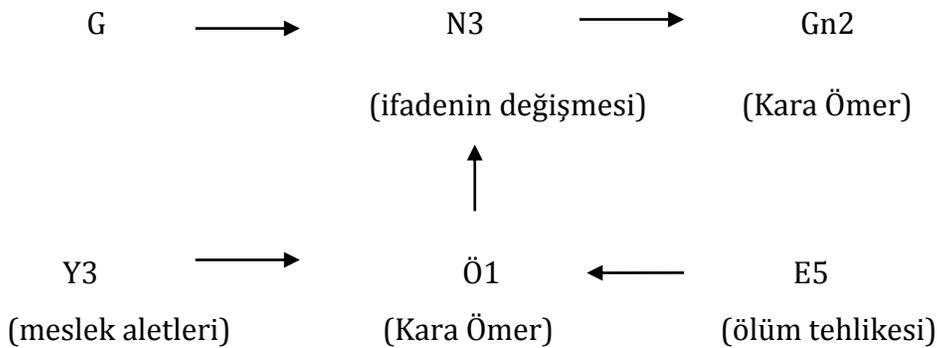
Anlatsal şema giriş



Dünya alışılmış, güvenli “eski” halinden artık sıyrılmış ve güvensiz, tehditkâr bir hal alarak “yeni”lenmiştir. Cellât bu yenedünyanın kendisine bir şeyler anlatmak, bir anlamı işaret etmek istediğini düşünmeye başlar. Fakat bu durum Kara Ömer’i gitgide kendine yabancılaştırır ve her şeyin eski düzenine dönebilmesinin, torbasında taşıdığı kellenin ifadesini değiştirmesiyle mümkün olabileceğini anlar. Böylece Paşanın kellesi (N₁, Gn₃) yeni bir değer nesnesi haline gelir (N₃). Bunu yapması halinde tanınmaz bir hale gelecek yüz, inandırıcılığını kaybedecek ve bu durum Kara Ömer’in hayatını kaybetme tehlikesini beraberinde getirecektir (E₅). Ömer bu kararı kendi kendine aldığı için gönderensizdir, eylemi kendisi yaptığından dolayı, aynı zamanda Gönderilen konumundadır (Ö₁=G).

Şekil 3

Anlatsal şema gelişme



Cellât Kara Ömer bu çelişkiler içersinde İstanbul'a doğru yol almaya çalışmakta ancak yabancılaşması da giderek artmaktadır. "At üstünde uykusuz geçen ve torbadan gelen bitip tükenmeyen hıçkırıkların sinir bozucu bir müziğe dönüştüğü çıldırtıcı bir gecenin sabahında cellât dünyayı o kadar deęişmiş buldu ki kendisinin kendisi olduğuna inanmakta zorluk çekti." (sf. 278)

Sonunda baskıya dayanamaz ve yüzün ifadesini eski haline getirir. "...Sonra, daha ince bir işe girişip acıyla kasılmış gözleri açmaya başladı. Çok uzun ve yorucu bir çabadan sonra gülümseyişi bütün yüze yayabildiğinde, yorulmuş gevşemişti artık." (sf.279). Böylece dünya eski ve bildik dünya, kendisi ise yine kendi olur. "...Torbanın içinden hıçkırık sesleri duyulmuyordu artık. Öğle olmadan, çamla kaplı tepelerin arasındaki bir gölün kıyısında atından indi ve günlerdir beklediği derin ve deliksiz uykuya mutlulukla yattı." (sf. 279). Fakat nesnesine kavuşup kendisi olabilmesinin bedelini (Ö1∩N3∩Ö1) canıyla ödemek zorunda kalır. "...Beş gün sonra, İstanbul'da, Abdi Paşa'yı iyi tanıyan tanıklar, kıl torbadan çıkarılan kellenin onun kellesi olmadığını söylerlerken ve yüzün gülümseyen ifadesinin hiç de paşa'yı hatırlatmadığını anlatırlarken,.. suçlamaları hiçbir işe yaramayacağını bildiği için cevaplamadı. Çünkü kendi kellesini gövdesinden ayırarak cellâdın kapıdan girdiğini görmüştü bile." (sf. 280).

Metin Düzeyi

Anlatıcı. Metin düzeyinde hikâye olarak karşımıza çıkan eserde, anlatıcı olaylara ve kahramanlara dışarıdan bakarak, akıllarından geçenleri bilmekte ve niyetlerini anlamaktadır. Bu haliyle hikâyede üçüncü tekil şahıs ağzıyla konuşan bir anlatıcı görülmektedir. "Bahar sabahı cellât şehre girmeden önce bir su kıyısında atından indi ve kuşların neşeli cıvıltıları arasında abdest aldı, namaz kıldı." (sf. 274) Bu özellik, anlatıcının hikâyeyi nesnel bir şekilde anlatmasına olanak verir.

Okur hikâyenin hemen başında sonunu öğrenir; "İçi balla dolu kıldan torbaya yerleştirirken, Paşa'nın yüzündeki o ağlayan bakışı, o anlaşılmaz ve dehşet verici ifadeyi bir daha hayretle gördü ve ömrünün pek de uzak olmayan sonuna kadar hiç unutamadı." (sf. 275)

Derin Düzey

Gremias'ın eyleyenler modelinde anlam evreninin en soyut, en derin düzeyini temel (mantıksal-anlamsal) yapı oluşturur. Temel yapı aşaması, mantıksal-anlamsal ilişkiler çerçevesinde göstergebilimsel çözümlemenin, diğer iki (söylem-anlatı çözümlemesi) düzeyinde saptanan ilişkilerin, yani anlam üretimine özgü temel yapıların kavrandığı aşamayı meydana getirir. Burada temel sözdizimin gerçekleşmesini sağlayan ilişkiler belirlenir ve aralarındaki dönüşümün nasıl gerçekleştiği araştırılır. Bunu gerçekleştirmek için göstergebilimsel dörtgene başvurulur. Göstergebilimsel dörtgende yer alan simgesel ulamlardan anlamsal ulamlara geçilirken, sözdizimsel boş yapılara anlamsal değerler yüklenir. Göstergebilim bu aşamada iki temel karşıtlık öne sürer (İşeri, 2008:128):

1. Bireysele ilişkin karşıtlık: /yaşam/ ve /ölüm/.
2. Toplumsala ilişkin karşıtlık : /kültür/ ve /doğa/.

Örneğin: /yaşam/ = "su", "ev", "yiyecek"

/ölüm/ = "toprak", "hastane", "mezarlık"

/kültür/ = "müzik", "ayakkabı", "uygarlık"

/doğa/ = "dağ", "orman", "doğallık"

İncelediğimiz metnin ana izleğini “insanın kendisi olması zordur” önermesi oluşturur. Hikâyede Cellât Kara Ömer'in öldürmeden hemen önce, kurbanının yüzünde gördüğü ilginç ifade, eski yaşamının değişip yenileşmesine yol açar ancak bu yeni durum Cellâdın istediği bir sonuç değildir. Yazarın bu hikâyenin de içinde yer aldığı romanının (Kara Kitap), bütünü incelendiğinde, “kendisi olmaya” çalışan kahramanların anlatıldığı görülür. Yazar bunu kahramanlarının eski ve yeni hayatları arasındaki farkları ortaya koyarak yapar.

/eski/

/yeni/

/güven/

/güvensizlik/

/inanç/

/inançsızlık/

/bilinen/

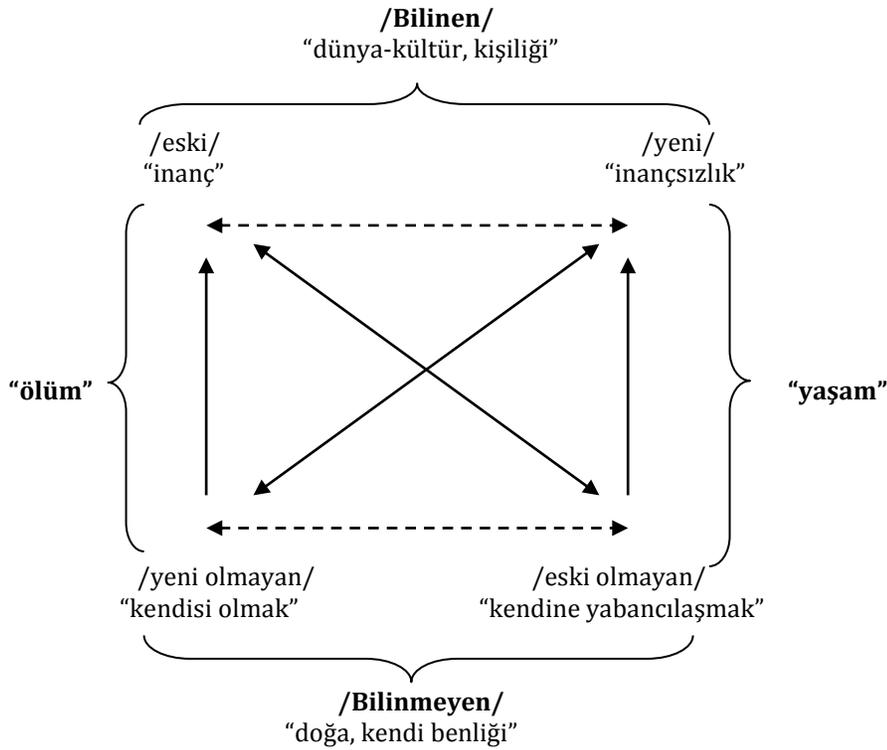
/bilinmeyen/

/yaşam/	/ölüm/
/ölüm/	/yaşam/
/kendisi olmak/	/kendine yabancılaşmak/
Ö1	Ö1 / Ö2

Hikâyede kahraman hayatı yeni bir boyut kazanmadan önce, kendinden emin, işinde deneyimli ve kendine göre tutarlı bir yaşam sürmektedir. Bu “tutarlı” ve “güvenli” yaşamını ise başka insanların ölümü üzerine kurmuştur. Ancak yeni hayatında bu kırılğan denge bozulur. Değinilen dönüşüm göstergebilimsel kareyle açıklanacak olursa:

Şekil 4

Temel yapıya ilişkin göstergebilimsel dörtgen



Hikâyede eski ve yeni kavramları, dünyada –hem maddi hem de manevi anlamda- ve Cellâdın kişiliğinde bir arada görülür. Dünya son olay meydana gelene kadar kahramanın bildiğinden emin olduğu, tanıdık bir mekândır, ne var ki bu olayın ardından hem tanıdığını düşündüğü dünyaya hem de sarsılmaz bir güvenle bağlı olduğu benliğine yabancılaşır. Değinilen yabancılaşma okura aynı zamanda “bilinmeyen”i artık değişmiş

olan doğayı ve kahramanın bilinçaltına attığı korkularını ve tedirginliğini, başka bir deyişle, öz beni”ni getirir. “Batıya doğru ilerledikçe ve uzayan gölgeler anlam değiştirdikçe, cellât çatlaman çömlerden sızan kan gibi, çevresine esrarını çözemediği işaretlerin, belirtilerin sızdığını fark etti.” (sf.277)

Romanın bütünü dikkate alındığında, hikâyenin temel anlamının, insanın kendisi olabilmesinin çok hassas dengelere bağlı olduğu ve kurulduğu sanılan bu dengenin her an bozulabilme olasılığını bünyesinde taşıdığını söylemek mümkündür. “Yüz dediğimiz ve tanıdığımızı sandığımız haritada hiç tanımadığımız bir ülkeye rast gelmenin şaşkınlığını ve dehşetini hepimiz biliriz.” (sf. 273)

Sonuç

Bu çalışmada, Gremias tarafından geliştirilen eyleyenler modeli aracılığıyla, bir metnin nasıl çözümlenebileceği gösterilmiştir. Göstergibilimsel metin çözümleme yönteminin, herhangi bir metnin anlam evreninin anlaşılmasında ve nesnel biçimde değerlendirilmesinde bu çalışmada da görüldüğü üzere, iş gördüğü ve okura derinlikli bir bakış açısı kazandırdığı ortaya konulmuştur. Anlam gibi tanımlanması ve yorumlanması büyük tartışmalara ve çoğu kez öznel değerlendirmelere konu olan bir olgunun nesnel ve bilimsel biçimde incelenebilmesi yolunda göstergibilimsel çözümleme yönteminden faydalanılmasının olanaklı olduğunu söylemek mümkündür.

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Semiotic Analysis of the Story “The Executioner and the Weeping Face”

Abstract

Problem statement: Meaning is unclassified data and unshaped substance unless it exists on language level, which different languages form in various forms. That is to say that the same meaning is formed differently by each language. The said forms are the results of the functions of languages. Meaning cannot exist on its own except that it is the substance of a new form, which means that a specific form of language content arises as the make up of essence. Semiotics tries to answer the questions how meaning is created and how reality is projected by employing linguistics and logical methods drawing on signs.

Method: The study analyzes the story entitled “The Executioner and the Weeping Face” in “Black Book” by Orhan Pamuk on the basis of A. J. Greimas’ actant model from semiotic point of view. To this end, evident features of the story are dealt with first and having clarified core functions and signs of each segment of the text on syntactic and semantic levels, contradictions and conflicts in here are displayed through semiotic squares.

Result: By the help of data gained through semiotic analysis the main argument of the story hidden at the base level is displayed after deep meaning is reached and the relation between real life and fiction is revealed.

Keywords: semiotics, semiotic analysis, meaning, A. J. Greimas, actant model

Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Kültürel Unsurların Önemi

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Öz

Araştırma Konusu: Toplumların sosyo-kültürel yapıları ile dilleri arasında ilişki halk biliminin konularından birisidir. Her dil yeni bir yaşam ve düşünce tarzı içerir. Dil öğretimi aynı zamanda bir kültür aktarımıdır. Dilbilimci, toplumun dili ile kültürel unsurlarının, bir bütünün birbirleriyle ilişkili parçaları olduğunun farkında olmalıdır. Bu bağlamda eğitimci, sadece dil öğretmeyi amaçlamamalı, dil öğretirken aynı zamanda öğrencinin kültürel özelliklerini dikkate alarak ona bir kişilik kazandırmalıdır. Kültürler kendilerine özgü farklılıkları barındırır ve çocukluktan itibaren başlayan eğitim sürecinde bu farklılıkların dikkate alınması gerekir.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma, yabancı dil öğretimindeki kültürel unsurların önemi üzerinde durarak literatür taraması yapmaktadır. İlgili literatürde bulunan çalışmalara odaklanarak, kültürel unsurların önemine ilişkin eleştirel bir yöntem izlemektedir.

Bulgular: Hedef dilde anlatmak istediğimiz duygu ve düşünceler, dilin kurallarının öğretimi dışında sosyo-kültürel yapıların öğretimini de zorunlu kılmaktadır. Bir yabancı dilin öğretiminde hedef dilin kültürünün öğretilmesi, hem öğrencinin daha iyi öğrenmesini sağlayacak hem de öğrenciye evrensel değerler süzgecinden geçmiş bir dünya görüşü kazandıracaktır.

Sonuç: Bu kapsamda konusu kültür olan dilbilimin ortaya koyduğu verilerden yararlanmanın, dil öğretiminde başarıyı artıracakları değerlendirilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Halkbilimi, kültür, dil öğretimi, dilbilim, kültürel farklılık

Giriş

Halkbilimi, insan yaşantısındaki kültür öğelerini bilimsel çalışmalarla toplayan, sınıflandıran, benzerlik ve farklılıkları ortaya koyan ve sistematik bir açıklamasını yaparak uygulamalar öneren bir bilim dalı olarak bilinir. Bu bilim dalı günümüze değin uzanan kültür değerlerini araştırıp ortaya çıkarırken, bu değerlerin toplum içindeki rolünü ve toplumu ayakta tutan dinamikleri belirler, çağdaş yaratmalara temel oluşturacak estetik odakları harekete geçirir. Böylelikle yeni kültür ürünleri ortaya çıkarır ve ortaya çıkan bu ürünleri evrensel düzeye taşıyarak insanlığın ortak kültürüne katkıda bulunur. Bu çalışmalarda kültürel antropoloji ve sosyo-dilbilimdeki belirli eğilimler de halkbilimcilere esin kaynağı olur.

Antropoloji, antropos ve logos sözcüklerinden türemiş bir terim olup, insan, toplum ve kültürü konu edinir. Voltaire tarafından insan zekâsının oluşumu, gelişimi, geliştirilmesi ve yüceltilmesi anlamında kullanılan kültür, bir toplumun birikimli uygarlığıdır (Crehan 2002: 64-66). Bir başka deyişle kültür, insanın doğuştan getirmediği ancak doğaya kattığı her tür üründür. Son yıllarda halkbilimciler dikkatlerini toplumdaki bireylerin rolüne ve kültürel gelenekle ilişkili olarak kişilik gelişmesine yöneltmişlerdir. Dilbilim, kültürlerin, kuşaklararası ve kültürlerarası aktarım aracı olarak dilin toplumda oynadığı role, sosyal ve kültürel ortamla ilişkisine, insanın doğasına, kişiliğinin gelişmesine ve eğitim süreçlerinin dil öğrenim ve öğretimine odaklanır. Dilbilimci, esas olarak dilin kökeni, yapısı ve gelişimi ile ilgilenirken, toplumun dili ile kültürel unsurlarının, bir bütünün ilişkili parçaları olduğunun da farkında olmalıdır. Böylesi bir farkındalıkla o, toplumun belirli bir grubu tarafından konuşulan dilin, o grubun statüsü ya da sosyal sınıfıyla ilişki durumlarını; dinsel tören ve kutlamalarda kullanılan dilbilimsel imgelerin, günlük konuşmadan farklı oluşunu; bir dilin değişen sözcük ve deyim varlığının, onu kullanan halkın değişen kültürüne yansıma biçimlerini; dilin bir kuşaktan diğerine aktarılma süreçlerini ve bu süreçlerin art arda gelen kuşaklara inançlarını, ideal ve geleneklerini nasıl aktardığını inceler.

İnsan doğumundan itibaren gelişmeye, çevreye uyum sağlamaya ve sosyalleşmeye başlar. Topluluklar halinde yaşayan insan, yaşamda bazı değer, inanç ve sosyal ilişkileri

öğrenerek sosyal bir varlık haline gelir. Bir toplumun dilini, inançlarını, gelenek ve göreneklerini, alışkanlık biçimlerini ve sanatını içeren kültür, önceki kuşaklardan aktarılan, toplum üyelerinin çoğunluğunca değerli bulunan, insan yapısını, eylemlerini, düşüncelerini ve aynı zamanda toplumun diğer toplumlarla ilişki kurmasına yarayan tüm unsurları da kapsar. Her sosyal/kültürel dizgede bireyler ve kurumlar arası ilişkiler dil ile kurulur, dil ile sürdürülür. “Dil” denildiğinde akla öncelikli olarak konuşma dili gelse de, konuşma dili aslında çok geniş bir konuşma-anlaşma- haberleşme ortamının sadece bir boyutudur. Konuşma dilinden farklı olarak, yazı dili, ıslık dili, resim dili, matematik dili, mimik dili, telgraf dili, müzik dili, tiyatro dili, sinema dili, radyo dili, kıyafet dili gibi çok sayıda dil vardır. Dilbilimciler, dillerin yapılarını inceleyerek ve karşılaştırarak araştırmalar yaparlar. Etnoloji ile betimleyici dilbilimin karışımı olan etnolinguistik, dil ve kültür arasındaki ilişkileri irdeler. Bu noktada etnolinguistler, dilin yapısını ve kullanımını, toplum, kültür ve insan davranışı bağlamında araştırırlar (Haviland vd. 2002: 148). Kültürün oluşumunda merkezi bir öneme sahip olan dil, birbirleri ile sıkı etkileşim halinde bulunan kültürel öğeleri birbirine bağlar. Her biri ayrı bir bilim dalının konusu olan çevre; üretim ve tüketim; din, devlet ve yönetim; insanlar; gelenek, görenek; aile, soy ve akrabalık ilişkileri; sağlık ve hastalık; sanat, bilgi ve eğitim gibi öğeler aynı bütünün içinde yerini alır. Bu temel öğeler, her toplumda ve kültürde farklı biçimlerde mevcuttur. Her dil, farklı bir yaşam ve düşünce tarzını içerir. Bu nedenle yeni bir dil öğrenmek bir bakıma yeni bir kültürü, yeni bir düşünceyi ve yeni bir yaşam tarzını öğrenmeye başlamak demektir. Bu bağlamda kültürel sistemin iletişim ortamını oluşturan dil, zengin, sürekli ve güvenilir kültür hazinesidir. Kültürel ve tarihi miras, dil aracılığı ile gelecek kuşaklara aktarılır. Kültürel sistemi oluşturan parçaların hiçbiri tek başına var olamaz ve az ya da çok diğer öğelerden etkilenir.

Kültürleşme

Kültürleşme, başka bir kültürle ilişki ya da alışveriş sonucu ortaya çıkan bir tür kültür değişmesidir. Kültürel yapılanmalarda en önemli tuzak, kendimizden hoşnutluk duygusudur. Bu hoşnutluk, dünyayı “kendimiz ve ötekiler” anlayışı ile dar bir çerçeveye sıkıştırır. “Etnosentrizm (budunmerkezcilik), kişinin kendi kültürünü esas alarak, diğer kültürleri kendi kültürü açısından değerlendirmesi” demektir (Brandmeyer vd. 2004: 103).

Bireyler, yaygın olarak kendi kültürel değerlerini ve davranışlarını doğru kabul ederek diğer kültürlerle bakma eğilimi içerisindedirler. “İnsanın uygar bir yaratık olarak yaşamasının tek yolu; kendini ve ötekileri, önyargılardan arınmış bir şekilde sorgulaması, tanımaya ve anlamaya çalışarak ötekilerle birlikte yaşamının yollarını aramasıdır” (Brandmeyer vd. 2004: 168–179).

Siyaset, ekonomi ve kültürün küreselleşmesi, kültürel, ulusal, bölgesel ve yerel unsurların kesişmesi ve harmanlanması ile sonuçlanmış, küreselleşme döneminde halkbiliminin insanlar, kültürler arasındaki benzerlikleri ve farklılıkları araştırmasını daha da önemli bir hale getirmiştir. Başlangıçta dışa kapalı olan toplumlar, kendilerini değiştirmeye başlamışlar ve gün geçtikçe de bu kapalılıktan kurtularak kapılarını farklı toplumların kültürel değerlerine açmışlardır. Küreselleşmeyi bir “zaman ve mekân sıkışması” olarak tanımlayan Harvey (1999: 270), bu sıkışmayı yaşamın hızının artması ve mekânsal engellerin ortadan kalkması şeklinde açıklamıştır. Bu ortamda küreselleşme bir yandan tek bir dünya meydana getirirken diğer yandan parçalanma ve farklılıklar da yaratmıştır.

Kültürel farklılıkların dikkate alınması gereken alanlardan birisi de yabancı dil eğitimidir. Çocukluktan itibaren başlayan eğitim sürecinde giderek artan ölçüde başka oluşun bilincine varılması, kültürel çeşitliliğin fark edilmesi ve farklı kültürlerin ortak yönleri olduğunun belirlenmesi, kültürler arasındaki sınırların yıkılması sonucunu doğurur. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, dil eğitimi, bir yandan dünyadaki insanların birbirlerini anlamasını sağlarken diğer yandan farklı kültürlerle sahip bireylere karşı hoşgörülü olmayı da öğretir. Bu noktada önemli olan, farklı kültürler arasındaki ilişkileri tanımlamaktan ziyade bireylerin karşılaştıkları güçlükleri kavramak, çözüm bulmaya çalışmak ve bireyleri “özne” olarak kabul ederek onların kendi hedeflerini belirlemelerine ve hedefe ulaşma yolculuğunda ilerleme becerilerini kazanmalarına yardımcı olmaktır. Ortaya çıkan durum bir anlamda, “artık farklı kültürler arasındaki uyumluluktan ziyade, bireyleri, yaşanmış kişisel bir öykü ve tasarıya dönüştürme becerisidir” (Touraine 2005: 240). Bu bağlamda anlatılmak istenilen eğitimcinin sadece dil öğretmeyi amaçlamaması, aynı zamanda dil öğretirken, öğrencinin kültürel özelliklerini göz önünde bulundurarak ona etkin bir kişilik kazandırmasıdır.

Dil Eğitiminde Etkin Bir Öneme Sahip Olan Kültürel Farklılıkların Doğru Belirlenmesi Nasıl Bir Rol Oynar?

“Bir araya gelip bir olmak”, Doğu kültürlerinin temel toplumsal özelliklerden biri iken, Batı kültürlerinde “bireysellik” ön plandadır. Öğretim sürecinde öğrencinin birey olarak ele alınması ve mensubu bulunduğu toplum ile uyum ve farklılaşmasının dikkate alınması başarıyı arttıracaktır. Yapılan araştırmalar, temel kalıtsal özelliklerle dünyaya gelen her bireyin, kültürlenme ve kişilik gelişimi arasında yapısal bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bazı kültürler, çocuk yetiştirme alışkanlıklarında, daha bağımsız ve kendine güvenen kişilikler ortaya çıkartırken, diğerleri de uysal ve itaatkâr kişiliklerin gelişimini ön plana alırlar (Haviland vd. 2002: 264). Geleneksel toplumların diğer toplumlarla ilişkileri adeta yalıtılmış bir yapıdadır. Ancak bu yapıdaki toplumlarda, yardımlaşma, destek olma ve “biz” duygusu yüksek düzeydedir. Diğer taraftan Avrupa Kültürü, tüm ulusal farklılıklarına karşın, “birey” kavramına verilen değer üzerinde birleşmektedir. Avrupa toplumlarının “bireyi”, Avrupa dışında kalanların ise “kamuyu” öne çıkardıkları konusunda yaygın bir kanı bulunmaktadır (Yavuz 1973: 21). Dil öğrenimi aynı zamanda bir kültür aktarımıdır. Hedef dilde anlatmak istediğimiz duygu ve düşünceler, dilbilim kurallarının eğitimi dışında, dil/kültür öğretimini de zorunlu hale getirir. Kuşkusuz, yabancı dil öğretiminde kültürel farklılıklar öğrenim sürecini etkileyecektir. Ana dilin kendine özgü yaşama ilişkin bakış açısı, değerleri ve ölçüleri vardır. Bu toplumsal ölçüler ve değerler, heyecan, mutluluk, sevinç, korku, inanç ve endişe gibi kimi duyguların dilin kendine özgü ifadeleriyle anlam kazanarak aktarılabilmesini sağlar. Bu anlamda her iki dilde de toplumsal ve yaşamsal uygulamaların ne olduğunun bilinmesi son derece önemlidir. Bir başka deyişle, her dilin kendine özgü değerler sistemi vardır ve bu durum o dile özgü kültürel ifadelerde farklılıklarla kendini gösterir. Birbirlerinin kültürlerini tanımayan bireyler, iletişim kurmakta güçlük yaşayacaklardır. Çoğu zaman kendi kültürel ve dil kurallarına göre ifadeleri iletmeye çalıştıklarında ise anlaşmazlıklar ortaya çıkacaktır. Bu nedenle iletişimde başarı için kültürel değerlerin farklılığının ne kadar önemli olduğunun bilinmesine gereksinim vardır. Örneğin, trende yolculuk ederken “Bugün hava ne kadar güzel” denir ise, İngiliz cevap vermek istemez, çünkü tanımadığı birisiyle konuşmak gibi bir alışkanlığı bulunmamaktadır (Avruch vd. 1991: 113). Benzer bir biçimde Kevin Costner’in yönetmenliğini ve başrol oyunculuğunu üstlendiği 1990 yılı yapımı *Kurtlarla*

Dans filminde, 1800'lü yıllarda bir teğmenin Amerikan iç savaşından sonra atandığı Güney Dakota'daki bir sınır karakolunda kurtlarla ve Kızılderililerle kurduğu dostluğu anlatılır. Söz konusu filmin, gerçeğe yakın olması ve kültürel özgünlüğü yakalaması açısından, Lokota'lı bir kadından dil dersi alınmış, ancak bu dilde kadın ve erkekler için farklı söz diziliminin var olduğu göz önünde bulundurulmamıştır. Film gösterime girdiğinde izlemeye gelen yerliler, Lokata Savaşçıları'nın kadınlar gibi konuştuğunu duyunca kahkahalarına engel olamamışlardır (Haviland vd. 2002: 247). Kültürler arasındaki farklılıkların dikkate alınmaması görüldüğü üzere ortaya şaşırtıcı sonuçlar çıkaracaktır.

Farklı toplumlarda yaşayan her birey, kendini anlatmakta ve başkaları ile iletişim kurmakta yeterli ve yetkin olmayı arzular. Bireylerin kendisini başkalarına yeterince anlattığına ikna olmaları, yeni değerlerin yaratılmasını olanaklı kılar. İnsan, uygun anlatım yollarını ve araçlarını kullanarak kendisini ifade edebilir. Ayrıca insan ilişki kurduğu insanların duygularını, düşüncelerini de anlamak ister. İnsanın kendini başkalarına anlatabilmesi ve başkalarını anlayabilmesi için de iyi bir iletişime gereksinimi vardır. İnsanın bu yeterliliğe ve yetkinliğe ulaşabilmesi için bilgi, beceri, tutum ve öğrenme araçlarını ve öz anlatım yollarını kullanmalıdır. Bu açıdan değerlendirildiğinde dil “biyolojik kalıttan daha çok, insanların yaşantıları sonucunda elde ettikleri, kuşaktan kuşağa öğrenme ve iletişim yoluyla aktardıkları değerler bütünüdür” (Başaran 1994: 65).

Anlama yeteneğinin kazanılmasıyla başlayan dil öğrenimini konuşma aşaması izler. “Çocuk doğduktan sonra bir yıla yakın süre annesini dinler, anlamaya başlar, ancak anladığı oranda konuşamaz. Konuşma basit, kısa ve hatalı başlar, konuşa konuşa gelişir” (Vahapoğlu 2005: 135). Dil öğreniminde günümüze değin farklı yöntemler denenmiştir. 1960'lı yıllara kadar uzanan süreçte, tek yöntem olarak *duyumcu-dil (audio-lingual) yöntemi* benimsenmiş, ancak bu yöntem bireylere dil kullanım yetisini yeterince kazandıramamıştır. 1960'lı yıllardan sonra ise yeni bir yöntem geliştirilmiştir. Bu yönteme göre dil öğrenimi, bir alışkanlık edinimi değil, bilinçli bir kazanımdır. Başka bir anlatımla, dilde anlam ve dil öğreniminde zihin ve kişilik önem kazanır. Ana dile ilişkin varsayımlar ve doğuştan dil kazanım düzeneği, dil eğitiminde önemli bir yere sahiptir. Başarı için öğrenci kişiliğinin ve kültürünün esas alınması gerekir.

Yabancı Dil Öğretiminde Hedef Dilde Kültür

Yabancı dil öğretiminde hedef dil ile ana dil arasındaki farklılıkların ortaya konulması, ikinci dil öğretiminin daha başarılı bir şekilde yapılmasını sağlar. Bu bağlamda, “hedef dilin düşünce biçiminin, mantığının, o dilin konuşulduğu farklı toplumsal ve yaşamsal pratiklerin bilinmesi önemlidir” (Han 2007: 300). Bazı durumlarda yabancı dil grubunun kültürünü anlamadıkça öğretilen tümceler ve konuşma parçaları öğrenene anlamsız gelebilir. Bu duruma örnek olarak Afrika ülkelerindeki eğitim sistemi üzerinde yabancı eğitim sistemlerinin mevcut etkisi gösterilebilir. Sömürgeci ülkelere alınan ve Afrika ülkelerinin özelliklerine uygun olmayan eğitim sistemleri, bu ülkelerdeki eğitimin gelişmesini engellemektedir.

Toplumların kültürel değerleri, dil öğretimi sırasında dikkate alınması gereken bir diğer önemli konudur. “Değer”, bir nesnenin ya da olayın birey için önemini belirleyen inançtır. “Norm” ise bir değer sınırlarını çizer, insana ne ölçüde değer vermesi ya da vermemesi gerektiğini gösterir. İşte bu noktada eğitimcinin, öğrenci için değerli olan ve olmayanların farkında olması, eğitimde hedeflenen başarı için vazgeçilmez olacaktır. Eğitimci özellikle öğrencinin önem verdiği konuları eğitim sürecinde kullanabilirse hedefine daha da yaklaşacaktır. Bir toplumun üyelerinin çoğunluğunca önemli bulunan, yaygın bir kültürün özünü oluşturan güçlü çekirdek değerlerin değişmesi kültürü de kökten değişime uğratar. Sözgelimi, dilin öz değerlerini oluşturan sözcüklerin yerine yabancı sözcükler kullanılırsa, dil bozulur. Bireylerin yaş, meslek ve konulara olan ilgi düzeylerine göre oluşan özel değerler, öğrenme ve iletişim yoluyla aktarılır. Bu süreçte yetersiz kalan değerler değiştirilir ya da geliştirilir. Böylece kültürel değerler kuşaktan kuşağa zenginleşir. Bunun yanı sıra toplumun bazı kesimleri tarafından belirli sürelerde takip edilen moda değerlerin bilinmesi eğitimde başarı açısından önemlidir. Moda ve özel değerler kullanılarak öğrencinin ilgisi derse kolaylıkla çekilebilir. Örneğin, günümüzde gençler arasında moda olan “facebook” ve “twitter” gibi sosyal paylaşım ağlarının öğretim sürecinde kullanılması, öğrencilerin ilgisini çeker ve başarılarını arttırır.

Eğitim, insanı yaşama hazırlayan tüm sosyal süreçleri içerir. “Başka kişilerle birlikte yaşarken, deneyimsiz olan çocuk, onlarla nasıl ilişki kuracağını öğrenir, onların tavırlarını, davranışlarını ve dillerini örnek alır” (Guttek 2001: 5). Öğrenme ise, bilgi ile donanmaktan

ziyade, bu bilgilerin beceri olarak eyleme dönüştürülme sürecini de kapsar. Kültürel değerler öğrenilmeden, bilgilerin eyleme dönüştürülmesi oldukça zordur. Karşılaştığı yerli ya da yabancı kültüre ait insanlarla sağlıklı bir etkileşime girebilmek için “kültürel okuryazar da olmak gerekir” (Erdoğan 2008: 12). Birçok durumda yabancı dil bildiği halde, yabancı ülkenin kültürünü bilmediği için gittiği ülkede kültür şokuna giren ve bu nedenle uzun süre çekingen davranışlarda bulunan kişilere rastlanır. Bu konu o kadar yaygındır ki, yabancı bir ülkeye ilk gidişinde telefonu açan bir öğrencinin karşısındakinin yabancı dil konuşması üzerine ani bir hareketle telefonu kapattığı görülmüştür.

Bilindiği üzere eğer bir insanı anlamak istiyorsak, dünyaya onun bakış tarzıyla bakmalı, olayları onun gibi algılamaya ve yaşamaya çalışmalıyız. Bir kişinin kendisini karşısındaki kişinin yerine koyarak olaylara onun bakış açısıyla bakması, o kişinin duygularını ve düşüncelerini tam ve doğru olarak anlaması, hissetmesi sürecine “empati” denilir (Rogers 1983: 103- 124). İngilizce’de “empati”yi açıklamak için, söz konusu olaya diğer taraftaki kişinin ayakkabılarını giyerek bakması gerektiği “If I were in your shoes” ifadesiyle anlatılır. Askeri eğretilenme açısından oldukça zengin olan İngilizcede savaşla ve savaş taktikleriyle ilgili pek çok sözcük karşımıza çıkmaktadır: Uzayı fethetme, bütçe, meydan muharebesi, fakirliğe karşı savaşı kazanma, tartışmayı ateşleme, pazarı öldürme, sınavda bombalama bu eğretilenmeler arasında sayılabilir ancak bu durum, pek çok dilde görülmeyebilir.

Her toplumun dili, o toplum üyelerinin birbirleri ile iletişim ihtiyaçlarına yanıt verebilecek biçimdedir. Akrabalık ilişkilerine önem veren ülkelerde, batı dillerine oranla daha fazla akrabalık gösteren sözcük bulunmaktadır. Pek çok dilde kuzen, annenin kız kardeşi ve anne için aynı sözcük, baba ve babanın kardeşi için de yine aynı sözcük kullanılır. Bu kültürel değeri bilmeyen biri, baba ile babanın kardeşine aynı ismi veren toplum üyelerinin her ikisini de ayırt edemediği yanlışlığına düşebilir. Toplumun kültür yapısının bir parçası olarak gelişen böylesi bir adlandırma biçimini bilmeksizin, söz konusu dili toplumsal bağlantılardan bağımsız öğretmeyi veya öğrenmeyi hedefleyen bireyin, dil öğreniminde kısmi başarısızlığa uğraması kaçınılmaz olacaktır. Türkçede bulunan amcaoğlu, dayıoğlu, halakızı, görümce, baldız, bacanak, elti gibi sözcüklerin bazı dillerde karşılıkları bulunmamaktadır. Genişletilmiş aile” kavramının geçerli olduğu Gambiya’da ise babanın erkek kardeşine de “baba” denilmektedir. Bir eve gelin gelen kadın, hem

evlendiği kişiye hem de evlendiği kişinin erkek kardeşlerine “koca”, aynı şekilde eşin erkek kardeşleri de kardeşlerinin eşlerine “karım” demektedirler. Benzer şekilde zamana önem veren bazı ülkelerde, zaman daha küçük parçalarda ifade edilebilirken, bazı ülkelerde de kuşluk vakti, akşamüstü, öğle üzeri gibi genel ifadeler kullanılmaktadır.

Bolivya'nın dağlık bölgesinde yaşayan Aymara yerlilerinin temel besin maddesi, patatestir ve kullandıkları dilde patates ve kullanımı ile ilgili 200'ün üzerinde sözcük vardır. Aynı yerde ormanda yaşayan yerlilerde ise bal ile ilgili pek çok sözcük bulunmaktadır (Haviland vd. 2002: 244). Aynı şekilde Afrika'nın göçebe halkı Nehurlar için büyükbaş hayvan o kadar önemlidir ki, büyükbaş hayvanı tasvir eden 400 sözcük dillerine girmiştir, hatta çocuklarına bile büyükbaş hayvan isimlerini verdikleri görülür (Haviland vd. 2002: 155). Böylece bir taraftan Nehurların dili öğrenilirken, diğer taraftan bu yerlilerle hayvanlar arasındaki yakın ilişkiler de incelenmiş olur. Benzer şekilde Eskimolarda kar tanesini, Arapçada da deveyi anlatan pek çok sözcüğe rastlamak olasıdır. Bunun yanı sıra kültürel farklılaşmayı anlatan öğeler arasına renkleri de ekleyebiliriz. Müslüman ülkelerde popüler renk olan “yeşil”, “murat”ı çağrıştırırken, Fransa, İsveç ve Hollanda'da “kozmetikler”i, cangıl ülkelerinde ise “hastalık”ları ifade etmektedir. Anlaşılacağı üzere, her kültürün deneyimleri, farklı sınıflanır. Ancak bütün bu sav ve varsayımlar, bizi, ekinsel göreceliği sabitleştirip normlaştıracak ve de uygarlıklar için daha ayrımcı bir dünya modeline asla yönlendirmemelidir (Güleç 2009: 84–85).

Toplumlar, geçmişe ilişkin olarak, tüm üyeleri tarafından paylaşılan ortak bir belleğe sahiptir. Bireyler bu noktadan hareketle geleceğe yönelik bir “gönderim çerçevesi” yaratırlar. Bu simgesel evren bir kültürden diğerine farklılık gösterir. Böyle olunca da toplumların oluşturduğu dizisel dizgelerde farklılaşır. Dizisel dizgelerin yapısı öğrenildiğinde farklı simgesel evrenlerin oluşumunu da anlamak kolaylaşacaktır. Dilin taşıyıcı özelliğiyle de kişi, her gün bir simgeler dünyasında yaşar ve bilgi dağarcığını bu simgeler aracılığı ile doldurur. Farklı uygulamalara karşı, kültürler, birbirinden farklı tepkiler verecektir. Yapılan araştırmalar öğrenmede pekiştirme süreci gibi temel bir sürecin bile kültürel öğelerin etkisinde olduğu görülmektedir. Bu kapsamda Japon bir öğrencinin pekiştirme sürecine verdiği tepkilerin, Amerikalı bir öğrenciden farklı olduğu tespit edilmiştir (Triandis 1987: 15-17). Öğrenme ve pekiştirme arasında evrensel bir ilişki olmasına karşın, kültürel farklılıklar öğrenme ve pekiştirme sürecini etkilemektedir.

Japonlar daha az bireyci olduklarından başka bir kişiye pekiştirme uygulandığında da kendilerine uygulanmış gibi tepki gösterebilmektedirler.

Toplumlara ve kültürlere ilişkin evrensel doğrular belirleme alışkanlığı, bilimde ve insan ilişkilerinde önemli sorunlar yaratmaktadır. Örneğin, Japon kültüründe grup ve aileye duyulan bağımlılık, bağımsız birey yetiştiren Amerikan kültürüne oranla geri olarak açıklanırsa, bu mantıklı ve bilimsel bir açıklama olmaz. Amerikalı anne sanki bebek anlıyormuş gibi sürekli çocuğu ile konuşur. Amerikalı anne, girişken bir çocuğu olmasını ister. Çin’de ise bu tür davranışlar saygısızlık olarak algılanır. Japon anne ise sessiz bir çocuğun peşindedir. Japonların sözsüz iletişimde başarılı oldukları ve daha iyi algıladıkları bilinmektedir (Ouchi 1982: 48-66). Eğitimcinin de çocuğun yetiştiği kültürü bilmesi; Japon bir çocuk için sözsüz iletişim ağırlıklı eğitim planlarken, Amerikalı çocuğun girişken özelliklerini dikkate alması yararlı olacaktır.

Sonuç

Sonuç olarak, her dil, yeni bir yaşam ve düşünce tarzını içerir. Bu nedenle yeni bir dil öğrenmek bir bakıma yeni bir kültürü, yeni bir düşünceyi ve yeni bir yaşam tarzını öğrenmeye başlamak demektir. Yabancı dil öğrenimi, öğrencinin düşünce ve kişiliğiyle, toplumsal yaşamı ve doğuştan itibaren çevresinden edindiği kültürle yakın ilişki içerisindeydir. Bir başka deyişle dil öğretimi, bir kültür aktarımıdır. Bu bağlamda hedef dilde anlatmak istediğimiz duygu ve düşünceler, dilbilim kurallarının eğitimi dışında, dil-kültür öğretimini de zorunlu kılar. Eğer kültürel kavramları anlayabilirsek, farklı kültürlerin ve bu kültürdeki insanların dünyayı nasıl gördüğünü ve başka insanlara verdikleri tepkileri kolay bir biçimde fark edebiliriz. Bunun yanı sıra, sağlam bir yabancı dil eğitiminde, öğrencinin kültürel özellikleri kadar öğretilen dilin kültürünün de öğretilmesinin, bir taraftan öğrencinin dili daha iyi öğrenmesini sağlarken, diğer taraftan öğrencinin evrensel değerler süzgecinden geçen bir dünya görüşü kazanmasını da sağlayacaktır. Bu kapsamda konusu kültür olan halkbiliminin ortaya koyduğu verilerden yararlanmak, dil öğretiminde hiç kuşku yok ki başarıyı arttıracaktır.

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Dr. Melek Alpar, Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü Fransız Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda öğretim üyesi olarak görev yapmaktadır. İlgilendiği alanlar, çocuklara yabancı dil öğretimi ve metodoloji. İlköğretim okulu 6. sınıf Fransızca dersi televizyon programları projesinde program yazarlığı ve Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı İlköğretim Genel Müdürlüğü'nde İlköğretim öğretim programlarını hazırlamakta görev almıştır.

The Importance of Cultural Components in Foreign Language Teaching

Abstract

Problem Statement: The relationship between the social and cultural organizations of societies and languages is the subject of folklore. Each language contains a new form of life and thought. Language learning is also a process of culture transmission. A linguist should be aware of the fact that the language and culture of the society are the interconnected parts of a whole. In this context, an educator should not only aim at teaching a language, but also help students to develop their personality by taking their cultural background into consideration.

Method: At this point, this review paper looks at the cultural elements and their importance in foreign language learning contexts.

Findings and Results: Cultures have properties that are unique to them and these should be taken into account in the process of education. The emotions and ideas that we want to express in the target language make the teaching of socio-cultural structures a necessity, in addition to the teaching of the rules of the language.

Conclusion: In this respect, it is evaluated that benefiting from the data put forward by folklore will increase success in language teaching.

Keywords: folklore, culture, language education, linguistic, cultural difference.

**Performance Differences between ELT Freshmen's
Receptive and Productive Skills¹**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: This study investigates whether the freshmen's education at the preparatory school makes a meaningful difference in the freshmen's performances who attend the preparatory programme and those who are exempt from this programme. Thus, it will lead to analyze the fact that whether the foreign language instruction that is offered at the preparatory school make learners more successful when they start their education in the department, and in what skills the preparatory school helps learners develop more. In doing so, the efficiency of the preparatory school will become clearer, and both teachers and learners will be aware of their level of achievement.

Purpose of the Study: This study mainly aims to find out whether there are performance differences among ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the Gazi University preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year in terms of receptive and productive skills. In addition, the aforementioned research question will be analyzed in three dimensions; a) in terms of their attendance at the preparatory school b) in terms of gender c) in terms of programme type.

Method: This research employs quantitative design. The data related to freshmen's gender, programme type and the information whether they attended the preparatory programme or not was gathered. Participants are 260 freshmen in total, 210 of whom are females, while

¹ This article is the extended summary of the author's Master Thesis in 2011, and is presented at METU Embracing Challenges Conference, Ankara, Turkey, 31 May – 2 June, 2012.

50 of them are males. While 122 of these freshmen are enrolled in the day programme, 138 of them are enrolled in the evening programme. They took Gazi University English Language Proficiency Exam one year before the time of this study. Their mid-term and final scores were gathered separately in addition to their gender, programme type and the fact that whether they attended preparatory school or not. 40% of their mid-term exams and 60% of their final exams were calculated for each skill course in both terms as it is stated in Gazi University Registrar's Office Regulations. Exam scores of fall and spring terms were compared and commented on as well as the gender and education type.

Findings and Results: It is obvious in this study that their attendance at the preparatory school does not have a considerable effect on overall skills in spite of the fact that it causes some differences in certain terms and skills. Gender, similar to the attendance at the preparatory programme, does not lead to a worthwhile difference in the freshmen's performances overall. Programme type, on the other hand, may be claimed to play a more important role in determining the freshmen's success in receptive and productive skills.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The preparatory school exposed learners to foreign language skills more via various materials and opportunities; however, it needs to update its materials, gain more insight into learners' less successful skills and their needs. Another alternative study, that is, the comparison of learners' performances in receptive and productive skills can be carried out in all English Language Teaching (ELT) preparatory programmes of Turkish universities.

Keywords: English language preparatory programme, productive and receptive skills, ELT freshmen

Introduction

Determining foreign language levels of learners in a course or program by assessing them in terms of four skills reveals significant results and implications both for the programme and learners. Receptive and productive skills are the combination of four skills - listening, reading, speaking and writing skills (Morrow, 2004); therefore, they have been integrated into the language programmes depending on the approaches, methods and latest trends. Turkey gives utmost importance to English as a foreign language instruction at private nursery, primary, secondary, high schools and universities (Kırkgöz, 2008).

Specifically, preparatory programmes at universities prepare ELT students for both English language proficiency and content knowledge. These two elements complete each other of becoming qualified teachers; thus, being sure of their performances, skills, proficiency levels and content knowledge is important for them. More research should be done on the performance of teacher trainees and learners in the ELT departments as the results will reveal the efficiency of approaches adapted, course books used, and programmes of preparatory schools and ELT departments. In line with this hypothesis, this study focuses on whether there are performance differences among ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the Gazi University preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year in terms of receptive and productive skills. In addition, the aforementioned research question will be analyzed in three dimensions; a) in terms of their attendance at the preparatory school b) in terms of gender c) in terms of programme type. The preparatory programme at Gazi University will be analysed and discussed in terms of successful and less successful parts of the application. The preparatory classes of Gazi University and foreign language instruction at this school will be analyzed through the findings of the study.

A relevant study to this problem was done twice; in 1994 and in 2002 when the preparatory school curriculum and examination system were quite different from that of today. Since then, no other study has been done on this issue; therefore, the results obtained from the previous studies should be compared with this study in order to see whether there have been any changes between the results of the previous studies and those obtained from this study.

Gazi University School of Foreign Languages

This institution consists of four foreign languages departments; English, French, German and Arabic languages. While each of these language departments has one class, English language preparatory programme has six classes at Gazi University. Each language department has its own syllabus, contents, materials and exams. There are 260 freshmen in this study. 148 of them passed the English Language Proficiency Exam at the beginning of the 2008 – 2009 academic year and attended the ELT department. 112 of them could not pass the exam; therefore, they had to continue their preparatory education for a year. Regardless of the programme type that learners attend at their departments, namely day

classes or evening classes, they are grouped randomly for English language preparatory classes. The departments of learners who are enrolled in this programme range from engineering to medical sciences and tourism. Those whose majors are ELT are categorized different from the aforementioned groups.

In ELT preparatory programme, there are 6 classes, each of them with 18 or 19 learners and 12 instructors in total. They have a tight schedule; in other words, they have classes from 9.00 am to 3.00 pm in weekdays except for Friday. Classes start at 9.00 am and end at 12.00 pm. In total, they have 27 hours of English language skills courses. These courses range from reading, writing to listening, speaking and grammar. They are taught as separate lessons. To illustrate, 9 hours is allotted as 'main course' lessons, where Language Leader is used as course book. Reading, writing, listening and grammar courses are given 6 hours each in a week. In terms of materials, different course books are preferred for each skill course. For instance, 'Reading Connection I and II' are used in reading skill courses. These course books start at intermediate level and finish at upper intermediate level. For writing skill courses, 'Academic Writing I and II' from intermediate to upper intermediate level are preferred. As for listening skill courses, 'Listening Encounter I and II' from intermediate to upper intermediate level are used in classes. Lastly, 'English Grammar in Use for Advanced Learners' is preferred for grammar teaching. There is not a special course book for speaking skill; however, it is emphasized and practiced in each skill course in an integrated way. Instructors at Gazi University Preparatory School of Foreign Languages follow communicative approach and skill based method for ELT classes but they may vary in their choice of techniques and principles. They have their weekly meetings on certain days in a week and they discuss teaching and learning process of their own classes. They may criticize or approve of course books according to unit topics, exercises, applications and order. Each ELT class follows nearly the same order of units and exercises; therefore, teacher roles do not play a significant role for the results of this study.

Learners who have just enrolled in a department at Gazi University are to take English Proficiency Exam at the beginning of each academic year. This exam is conducted for two days. On the first day, learners take reading, listening, writing and grammar tests in a paper-based format. The exam is in multiple-choice format. On condition that learners get

70 scores in the exam on the first day, they are allowed to take the speaking exam on the next day. Those whose scores are below 70 are to have one-year compulsory preparatory programme. Speaking exam is divided into two parts; spoken production and spoken interaction. In the first one, the learner talks about the topic that is given spontaneously for five minutes. In the latter part, pairs are formed and they are given a task based on either information gap or role-play. They are to talk or act out according to instructions for 10 minutes. Two instructors are responsible for the speaking exam each year in a class. When two-day lasting exam is completed, results are announced soon according to the criteria. Learners are to pass 70 passing grade in two day lasting exam so that they can attend their major departments.

Gazi University English Language Teaching Department

ELT department at Gazi University offers four-year lasting programme for teacher trainees. Learners who have just passed the university entrance exam and preparatory school English proficiency exam, and those who have had 70 scores in the preparatory school as a result of the mid-term and final exams are to attend the 1st grade in ELT department. There are 10 classes at the 1st grade, half of which are day classes and the rest are evening classes. These two groups have courses at different hours in a day. However, whether these learners attended the preparatory programme or not are not taken into account while classes are being formed. Each class consists of 26 or 27 learners. Freshmen have 8 courses in each term and these courses vary from English language skill courses to history and educational studies. There are approximately 26 learners in each class and 7 instructors responsible for these skill based courses at the department. There are 10 classes in total in the 1st grades, half of which are day classes and the rest is evening classes. Although courses are at different hours for each class, skill based courses have a unity and common framework. Unlike preparatory school, classes start according to learners' programme type; day or evening programme. They have 3 hours courses for each skill. However, reading and writing are united as a course called as 'advanced reading and writing skills I and II' for fall and spring terms.

On the other hand, listening and speaking courses are taught as separate courses for each term at 1st grade. They are called 'Listening and Pronunciation Skill I and II' and 'oral communication skills I and II'. As it is stated above, skill based courses have a unity

and a common framework in terms of the syllabus and course books although they are taught at different hours. Instructors use compiled notes taken from various sources for each skill.

As to reading and writing skills course, a book of short stories is used for all classes. Reading and writing activities are done in an integrated way. Different novels are read as a part of homework and they are assigned for the exams. With regard to listening skills, the course book 'Just – upper intermediate' by Harmer and Lethaby (2007) is used. Besides, TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) listening skill exercises and authentic materials are used to practise listening skills. Lastly, compiled notes consisting of speaking exercises and the reference book 'Knowing me, Knowing you' (Wingate, 2000) are followed for oral communication skills course. By the way, different authentic activities and exercises designed by instructors are practised in the class. Likewise at preparatory school, instructors follow communicative approach and skill based method in their classes. Cognitive skills are developed via task based, gap and communicative activities. Materials and course books are chosen on this common basis. Essay types and genres such as letters, comparison and contrast paragraphs, and argumentative essays are introduced to learners via authentic materials in the writing course. Learners are asked to write these various forms and genres within time. Reading skills, on the other hand, are developed via short stories and authentic reading materials. Certain strategies like how to guess unknown words from the text, reading comprehension, skimming, scanning, cloze test procedure and so forth are taught and practiced at the reading course. When it comes to listening skills course, TOEFL exercises and authentic audio materials are used to involve learners in real life activities and tasks in the class. Strategies like filling in the gaps, listening for main and detailed information, understanding the message in a phone conversation, contents in a lecture, or instructions to use an electronic device, developing pronunciation by writing and pronouncing phonetic alphabet are conducted in this course. It employs authentic listening materials and speech samples used in different discourses in order to be analyzed as communication-oriented classroom activities. Speaking course, on the other hand, offers a variety of different communication-oriented speaking activities such as discussions, individual presentations and other interactive tasks providing opportunity for students to improve their oral competence by developing effective language use both in formal and

informal contexts. Task based approach and gap activities are on the basis of this course.

Learners are to have one mid-term and one final exam for each term. As part of their final exams, learners are asked to fulfill a take home task for each skill. These exams are the same for all classes. In other words, they are prepared and conducted by all instructors. As far as exams of each skill course, they are done according to the syllabus and content of the related course. In other words, advanced reading and writing course exams are conducted in paper-based format. Learners are required to answer the comprehension check questions of a text, to guess the unknown words from the text, to write both a comparison and contrast paragraph, and an argumentative essay on one of the quotations from the stories that they read in the class. Listening exams consist of 50% listening strategies and skills, and 50% pronunciation skills. In listening skills part, learners listen to an audio recording twice and then, are required to answer certain questions related to the listening text. In pronunciation part, learners are to write the phonetic descriptions of symbols. As to oral communication skills exams, they are conducted in the form of interviews. Namely, an instructor interviews each student for 5 – 7 minutes on a given topic spontaneously. These exams are compulsory and are not repeated again for any reason. 40% of the mid-term exams and 60% of the final exams are added at the end of each term. As a result, learners from AA to DC+ can pass these courses for each term. Scores are calculated and are reliable only for the related term.

Limitations of the Study

As the title of the study suggests, this study focuses on receptive and productive skills of the freshmen at Gazi University ELT Department. However, speaking and listening skills are studied as separate courses while reading and writing courses are unified into a single course. This situation shows that reading and writing scores of learners are evaluated and assessed through a single exam. Therefore, while analyzing the results, these two skills will not be commented on separately, which is one of the limitations of this study. Their gender, instruction type, their mid-term and final scores are taken into account regardless of their age and the high school type which they were graduated from. Since Super High Schools have been converted into Anatolian High Schools without providing the necessary background for those schools, it will not be suitable to consider which type of high school the students come from in this study.

Methodology

Aim of the Study

In this study, the purposes are to reveal the performance differences between the freshmen's receptive and productive skills. On the basis of this purpose, the main research question is as follows:

1. 'Are there performance differences among ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the Gazi University preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year in terms of receptive and productive skills?'

To be able to analyze those skills, each of them needs to be dealt separately just as courses are designed. Therefore, relevant to the main research question, sub – category questions are listed below;

1.1 Is there a meaningful difference in listening skills between ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year?

1.2 Is there a meaningful difference in reading skills between ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year?

1.2 Is there a meaningful difference in speaking skills between ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year?

1.4 Is there a meaningful difference in writing skills between ELT freshmen who attended and who did not attend the preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year?

1.5 Do these results differ according to gender of ELT freshmen?

1.6 Do these results differ according to programme type of ELT freshmen?

These research questions are examined in a quantitative design. This study focuses on the freshmen's scores of the basic language skills, which are categorized into two phases; receptive and productive skills.

Participants

Their freshman year was in 2009 – 2010 academic year at Gazi University ELT department. There are ten classes consisting of day and evening classes. They are 260 freshmen in total, 210 whom are females, while 50 of them are males. While 122 of these freshmen are enrolled in the day programme, 138 of them are enrolled in evening programme. These learners took Gazi University English Language Proficiency Exam one year before the time of this study. Those who got 60 out of 100 in this exam attended to the

first grade at ELT department. They were 148 in number. The rest, 112 learners, failed and attended preparatory school for a year at Gazi University Preparatory School of Foreign Languages.

Data Analysis

The independent samples T test was used for the evaluation of the data; therefore, t and p values were taken into account for the analysis of the scores of each skill in fall and spring terms separately. The reason for choosing independent samples t test is that there is a dependent variable and a factor that has an effect on that variable. The factor whose effect was analyzed on the dependent variable had two independent dimensions. The scores related to the dependent variable were independent of each other. These two independent dimensions in this study were the fact that whether learners attended preparatory school or not. Consequently, the dependent variable is their exam scores in each skill. In addition, the gender and education types of learners may affect the dependent variable, thus these dimensions were listed in tables separately. As for the symbols, f stands for frequency while p means percentage on the tables below. N is number of participants. X is for mean while sd stands for standard deviation. Degree of freedom is the acronym of S. What's more, t shows meaningful difference between the two independent samples. Lastly, significance of the values is the acronym of p.

Results and Discussion

Differences between Performances

As it is clearly stated in Gazi University Registrars Office Regulations, learners who are enrolled in Gazi University ELT programme are to take the English language proficiency exam. Those who get 70 or more may continue their education at the department while those who get less than 70 points are to attend the preparatory school regardless of their programme type. Besides, performance differences in this study imply the basic language skills; reading, writing, listening and speaking. Among these skills, reading and writing skills are united in a course. Nonetheless, course contents, syllabus designs and activities are prepared and studied separately for these skills. What's more, the exams are scheduled and evaluated accordingly.

Table 1

The freshmen's reading and writing scores in fall and spring in terms of attendance at the preparatory programme

	Prep. Programme	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Fall	attended	112	63,90	9,14	258	2,779	,006
	did not attend	148	60,69	9,26			
Spring	attended	112	64,31	8,04	258	2,218	,027
	did not attend	148	61,85	9,04			

The table displays both fall and spring terms results. For the first one, 112 freshmen attended the preparatory school in 2009 – 2010 academic year while 148 did not. It is obvious that more than half of the freshmen in this study did not attend the preparatory school. According to the results of T test, the freshmen who attended the preparatory school ($X= 63,90$) are more successful than those who did not attend ($X= 60,69$) in terms of reading and writing skills in fall term. Besides, the difference among the freshmen's scores in fall term is meaningful as $t(258)= 2,779$ and $p< .01$. In other words, the fact that whether they attended the preparatory programme or not has a vital effect on their reading and writing performances. As for the latter, 148 freshmen did not attend the preparatory school, whereas 112 attended in 2009 – 2010 academic year. The difference among the freshmen's reading and writing scores in spring term is meaningful as $t(258)= 2,218$ and $p<.05$. Namely, their attendance at the preparatory school plays an important role in determining their success in reading and writing skills. Likewise in the fall term, those who attended the preparatory school ($X= 64,31$) are more successful than those who did not ($X= 61,85$) in spring term reading and writing skills course. In line with the data from fall and spring terms, those who attended the preparatory programme are more successful than those who did not in terms of their reading and writing skills. Also, the difference in fall term seems to be more significant compared to the spring term.

Table 5

The freshmen's listening scores in fall and spring according to attendance at the preparatory school

	Prep. Programme	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Fall	attended	112	66,91	10,66	258	1,412	,159
	did not attend	148	64,95	11,35			
Spring	attended	112	70,94	8,58	258	1,736	,084
	did not attend	148	68,78	10,78			

When it comes to listening skills in fall term, those who attended the preparatory programme are as successful as those who did not in listening skills as $p > .05$. Also, it is observed that there is not a meaningful difference between the scores of the freshmen in two variables as $p > .05$ and $t(258) = 1,412$. Consequently, their attendance at the preparatory programme does not have a considerable effect on determining their success in listening skills. As to the spring term, the freshmen who attended the preparatory programme are as successful as those who did not attend the preparatory programme in spring term listening skills. The difference between the scores of the freshmen in spring term, on the other hand, is not significant since $p > .05$ and $t(258) = 0,084$. It is just like the fall term listening scores. Therefore, their attendance at the preparatory school is not effective enough in creating a meaningful difference among the listening exam results. To sum up, their attendance at the preparatory programme does not lead a considerable difference in their fall and spring term listening skills. Those who attended the preparatory programme are as successful as those who did not in both terms listening skills. The difference in spring term also is more significant than the one in fall term.

Table 6

The freshmen's speaking scores in fall and spring according to their attendance at the preparatory school

	Prep. Programme	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Fall	attended	112	73,31	7,98	258	1,834	,068
	did not attend	148	71,26	9,56			
Spring	attended	112	77,22	5,90	258	1,415	,158
	did not attend	148	76,1	6,62			

As far as the scores of speaking exams are considered in fall term, the number of the freshmen who attended preparatory school is 112, whereas the number of those who did not is 148 just like in the previous skills. To start with the fall term, $p > .05$ and $t(258) = 1,834$ reveal that the freshmen's performances in speaking skills are equal for both variables. Namely, those who did not attend the preparatory programme are as successful as those who did. Hence, a meaningful difference is found out between the programme variables, which shows that their attendance at the preparatory programme does not lead them to higher results in fall term speaking exams. In spring term, the results seem to be similar to the ones in fall term. When p is considered, it is clear that $p > .05$ and $t(258) = 1,415$, which means that just like in fall term, the freshmen in spring term are equally successful in their speaking course. Besides, a meaningful relation is not seen between the variables, attended or did not attend via $p = ,158$. Accordingly, whether the freshmen attended the preparatory programme or not is not significant in the results of their spring term speaking exams just as in fall term. In a nutshell, their success in fall and spring term speaking courses may not be affected by their attendance at the preparatory programme. Both sides are concluded with equal results. The difference in spring term is found to be less significant than the one in fall term.

The Freshmen's Performance Differences in terms of Gender

As one of the research questions aims to find out the meaningful difference among the freshmen's performance skills who attended and who did not attend preparatory program in terms of their gender, each basic language skill is analyzed and discussed on the

tables below. Although Gazi University ELT department like other ELT departments in Turkey has fewer males compared to girls, it is worthwhile to learn which group is more successful.

Table 7

The freshmen's reading and writing scores in fall and spring according to gender

	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Reading and Writing Fall	female	210	62,56	9,41	258	1,74	,082
	male	50	60,01	8,77			
Reading and Writing Spring	female	210	63,52	8,62	258	2,30	,022
	male	50	60,32	9,67			

The table 3.1. above displays the freshmen's performance differences on the basis of gender. Among 260 freshmen in this study, 210 are females while 50 are males for both terms. There seems to be a meaningful difference in the freshmen's gender in fall term as $p < .01$ and $t(258) = 1,74$. Gender causes a meaningful difference in their success in fall term reading and writing skills. When it comes to their performances for reading and writing skills, it is obvious that females ($X = 62,56$) are more successful than males ($X = 60,01$) in their reading and writing skills in fall term. As to spring term, females are as successful as males due to the $p > .01$ and $t(258) = 2,30$. Also, it can be claimed that there is a meaningful relation for reading and writing skills between the freshmen's gender in spring term, as well. In other words, gender does not play an important role in determining their success in spring term reading and writing skills. In brief, it is revealed that females are more successful than males in fall term reading and writing skills, whereas they are as successful as males in spring term reading and writing skills. Besides, gender may be considered an effective factor on the freshmen's score differences for fall term although it does not lead to the same difference for spring term results.

Table 8

The freshmen's listening scores in fall and spring according to gender

	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Listening Fall	female	210	66,67	10,98	258	2,63	,009
	male	50	62,13	10,84			
Listening Spring	female	210	70,41	9,43	258	2,34	,020
	male	50	66,78	11,48			

According to the table 3.2, males' performances in listening skills are less successful than females in 2009 – 2010 fall term. Since $p < .01$ and $t(258) = 2,63$, X value needs to be considered. ($X = 66,67$) for females and ($X = 62,13$) for males, which reveals that females are more successful in their listening exams in fall. What's more, the relationship between the freshmen's scores in listening skills are proved to be meaningful as $p < .01$ and $t(258) = 2,63$. Namely, the gender plays an important role in the freshmen's success. For spring term, since $p > .01$ and $t(258) = 2,34$ are shown on the table, it can be concluded that the success of females and males in listening courses are equal. In other words, males are as successful as females in spring term listening exams. As $p > .01$, it is not necessary to focus on X value for their success. Also, p value reveals that there is not a meaningful difference between the freshmen's scores in spring term, which means that the gender, contrary to the fall term, does not play a significant role in the freshmen's listening skills. To put it in a nutshell, males are less successful in fall term listening exams while they are as successful as females are in spring term. Gender, on the other hand, does not turn out to have a considerable role on determining their success in spring term listening skills although it does in fall term.

Table 9

The freshmen's speaking scores in fall and spring according to gender

	Gender	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Speaking Fall	female	210	71,92	8,96	258	,803	,422
	male	50	73,06	8,96			
Speaking Spring	female	210	76,49	6,26	258	,517	,605
	male	50	77,00	6,66			

Another dimension to pay attention to is speaking skills. $p > .05$; therefore, t value is not necessary to be taken seriously. The value of p displays that females and males are equally successful in their fall term speaking exams. Besides, $p > .05$ means that the gender does not have an important effect on the success of the freshmen's speaking skills as there is not a meaningful relationship in the factor 'gender'. Likewise in fall term, spring term results imply that $p > .05$, so both females and males are equally successful in their speaking exams. As $p > .05$, t is not an important factor for this table. The gender does not have a considerable effect in terms of their success in speaking skills since $p > .05$. In general, it can be claimed that the freshmen do not vary according to their gender in terms of their success in fall and spring term speaking skills. Both females and males are equally successful in speaking skills in 2009 – 2010 academic year.

The Freshmen's Performance Differences in terms of their Programme Type

OSYM, student selection and placement centre in Turkey, determines the highest and lowest scores every year for each university department in accordance with the scores of learners' university entrance exam. This decision reveals both whether learners can be enrolled in a university or not, and which programme type these learners can be enrolled in. Hence, Gazi University ELT department has 260 vacancies in 2009 – 2010 academic year and 122 consist of those who are enrolled in the day programme and 138 consist of the evening programme.

Table 10

The freshmen's reading and writing scores in fall and spring according to the programme type

	Programme Type	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Reading and Writing Fall	day programme	122	62,34	9,09	258	,433	,666
	evening programme	138	61,84	9,57			
Reading and Writing Spring	day programme	122	64,84	7,51	258	,345	,001
	evening programme	138	61,20	9,69			

In line with the table 4.1, 122 of the freshmen are enrolled in the day programme while 138 of them are enrolled in the evening programme. The statistics show that $p > .05$ so the freshmen's performances in fall term reading and writing skills do not vary according to the programme type. To be clear, programme type does not lead a meaningful difference among the scores of the freshmen in fall term reading and writing skills. In addition, those who are enrolled in the day programme are as successful as those who are enrolled in evening programme in fall term reading and writing skills. Since $p > .05$, t value is not paid attention. As for spring term, $p < .05$ and $t(258) = ,345$. To be precise, those who are enrolled in the day programme ($X = 64,84$) are more successful than those who are enrolled in evening programme ($X = 61,20$) in spring term reading and writing skills. What's more, as $p < .05$, there is a meaningful difference in the freshmen's success in spring term reading and writing skills. It is obvious that programme type in spring term determines the success of freshmen in reading and writing skills. In a nutshell, the programme type may be a determining factor in spring term results, whereas it may not be so in fall term. Those in the day programme are more successful than those in evening programme in spring term reading and writing exams. However, they are as successful as those in evening programme in fall term reading and writing skills.

Table 11

The freshmen's listening scores in fall and spring according to programme type

	Programme Type	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Listening Fall	day programme	122	66,33	11,24	258	,727	,468
	evening programme	138	65,33	10,96			
Listening Spring	day programme	122	71,64	9,48	258	2,981	,003
	evening programme	138	68,01	10,05			

When it comes to listening skills, the freshmen in evening programme are as successful as those in the day programme in fall term listening course, as $p > .05$ and $t(258) = ,727$. Besides, the programme type may not have a leading role in determining their success in fall term listening exams since $p > .05$, which implies there is not a meaningful relation between the scores of the freshmen in fall term listening exams. For spring term, $p < .05$ and $t(258) = 2,981$, which reveals that the freshmen in evening programme ($X = 68,01$) are less successful than those in the day programme ($X = 71,64$) in listening skills. Programme type, on the other hand, may have a considerable role on their success in listening exams since there is a meaningful difference in their success in listening skills according to the programme types due to $p < .05$. In short, the values suggest that the programme type is a less determining factor on the freshmen's success in fall term listening skills as both sides are equally successful. For spring term, on the contrary, the freshmen in the day programme are more successful than those in the evening programmes. The programme type in spring term plays a vital role in their success in listening skills.

Table 12

The freshmen's speaking scores in fall and spring according to programme type

	Programme Type	N	X	S	sd	t	p
Speaking Fall	day programme	122	73,22	7,96	258	1,839	,067
	evening programme	138	71,18	9,67			
Speaking Spring	day programme	122	78,08	6,01	258	3,669	,000
	evening programme	138	75,26	6,34			

Lastly, the freshmen in the day programme are as successful as those in evening programme in terms of fall speaking skills. Since $p > .05$, t is not obligatory to be focused on. What's more, the programme type in their success in speaking skills does not have an important role. Due to the fact that $p > .05$, there is not a meaningful relation on the basis of the programme type. As for spring term, $p < .05$ and $t(258) = 3,669$. This result implies the freshmen in the day programme are considerably more successful than those in evening programme for speaking skills. $p < .05$; therefore, it is obvious that there is a meaningful relation between the scores of the freshmen in daily and evening programmes. In other words, the programme type plays a more crucial role on determining the success of the freshmen in daily and evening programmes. Consequently, the values imply the freshmen in daily and evening programmes are equally successful in fall term speaking skills. In contrary to the fall term, the freshmen in the day programme are more successful than those in evening programmes in spring term speaking skills. On the other hand, while the programme type plays a significant role in spring term, it is not the same in fall term.

Conclusion and Suggestions

This study has focused on the comparison of ELT freshmen's performances in receptive and productive skills. Their attendance, gender and programme type have been questioned in terms of their roles on the freshmen's performances in receptive and productive skills. In line with the aforementioned factors, the syllabus of the preparatory programme can be considered and improved by suggesting various unit plans and materials. Also, instructors' effect on the freshmen's performances may be analysed. The materials

they use, the principles they follow in classes and content of the exams they conduct may be searched. The percentages of receptive and productive skills in preparatory school can be made equal to each other in freshmen's exams and evaluation. What's more, the reliability and validity of the English language proficiency exam conducted at the beginning of each academic year in order to determine learners' levels can be questioned and searched. Another alternative study may be that the comparison of learners' performances in receptive and productive skills can be carried out in all ELT preparatory programmes of Turkish universities.

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İngilizce Öğretmenliği Birinci Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Algısal ve Üretimsel Becerileri Arasındaki Farklar

Öz

Araştırma Konusu: Bu çalışma hazırlık eğitiminin 1. sınıf öğrencilerinin algısal ve üretimsel becerilerine etkisi olup olmadığını ve bu etkinin hazırlık eğitimi alan ve almayan 1. Sınıf öğrencilerin algısal ve üretimsel becerilerdeki performanslarına etki edip etmediğini sorgular. Dolayısıyla, bu çalışma hazırlık eğitimi alan ve almayan 1. sınıf öğrencilerin algısal ve üretimsel becerileri arasında fark olup olmadığını bulmayı amaçlar.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Nicel araştırma modelinin kullanıldığı bu çalışmada 210 u bayan, 50 si erkek olmak üzere toplam 260 1. Sınıf öğrencisi bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Bunlardan 112 si 1. öğretimde, 138 i ise 2. öğretimde okumaktadır. İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümüne kaydolduktan sonra tüm öğrenciler hazırlık okulu tarafından düzenlenen İngilizce yeterlik sınavına girerek, bu sınavda 100 üzerinden en az 60 geçme notunu aldıklarında doğrudan

bölüme devam etme hakkına sahiptir. Bu çalışmada 148 öğrenci hazırlığı geçmiş, 112 si ise geçer not alamadığı için 1 yıllık hazırlık eğitimi görmüşlerdir. Gazi Üniversitesi Öğrenci İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı'ndan alınan bu notlar, üç farklı boyutta incelenmiştir. Bunlar öğrencilerin hazırlık eğitimi alıp almadığı, cinsiyetleri ve kayıtlı olduğu öğrenim türleridir. Öncelikle, bu üç değişken için ayrı tablolar düzenlenerek, sayısal veri netleştirilmiştir. Ardından, her bir beceri sırasıyla bu üç değişkene göre incelenmiştir. Daha sonra, bu çalışmada birbirinden bağımsız değişkenler olduğu için, bu değişkenler arasındaki farkı ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla ilişkisiz örneklem T- testi deseni kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular: hazırlık eğitimi alan öğrenciler, bu eğitimi almayanlara göre güz ve bahar yarıyılı okuma ve yazma becerilerinde daha başarılı bulunmuşlardır. Hazırlık okulu bu başarıda anlamlı bir fark yaratarak etkisinin önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. Dinleme ve konuşma becerileri için ise, hazırlık eğitimi alan ve almayan öğrenciler arasında anlamlı bir başarı farkı bulunmamıştır. Diğer bir deyişle, her iki grup eşit şekilde başarılı bulunmuştur.

Sonuç: hazırlık okulunda takip edilen müfredatı, hocaların beceri derslerinde uyguladığı yöntem ve kullandığı kaynaklara ve hazırlık atlama sınavının geçerlik ve güvenilirliğine yönelik önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Ayrıca, bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar, diğer üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarından aynı çalışma sonucu elde edilen bulgular ile karşılaştırılarak alana özgün bir katkıda bulunulabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce hazırlık okulu, algısal ve üretimsel beceriler, İngilizce öğretmenliği öğrencileri

The Use of Corpus for Close Synonyms

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Using corpora is still in its infancy in foreign language classes in spite of its great benefits and potential to offer solutions to the various challenges in foreign language instruction both for teachers and learners. This partly stems from a lack of interest and practical knowledge about the pedagogic role that the corpora can play. There is a pressing need to convince teachers of the great benefits of corpora with empirical data.

Purpose of Study: This research aims to explore the feasibility of using a corpus to help students differentiate between close synonyms which have similar meanings but cannot be substituted one for the other.

Method: This is quasi-experimental research based on a pre and post-test (one shot design) design. To this end, participants were introduced to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and asked to refer to the corpus when deciding the appropriate close synonym in the 50 sentences given. Participants were also interviewed upon completion of the task with the COCA about their use of corpus.

Findings and Results: The t-test showed that the use of corpus for deciding on close synonyms proved to be very effective as there was a statistically significant difference in participants' performance on the vocabulary portion of the pretest and post-test.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The present paper suggests that corpora can be a very rich and effective source of empirical data both for teachers and students to make foreign language learning more meaningful and enjoyable. Providing learners more exposure to authentic examples, corpora can be utilized for pedagogic purposes from syllabus design to

materials development. Yet, it needs to be integrated into language courses. Teachers should be made fully aware of what corpora offer for language teaching.

Keywords: corpora, close synonyms, corpus of contemporary American English

Introduction

Corpus Linguistics as a sub-branch of General Linguistics is one of the few fields that enable us to study authentic language use for various purposes. Given the current status of corpora in foreign language, it is fair to say that the benefits, the potential and the likely contributions of the corpus have been underestimated by language teachers for many years and thus the perceptions towards corpus use changed very slowly. With the advent of high speed computer technology and enormous storage capacity to process hundreds of millions of words, corpus linguistics has revolutionized the studies of language analysis in its real context, providing authentic real-life data and rich insights into the use of language in a variety of contexts.

The Use of Corpus for Language Teaching and Learning

A corpus refers to a systematic collection of naturally occurring written or spoken language samples in context, stored on a computer readily available for qualitative and quantitative analysis. A corpus is generated according to an explicit design principle (content/genre/typology/register, etc) for a variety of purposes. “A corpus...can allow users to get hundreds of examples in context in a matter of seconds in a readily accessible tool without training in computational linguistics. So corpus access software enables us to analyze these real-life language samples in a magic way which had not before been possible” (Kayaoğlu 2009, p. 139). Some tend to view the corpus as a methodological basis for linguistic analysis and a set of methods and procedures for the exploration of language (McEnery & Hardie 2011; Kennedy 1998; Biber et al., 1998; Conrad & Levelle, 2008). According to McEnery and Wilson (1996, p. 9) “corpus is the most reliable source of evidence for such features as frequency”.

Generally corpus software packages are characterized by three ways in which data is processed. They display frequency, phraseology and collocation. It is possible to know how many times the words, for example, *publicity*, and *attraction* occur in a corpus of tourism,

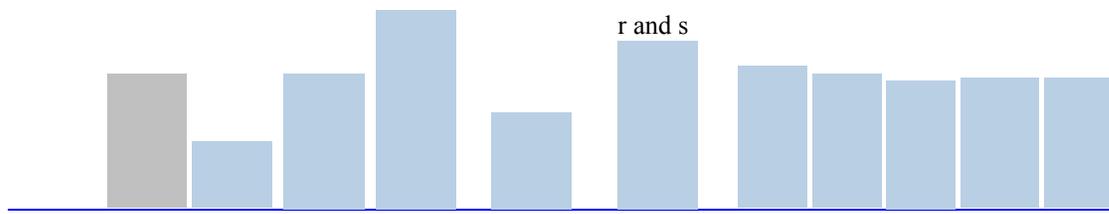
which we can then compare with the occurrences in other corpora. This may give us quantitative data in a matter of seconds without training in computational linguistics. It is also possible to compare between synonyms and other semantically-related words. For example, it might be interesting to know the most frequent verbs or adjectives that appear with *publicity* and *attraction*. It is also possible to go beyond the frequency of the words by analyzing real-life language samples qualitatively. Corpora, depending on a diverse range of purposes, are classified into different categories such as spoken vs. written, monolingual vs. bi/multilingual, parallel vs. comparable corpora (translation corpora), general language purpose vs. specialised language purpose (academic writing), diachronic (historical) vs. synchronic, learner and pedagogic corpus. While a specialized corpus involves a particular type of text with a focus on a particular register, a comparable corpus includes more than one language or different varieties of a language. A particular interest for language teachers is obviously learner corpora which includes a collection of authentic texts generated by foreign/second language learners to be used to analyse learners' problems.

Regardless of the type, a corpus-based analysis enables us to discern the patterns of language use, language patterns ranging from morphological, discourse to lexicogrammatical ones. It allows us to observe current genre-based variation and recent diachronic shifts in the language. Corpus is of interest for not only lexicographers and researchers but also educators and language teachers as corpus linguistics offers a great deal of opportunities applicable to materials development, lexical diversity in production and receptive vocabulary, syllabus design and classroom activities. A query can provide a wide range of examples including synonyms, collocates, customized word lists, limits by certain period or genre including spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic journals. One challenging issue for non-native speakers of English is to decide the right word for a particular register in which language often behaves differently. This is where mono or bilingual dictionaries fail to provide comprehensive and adequate information in relation to the use of words in different registers. Kettemann (1995) indicates the discrepancy between real language use and the prescriptive grammar. With the help of corpus analysis one can make a well-informed judgment about the right words in a specific register, for example, a search for *discover* gives the frequency in five different macro registers.

Table 1

Registers in corpus

Section	All	Spoken	Fiction	Magazine	Newspaper	Academic	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012
Freq	11745	1213	2318	3600	1693	2921	2816	2633	2505	2512	1279
Per mil	25.31	12.69	25.63	37.67	18.46	32.08	27.08	25.45	24.33	24.62	24.64



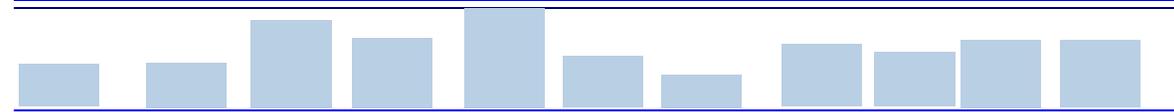
Section	Tokens	size	per million
2010-2012	1279	51,912,686	24.64

between 1990-94 and 2010-2012 (Corpus of Contemporary American English-COCA). This indicates that the word is most frequent in magazines, followed by fiction, newspaperspoken, and that over time there is a decreasing tendency in the frequency of the word *discover*. A further search to see the variation of the word in magazines results in the

Table 2

Search for variation in the register

News/Opin	Financial	Sci/Tech	Soc/Arts	Religion	Sports	Entertain	Home/Health	Afric-Amer	Children	Women/Men
495	152	694	339	265	352	88	615	125	71	406
26.61	28.91	54.92	44.31	62.05	32.53	21.62	38.54	34.41	43.43	41.63



following information chart where the searched word occurred most frequently in Religion, followed by Sci/Tech. The following chart also indicates that the word appears most frequently in Humanities and Phil/Rel registers.

Table 3

Detailed search in the related register

History	Education	Geog/SocSc	Law/PolSci	Humanities	Phil/Rel	Sci/Tech	Medicine	Misc
301	333	340	173	621	345	494	57	255
24.58	35.26	21.01	20.12	52.07	51.18	35.10	8.51	59.91

A corpus can also be utilised for pedagogic purposes. For example, comparing *can* and *could* in a register or to find out what preposition most commonly follows *discover*, as displayed in Table 4 below, will provide us with many examples of the lexical item or pattern in its context of use. Obviously, a corpus does not prescribe a rule or tell the meaning of the words but with the help of concordance lines the corpus gives us a rich insight into how a lexico-grammatical query is used, how it collocates with other words and even idiomatic usage, from all of which we arrive at certain generalizations. When this is applied to the learner corpora by the teacher, it is quite possible to obtain very valuable information about interlanguage developmental stages of the learners. In addition to the frequency and distribution of the preposition of the verb, the corpus provides hundreds of real examples with expanded context as displayed in Table 4 through which we can arrive at well-informed interpretations and compensate for lack of native speaker intuition.

Table 4

Expanded context (COCA)

1	2011	FIC	Bk:NightStrangers	linked to the house. Sometimes Emily would find the sort of thing you might discover in the back of an antiques store, such as the broken
2	2011	FIC	AntiochRev	. Every time we went it was like entering a secret cave, expecting to discover in the damp, semi-dark nook special treasure or ordnance. We whispered amid green
3	2011	MAG	Esquire	of five seconds. You realize that anxiety really can be crippling. # You discover in successive waves some of what really happened. You
4	2011	NEWS	NYTimes	Qaddafi government might in fact have believed its

				own propaganda: that the journalists would discover in Zawiya radical Islamists or young people crazed by drugs supplied by Osama bin Laden
<u>5</u>	<u>2011</u>	<u>NEWS</u>	<u>Houston</u>	was at loose ends. But then he found his focus: helping young men discover in the wilderness that they too were capable of much more than they ever imagined
<u>6</u>	<u>2011</u>	<u>NEWS</u>	<u>Houston</u>	author # " I would say Bigfoot represents that there is a lot left to discover in our world. " # - Ken Gerhard, Gulf Coast Bigfoot
<u>7</u>	<u>2011</u>	<u>NEWS</u>	<u>CSMonitor</u>	in ourselves, or whether they are matters of temperament we can only try to discover in others. The sad part is to realize how infrequently
<u>8</u>	<u>2010</u>	<u>SPOK</u>	<u>NPR_Science</u>	, your PhD dissertation focused on the belief system of scientists. What did you discover in that? Dr- GRAFFIN: Well, in a sense, it did. I
<u>9</u>	<u>2010</u>	<u>MAG</u>	<u>GoodHousekeeping</u>	say on Christmas Eve, as though " house-proud " was a terrible thing to discover in a woman. She thought I was upstairs wrapping
<u>10</u>	<u>2010</u>	<u>MAG</u>	<u>ChristCentury</u>	, Christianity, Viking). FOOL ME TWICE: Paul Hoffman was editor o Discover in the 1990s when for five years the magazine published .
<u>11</u>	<u>2010</u>	<u>NEWS</u>	<u>CSMonitor</u>	year... making the sperm whale a carbon-neutral mammal. " What else might we discover in the 21st century about how whales contribute to keeping our seas healthy? #
<u>12</u>	<u>2010</u>	<u>ACAD</u>	<u>ChurchHistory</u>	, flatteringly like the States General of the United Provinces), one can not discover in the words of van der Donck any interest in religious
<u>13</u>	<u>2009</u>	<u>SPOK</u>	<u>NBC_Today</u>	. Men said it was more like every day. " So what did you discover in talking to men and women all across the country?
<u>14</u>	<u>2009</u>	<u>ACAD</u>	<u>Poetry</u>	her way. But it's one of the inadvertent pleasures in reading Gunn to discover in his imagination a passion to propose new forms of
<u>15</u>	<u>2009</u>	<u>ACAD</u>	<u>SouthwestRev</u>	Mansoura Ez Eldin begins with a girl who is dreaming about death and wakes to discover in Kafkaesque horror that she no longer exists

It is also possible to search for the frequency of prepositions used with the word *discover* or for the most common nouns and adjectives. COCA indicates that “*in*” is the most common preposition used with “*discover*” followed by “*for*”, “*on*”, “*about*” “*through*” “*with*” and “*from*” as indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Search for prepositions used with the selected verb

1	in	127	
2	for	48	
3	on	36	
4	about	35	
5	through	17	
6	with	17	
7	from	15	
8	at	14	
9	by	14	
10	to	9	

In his discussion of Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), Davies (2009, p. 181) refers to the use of corpus as an advantageous over dictionaries as follows:

While there are many different learner-oriented dictionaries of phrasal verbs in English (e.g. Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, NTC’s Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Other Idiomatic Verbal Phrases), almost none of them are based on the type of rich corpus data that one can obtain from a robust corpus like COCA.

Collocation has been recognized as an area of major difficulty for language learners and as playing a fundamental role in a learner’s interlanguage continuum, accounting for a significant proportion of learner errors in language production. Following the growing interest in vocabulary research generated with the availability of large corpora, the focus has been shifted from theoretical perspective (descriptive corpus-based research) to the explicit learning of collocation in the language classroom because collocation runs through

the language. Combinations of words in a language are highly predictable to a native-speaker but may be quite challenging to a learner. For example, a learner learning Turkish may be faced with the choice of two verbs “rahmetli oldu ” and “öldü” given as equivalents for the verb *die* in a dictionary. A choice to make a sentence in relation to the cat s/he lost may results in a funny statement or a bemused smile. It takes a great degree of competence with Turkish to combine them correctly in productive use. As to the word “*discover*”, it may be quite valuable to know what words combinations are used with it as displayed in Table 6 through the use of COCA.

Table 6

Collocations with corpus

1. Things	78		11. People	21	
2. Truth	73		12. World	21	
3. Card	61		13. Meaning	20	
4. Ways	58		14. Secrets	20	
5. Magazine	36		15. Source	20	
6. Secret	31		16. Cure	19	
7. Life	29		17. Value	19	
8. Way	24		18. Differences	17	
9. Information	21		19. Cause	16	
10. Nature	21		20. Evidence	16	

Learners are expected to derive generalizations, rules and patterns from multiple examples. For this reason corpus-based learning is mostly associated with inductive rather than deductive approach. In a study by Sun and Wang (2003) learning grammatical collocations inductively through the use of online concordancers was found significantly more effective than the deductive approach.

To sum up, a corpus can:

- provide insights into language use where dictionaries and resource books simply fail or lead us to the wrong information.
- be a source of a variety of language teaching materials.

- provide students with hands-on opportunities for language learning.
- provide models of language use and language patterns
- allow for both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques
- provide words frequency lists for particular area (chemistry, humanities)
- enable learners to improve their vocabulary (both fluency and accuracy)
- compensate for lack of the native speaker's intuition
- provide exploratory tasks and activities rather than ready-made mechanic drills and exercise
- cultural study e.g. differences found in two comparable corpora
- verify certain hypotheses about languages
- be more convincing than the teachers with supporting evidence
- be used to check grammar
- avoid human bias in data analysis
- allow the enrichment of data with metadata
- enable learners to discern subtle differences
- enable language learners to make well-informed decision similar to a native-speaker
- help learners to detect the nuances of language items (inhabitants, residents, dwellers)
- allow the students to arrive at their own generalizations from plenty of examples in the corpus
- be a good source for translation purposes
- enable learners to be familiar with the vocabulary of a particular section (medical, sports, science/technology)
- be a useful performance-enhancing tool in confirming intuitive decisions
- allow learners to quickly and easily see how native speakers use the language in a wide variety of naturally occurring texts
- be utilized for pedagogic purposes (finding out what preposition most commonly follows the verbs frequently used in the student's textbook)
- help learners develop their reasoning skills inductively and take an active role in their own learning

- provide learners more exposure and authentic examples instead of artificial ones not used very often daily
- enable learners to identify the key words in or more texts.
- be used for a range of comparative purposes (British English-American English)
- create direct interaction with learners as they get their hands authentic materials

For all these purposes, a list of corpus online is given here in Table 7.

Table 7

The list of available corpus online

Survey of Corpora		How to find out more
Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)	450 million words	http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
American National Corpus (ANC)	22 million words	http://americannationalcorpus.org /
Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language – (COLT)	500,000 words	http://torvald.aksis.uib.no/colt/ http://icame/newcd.htm
British National Corpus (BNC)	100 million words	http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/what/index.html
Brown Corpus	1 million words	http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/brown/INDEX.HTM
Collins Wordbanks Online English corpus	56 million words	http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx
Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of discourse in English (CANCODE)	5 million words	http://www.cambridge.org/elt/corpus/cancode.htm
Cambridge International Corpus	1 billion words	http://www.cambridge.org/elt/

(CIC)

Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA)	500,000 words	http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/kielet/engf/research/elfa/project.htm
Frown Corpus	1 million words	http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/frown/INDEX.HTM
International Corpus of Learner English – ICLE	2 million words	http://www.fltr.ucl.ac.be/fltr/germ/etan/cecl/Cecl-Projects/Icle/icle.htm
International Corpus of English – (ICE)	in progress	http://www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/ice/
Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen corpus (LOB)	1 million	http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/lob/INDEX.HTM
Longman Written American Corpus	100 million words	http://www.longman.com/dictionaries/corpus/lcawritt.html
The Longman Learners’ Corpus	10 million word	http://www.longman.com/dictionaries/corpus/lclearn.html
London-Lund Corpus	500,000 words	http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/LONDLUND/INDEX.HTM

It appears that corpora have many applications in the area of language teaching as well as learning from materials design to communicative activities. Perhaps, one of the most concrete uses of language corpora is the analysis of lexical items. This is a revolution for EFL settings given the fact that language learners have suffered long when are compelled to discern subtle differences between words or differences between close synonyms especially when the mother tongue doesn’t have a corresponding one. They have to rely on prescriptive books or dictionaries which can be at odds with actual use. Together with register and style this issue poses a serious handicap for language learners as stressed by Kayaoğlu (2009: 90) „dictionaries, grammar and similar reference books provide

explanation about particular Word usages or grammatical forms but do not explain how or in what context a particular Word is used". With this in mind, this study was designed to see whether the use of a corpus can be a viable option for foreign language learners when they are challenged to make a choice between close synonyms or commonly confused words.

Method

Research

The aim of this research was to explore the feasibility of using a corpus for the solution of the challenging word-choice problems in which close synonyms which have similar meanings but may not substituted one for the other in the given test. A total of 23 intermediate level students majoring in English (in the English Prep program) participated in the study. Students were given a vocabulary test of 30 English sentences in seven set of questions with a blank each to fill from the group of close synonyms as shown in Table 8. Students were advised to mark the most challenging questions whose answers (the right words) they were not very sure about. Students were not told the results of the test. On the same day students were made familiar with the COCA following a 40-minute training. Students were then asked to do the same test with the same task of choosing the most appropriate English words for the given blanks by referring to the COCA in the computer lab. The students were encouraged to act as language detectives; to observe nuances of meaning and patterns of usage in problematic words, using COCA. The corpus obviously does not prescribe anything other than a collection of real language samples. For this reason the students were expected to make their own judgment about the challenging on the basis of the corpus.

The *Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)*, which was released online in 2008, is the first large, diverse and publicly-available corpus of American English that contains texts from a wide range of genres and texts from the past fifteen years. It contains more than 385 million words from 1990–2008 (20 million words each year), balanced between spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic journals. In the COCA, texts are evenly divided between spoken (20%), fiction (20%), popular magazines (20%), newspapers (20%) and academic journals (20%). This composition holds for the corpus overall, as well as for each year in the corpus. This means that researchers

can compare data diachronically across the corpus, and be reasonably sure that the equivalent text composition from year to year will accurately show changes in the language. For each year, the texts within each of the five genres are balanced between the sub-genres or domains just mentioned. For example, each year the newspapers are evenly divided between the ten newspapers (approximately 400,000 words each); approximately 10% of the fiction texts (400,000–500,000 words each year) come from movie scripts; the popular magazines maintain roughly the same composition from year to year (African-American, current events, sports, science, religion, health, etc.), and the same is true for the academic journals (science, history, religion and philosophy, technology, education, etc.) (Davies, 2009).

Table 8

List of close synonyms

1	refuse	deny	decline	reject	rebuff	
2	career	job	work	employment	profession	
3	find out	detect	discover	search	seek	examine
4	memorise	remember	remind	recall	recognise	recollect
5	common	ordinary	usual	normal	regular	
6	tour	travel	voyage	journey	trip	cruise
7	precious	valuable	invaluable	priceless	worthless	economic economical

Results and Discussion

The research is based on pre and post-test design. In the pre-test students were asked to choose the most appropriate English words for the given blanks. In the second part of the experiment, students were asked to do the same test by using COCA. A t-test was used to see whether there was a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results in terms of appropriate word choice.

Table 9

Paired samples t-test statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
test1	57,6087	23	7,66775	1,59884	-11.33	22	000
test2	73,2609	23	5,95603	1,24192			

The t-test analysis in Table 9 indicates that the use of corpus for deciding on close synonyms proved to be very effective as there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and post-test results. The study is very much limited to quantitative data. However, interviews with five randomly selected students provided evidence for the fact that using the corpus (COCA) was useful and at the same time demanding. While some students were found having derived great pleasure from discovering regularities of patterning in the corpus, some were overwhelmed by the existence of huge number of variations and examples from which they were expected to arrive at some conclusions. For example, one participant stated “*when you click the button, the corpus gives you hundreds of examples but it is not that much easy to come to a conclusion in hundreds of examples in short time*”(s5), referring that it is difficult to process large amount of information.

It is obvious that the corpus only presents information but leaves it to the learner to analyse and interpret. This may also be partly to do with the learners’ readiness to adopt an autonomous approach to language learning because some students enjoy having the inherent culture of being in a teacher-led classroom. Yet, to characterize commonly accepted experience “*it is really amazing to see how much convincing is the corpus with so many examples from real-life in context and in certain area(register) eventhough it can be some time-consuming*”(s3). Another participant was quite pleased with what the corpus offered in terms of vocabulary-related problems “*I am an English majoring student and I read English papers almost every day but I do this for fun. Verb constructions and verb with adjectives and collocates have been always serious problem for me. Although I refer to dictionary of phrasal verbs, thesaurus, I am not always convinced of the information given in these sources. There is sometimes mismatch or conflict between what is stated and what we have, for example, in a newspaper. I feel the corpus may of great help to us at least*

when we are desperate” (s5). This is what a corpus-linguistic software can offer for individual learners, that’s learning how to learn. In this respect, corpus data can be of great help for autonomous language learners, if not to create autonomous learners.

Conclusion

In view of the fact that the students were able to significantly improve their performance on vocabulary use and the quality of their intuitive decisions for words choice in the test, the use of corpora proved to be effective and has great potential for EFL classes. However, corpus seems not to have gained its due value and recognition in foreign language teaching and learning in spite of its wide use. It would be wrong to think of the use of corpus as a magic touch to solve lexical, grammatical or discourse related problems. Yet, it can be a very rich source of data to be utilized in activities from designing syllabi to instructional materials for classroom use. In order for the corpora to be of pedagogic value and an effective tool, teachers need to be made familiar with the potential uses of the corpus programs in the teaching practice through in-service teacher training sessions. For example, it can be quite interesting for teachers to know that learner corpora provide empirical data for the identification of the mistakes most commonly made by their students. An important point to note that information generated by the corpora may be too much to digest for beginners. Therefore, tasks should be adapted to their level and needs. Activities created from real-life examples of authentic language use would be more interesting than the exercises made up by material developers.

Although the use of computerized corpora is well established in linguistic research, the corpus is still in its maturation in language teaching profession. Once its potential is discovered, it is more like to be used in language teaching.

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Yakın Eşanlamlı Kelimelerde Korpus Kullanımı

Öz

Problem tanımı: Yabancı dil eğitimine olan katkısına ve yabancı dil eğitiminde karşılaşılan sorunlara çözümler sağlamasına rağmen, korpora kullanımı yabancı dil sınıflarında hala çok yaygın değildir. Bu durum, korporanın pedagojik rolü hakkında yeteri kadar uygulanabilir bilginin olmadığından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, deneysel veriler sayesinde korporanın önemi öğretmenlere kavratılmalıdır.

Çalışmanın amacı: Bu çalışmada, öğrencilerin benzer anlamları olan fakat birbirleri yerine kullanılamayan yakın eş anlamlı kelimeler arasında ayırım yapabilmesine yardımcı olması amacıyla korpora kullanımının uygulanabilirliği incelenmektedir.

Çalışmanın yöntemi: Bu yarı deneysel çalışma, ön test ve son test desenine (tek seferlik desen) göre hazırlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, katılımcılara Çağdaş Amerikan İngilizcesi Korpusu (COCA) gösterilmiştir ve katılımcılardan, verilen 50 cümledeki en yakın eş anlamlı kelimeye karar verirken korpusa başvurmaları istenmiştir. Ayrıca, katılımcılarla COCA ile çalışmalarını tamamlarken korpus kullanımı hakkında görüşleri sorulmuştur.

Bulgular ve Tartışma: Katılımcıların verilen ön test ve son testteki kelime bölümündeki performanslarında istatistiksel olarak önemli ölçüde fark olduğundan yakın eş anlamlı kelimelere karar verirken korpus kullanımının çok etkili olduğu T-testi sonucunda belirlenmiştir.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Bu çalışma, hem öğretmenler hem de öğrenciler açısından yabancı dil eğitimini daha anlamlı ve eğlenceli hale getirmek için korporanın çok zengin ve etkili bir deneysel veri kaynağı olabileceğini göstermektedir. Öğrencileri daha fazla özgün kaynağa yönelterek içerik oluşturmadan materyal geliştirmeye kadar tüm pedagojik amaçlar için korpora kullanılabilir. Bu bağlamda (yabancı dil derslerine de entegre edilmelidir. Öğretmenler, dil öğretiminde korporanın neler sunabileceğinin farkına varmalıdırlar.

Anahtar Kelimeler: bütüncü, yakın eş anlamlı sözcükler, çağdaş Amerikan İngilizcesi bütüncüsü

**Family Literacy and Second Language Literacy Research:
Focus on Language Minority Children**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Countries like the U. S. A. or Canada have citizens from various ethnic backgrounds. Although English is the dominant language in many parts of these countries, immigrants generally prefer speaking their native language when they are in their homes. Whatever the reason for using native language at home is, when we consider the children in these families, we can say that being exposed to different languages at home and at school may be a problem for their language development.

Purpose of Study: There are many studies conducted in order to better understand the problems of language minority children. A great deal of literature on language minority students focuses on the ties between these children's literacy development and their literacy practices at home. In other words, these studies aim to see how the literacy events these children are exposed to at home affect their literacy learning in the second language.

Methods: This paper is an attempt to put together and discuss various theoretical and empirical studies conducted on the literacy development of language minority children in English speaking countries.

Findings: Literacy education of language minority students is not an easy task. It is very complicated and difficult to achieve as it requires a complete collaboration among all the responsible parties (teachers, families, researchers, education policy makers, school administrators).

Conclusion and Recommendations: Successful collaboration among all the involved parties would bring successful outcomes in terms of children's healthy literacy development. The collaboration between teachers and families is the most vital one because these two parties are the ones that have one-to-one interaction with children.

Keywords: family literacy, second language literacy, language minority children

Introduction

Countries like the U. S. A. or Canada have citizens from various ethnic backgrounds. Although English is the dominant language in many parts of these countries, immigrants generally prefer speaking their native language when they are in their homes. There are a lot of reasons for their use of native language. Some people naturally find it more convenient to communicate in their native language, some others see their native language as a way of protecting their identity and values, and some others do not speak English simply because they do not know English (Portes & Rumbaut, 1990).

Whatever the reason for using native language at home is, when we consider the children in these families, we can say that being exposed to different languages at home and at school may be a problem for their language development. The number of ESL students has been increasing dramatically in the U. S. A. (Calderon, Slavin, & Sanchez, 2011). There are more than 7.5 million school age children who are coming from homes where a language other than English is spoken, and these students account for 35 percent of all schoolchildren across the U.S.A (Hadaway, Vardell, & Young, 2002; Jiang & Kuehn, 2001). For these language minority children, learning to read and write is more difficult than it is to the children whose native language is English because these children have to struggle both with the task of conceptualizing and interpreting the new language, and with the task of learning how to read and write in that language (McKay, 2000). Although spoken language abilities of some of these children are considered to be good, they lack success when it comes to reading and writing. O'Donnell, Weber, and McLaughlin (2003) state that many language minority students can be considered as fluent users of English in terms of their interpersonal communication with other people but their English is not proficient enough to succeed at school. Emphasizing the same problem, Grant and Wong

(2003) say that 30-40 % of school age language minority children fail to reach acceptable levels of English reading by the end of elementary school.

There are many studies conducted in order to better understand the problems of language minority children. A great deal of literature on language minority students focuses on the ties between these children's literacy development and their literacy practices at home. In other words, these studies aim to see how the literacy events these children are exposed to at home affect their literacy learning in the second language. This paper is an attempt to put together and discuss various theoretical and empirical studies conducted on the literacy development of language minority children in English speaking countries.

Language Minority Students' Literacy Development and Their Problems

The term „language minority student“ has been defined by many researchers. One of the most comprehensive definitions was given by August and Garcia (1988): being a language minority student “includes the following conditions:

1. Students are exposed „naturally“ to the system of the non-English language as it is used in the form of social interaction, initially at home and possibly later in other institutions. This condition requires a substantive non-English-speaking environment.
2. Students are able to comprehend and/or produce normal aspects of a language other than English. This condition implies normal language acquisition and function in a language other than English.
3. Students are later exposed „naturally“ to the English language as it is used in the form of social interaction. This includes „natural“ exposure in schooling contexts” (pp. 3-4).

Language minority students' literacy development and literacy practices were examined by many researchers in order to better understand the problems and needs of these children. Barone (2003/2004) conducted a longitudinal study to see the literacy development of 13 children in an elementary school. The results of the study indicated that there is no clear pattern of literacy development for children who are learning English as a new language, and home language generally does not serve as a predictor of end of achievement in reading. One of the criticisms Barone brought to teachers of language

minority children was that there were no support for children in bridging their home language to school language.

Many researchers emphasized the effects of family literacy practices on language minority children's literacy development and school achievement. Language and literacy practices in family and community, family culture, and family resources all affect language minority students' school literacy development (Corson, 1993). Discussing how the relationship of family, school, and literacy has been generally conceptualized, Willett and Bloome (1993) suggest that school literacy development and school success cannot be considered isolated from the effects of family and community literacy practices, family and community culture, and family and community resources. All these family and community aspects of language affect the values, resources, organization, practices and culture at school. They all have positive or negative effects on how successful the school literacy development is. We can also talk about similar effects in the reverse direction. That is, school literacy practices, school resources, and school culture obviously affect the literacy practices, culture and resources in the family and in the community (Li, 2010; Li, 2009).

Diener, Wright, Julian and Byington (2003) conducted a study to better understand the parent-child activities and literacy experiences of culturally diverse, low SES (socio economic status) families. The study specifically focused on parents' favorite activities with children, children's book reading experiences, and parents' own reading experiences. The results of the study indicated that families engaged in many daily activities that could potentially facilitate the literacy and language development of their children. Some of the examples to these activities are reading books with or to children, or teaching specific skills such as numbers and writing. On the other hand, lack of children's and adult books in some homes, and limited use of libraries were identified to be potential obstacles to literacy development. These results show that literacy experiences in the family can act both as facilitative factors and as hindering factors for the literacy development of ESL children.

Focusing on the effects of family literacy practices in second language literacy development, Xu (1999) conducted a study to describe home literacy experiences of six Chinese ESL children. The results of the study showed that there were both Chinese literacy practices and English literacy practices in the children's homes. The children were using Chinese to communicate with their family members, and some parents were making

their children learn how to read and write in Chinese. In terms of English literacy practices, the children were reading English books mostly related to school work. In addition, they were often reading environmental prints such as food labels, advertisements and coupons; and they were reading TV guides for their favorite TV shows. The results of this study indicated that language minority children's home literacy practices are more complicated than those of native English speaking children.

Orellana, Reynolds, Dorner, and Meza (2003) investigated another aspect of language minority children's literacy development. Their study focused on how the children of language minority families use their knowledge of English to read for their families. The results of the study revealed that children of immigrant families read a diversity of text genres to their parents. Main text genres found to be read by children to their families were letters, forms, advertisements, storybooks, instructional guides, and informational books. The researchers concluded that "these daily family literacy practices are different than typical middle class practices like bedtime storybook reading, but they may be no less significant for children's literacy development. Arguably, they may be more so, in that these activities expose children to a much wider array of genres, domains, and forms of written texts than do storybooks (or for that matter, than do school literacy activities). Para-phrasing also engages children actively in the interpretation of texts, for real purposes, rather than positioning them as the passive recipients of the readings" (p. 31). This study was significant as it showed that any kind of home literacy practice might provide positive contribution to children's literacy development.

Some other researchers focused on the positive contribution of home literacy practices in the native language to the development of second language literacy. Hancock (2002) investigated the effects of native language books on the pre-literacy development of language minority kindergarteners. The results showed that native Spanish-speaking children exposed to books written in Spanish scored significantly higher on a test of pre-literacy skills than did their native Spanish-speaking classmates who were only exposed to English books. In addition, these students also scored no differently than their native English-speaking classmates exposed to books in English.

Similarly, Bankston and Zhou (1995) investigated the effects of minority language literacy on academic achievement. Results of the study indicated that the participants'

literacy practices in their native language contributed to the development of second language. Researchers concluded that ethnic language skills may not always be a hindrance to the social adaptation, these skills may actually contribute to the goals of mainstream education, rather than compete with them.

In contrast to Hancock (2002) and Bankston and Zhou (1995), some other researchers focused on negative effects of home literacy practices on second language literacy development, and they emphasized the problems language minority children face in their literacy education process (Gersten, 1996; Goldenberg, 1996; Urrieta, 2000; Hadaway et al., 2002; Grant & Wong, 2003; Li, 2006). Li (2006) painted a rich picture of „battles“ of literacy and schooling between teachers and immigrant families. Li’s study showed how the literacy development of the eight focal children negatively affected by “cultural disconnections, disagreements, and disarticulations” (p. 8) between families and teachers.

As the studies reviewed above suggest, the mismatches between families and schools generally stem from parents’ and teachers’ different attitudes towards language minority children’s education. Therefore, the next section of the paper will present a closer look at the families’ and teachers’ different attitudes in literacy instruction.

Teachers’ and Families’ Attitudes towards Minority Language Education

Lee (1999) conducted a study to better understand the linguistic minority parents’ perceptions of bilingual education. Results of the study indicated that majority of the parents supported bilingual education, and majority of the parents said that they understood the objectives of it. However, most parents did not recognize the different models and programs in bilingual education. Considering these results, Lee (1999, p. 121) suggested that “educators must help linguistic minority parents to develop an increased understanding of the different models and programs.”

Another study on language minority parents’ attitudes towards language minority education was conducted by Li (1999). The results of the study indicated that “language minority parents’ positive attitudes toward both languages and cultures and supportive interactions with their children at home are very important to the children’s bilingual education and identity establishment in the new environment” (p. 131).

The studies conducted by Li (1999) and Lee (1999) show that it is vitally important for families to have positive attitudes towards minority language education. However,

parents and teachers are the two parties of this issue and teachers' attitudes are equally important for successful literacy development of language minority children (Byrnes, Kieger, & Manning, 1997; Rueda & Garcia, 1996). Byrnes et al. (1997) conducted a study to address the issue of regular-classroom teachers' attitudes toward language diversity and linguistically diverse students. Results of the study indicated that teachers who work more with language minority students develop more positive attitudes toward them. Another result of the study was that formal training is associated with positive language attitudes as formal training gives teachers skills and knowledge to work effectively with children who are limited in their English proficiency. The results also indicated that teachers who have a graduate degree have more positive attitudes towards language minority education.

Emphasizing the positive effects of classroom interaction and language communication between teachers and pupils on second language acquisition, Leung (2001) states that "the teacher modifies his or her output (e.g. slowing down and repeating and reformulating information) so that it becomes more comprehensible to the pupil; and the pupil tries to make his or her own output progressively like the target language in order to be understood. This process of negotiated adjustment, if successful, provides comprehensible input and, at the same time, an opportunity to use the target language for the pupil" (p. 179).

How Can Teachers Help Language Minority Students?

It is almost impossible for teachers to achieve the goal of providing language minority students with comprehensive and effective instruction without taking any help from other sources. Therefore, families, teacher educators, literacy researchers, education policy makers, curriculum development teams and school administrators should provide teachers with necessary help and encouragement. Researchers can help teachers by investigating different methods teaching under different classroom conditions, and by bringing practical suggestions to teachers.

Literature suggests various practical suggestions to teachers to help language minority children (Andersen & Roit, 1996; Necochea & Cline, 1995; Sturtevant, 1998; Enge, 1998; Winsler, Diaz, Espinosa, & Rodriguez, 1999; Araujo, 2002, O'Donnell et al., 2003; Roberts & Neal, 2003; Rubinstein-Avila, 2003; Hawkins, 2004; Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, & Vaughan, 2004). Some of these suggestions will be discussed below.

Storybook reading: Storybooks are generally found interesting and attractive by children. In classrooms, teachers can use storybook reading to systematically build the vocabulary and comprehension skills of primary-grade English language learners through daily read-alouds (Hickman et al., 2004).

Vocabulary networking: Teachers can use the method of vocabulary networking especially for vocabulary teaching. Vocabulary networking is also called „semantic webbing“ or „mapping“ and it can be effectively used to develop vocabulary with language minority children. Vocabulary networking lets students graphically organize vocabulary from texts or other sources into related group of words (Anderson & Roit, 1996).

Teaching reading strategies such as predicting and imagery: In order to help students in their comprehension process, teachers can teach them how to use reading strategies. Predicting what is coming in a text and visualizing or creating a mental image of something in a text are some of the most helpful strategies (Anderson & Roit, 1996).

Using culturally familiar texts: Using culturally familiar texts in literacy instruction can be another way of helping language minority children. Anderson and Roit (1996) say that reading texts written in a culturally familiar content can enhance comprehension. Using culturally familiar texts were also considered a successful method of involving parents in their children’s literacy learning process.

Collaboration among educators who work with language minority students: Sturtevant (1998) state the importance of establishing collaboration among teachers who teach literacy to language minority students. The most important outcome of such collaboration will be providing a more coherent and effective program to language minority students. In addition, Rubinstein-Avilla (2003) points out the importance of collaboration between other subject area teachers and ESL teachers.

Class size: Placing students in small classrooms can also contribute to their literacy development process since the students can receive more from one to one attention from the teacher (Rubinstein-Avilla, 2003).

Accepting diversity: ESL literacy teachers should also need to accept that language minority students are a highly diverse population with diverse needs. Teachers should be aware of the fact that language minority students are diverse in personal history, education history and competence in English (Sturtevant, 1998).

Knowing about the culture of children: Enge (1998) and Wason-Ellam (2001) point the importance of knowing language minority children's culture in order to better serve their needs. According to Enge (1998), the teachers should recognize universal traits among cultures, they should learn about the child's birth country, its food, music history, games and customs, and they should be aware of the fact that the meanings of words, gestures, and actions may change from culture to culture.

Valuing the home language: Teachers of language minority students should value the home language of these children because they may use that home language to facilitate the development of second language (Barone, 2003/2004).

How Can Families Help Language Minority Students?

Families are equally responsible in children's second language literacy development (Calderon, Slavin, & Sanchez, 2011; Li, 2007a; Li, 2007b). It is impossible for teachers to achieve the highly demanding task of literacy teaching without the contribution of families. Teachers and families should take all the necessary actions to turn the home-school interaction into a fruitful process for the students. Both of the parties should be aware of their duties in the process, and act accordingly. Li (2006) suggests that teaching of second language literacy should be changed by the equal and cooperative contribution of both teachers and families. Li states that both teachers and parents are change agents, and in order to achieve cultural reciprocity, they need to reflect on and learn from each other's cultural beliefs, pedagogical traditions, and culture knowledge.

Conclusion

This paper yields to two main conclusions. First, literacy education of language minority students is not an easy task. It is very complicated and difficult to achieve as it requires a complete collaboration among all the responsible parties (teachers, families, researchers, education policy makers, school administrators). No matter how hard one of the parties works, it seems to be very hard to achieve fruitful results without taking the support of other parties. Successful collaboration among all these parties would bring successful outcomes in terms of children's healthy literacy development.

Secondly, among all the parties mentioned in the previous paragraph, the collaboration between teachers and families is the most vital one because these two parties

are the ones that have one-to-one interaction with children. However, as the literature suggests, there are a lot of mismatches between the values of these two parties, and those mismatches bring the most fundamental problems to language minority students' literacy education. Therefore, both teachers and families must be aware of their vital roles in children's literacy development, and they should follow the suggestions that are brought by researchers.

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Aile Okuryazarlığı ve İkinci Dilde Okuma Yazma Araştırmaları: Göçmen Aile Çocuklarının İkinci Dil Gelişimi

Öz

Araştırma Konusu: A.B.D. ya da Kanada gibi ülkeler pek çok milletten vatandaşlara sahiptirler. Genellikle bu ülkelerin büyük kısmında İngilizce geçerli dil olarak kullanılsa da göçmenler özellikle evlerinde ana dillerini kullanmayı tercih ederler. Evde anadil kullanmanın sebepleri her ne olursa olsun, bu ailelerin çocukları düşünüldüğünde bu çocuklar için evde ve okulda farklı dillere maruz kalmanın bir problem oluşturabileceğini söyleyebiliriz.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu tür problemleri daha iyi anlayabilmek için yapılmış pek çok çalışma vardır. Bu çalışmaların büyük kısmı çocukların okur-yazarlık gelişimi ile evlerinde yaptıkları okur-yazarlık faaliyetleri arasındaki ilişkiye yoğunlaşırlar. Diğer bir deyişle, bu çalışmalar çocukların evlerinde maruz kaldıkları okuma-yazma süreçlerinin ikinci dildeki okuma-yazma becerilerini nasıl etkilediğini araştırırlar.

Araştırmanın Yöntemi: Bu makale İngilizce'nin geçerli dil olarak konuşulduğu ülkelerdeki göçmen ailelerin çocuklarının okur-yazarlık gelişimi ile ilgili teorik ve uygulamalı çalışmalardan yola çıkarak çeşitli saptamalar yapmak ve önerilerde bulunmaktır.

Bulgular: Göçmen aile çocuklarının okur-yazarlık eğitimi, öğretmenlerin, ailelerin, araştırmacıların, eğitim politikalarını belirleyenlerin, ve okul yöneticilerinin ortaklaşa yürütmeleri gereken önemli bir süreçtir.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Göçmen aile çocuklarının okur-yazarlık eğitiminde sorumluluk sahibi olan tüm kesimlerin işbirliği içinde çalışmaları sürecin başarısını önemli derecede arttıracaktır. Çocuklarla sürekli iletişim halinde olan öğretmenler ve aileler arasındaki işbirliği bu süreçte başarı için anahtar konumdadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: ikinci dilde okuma-yazma, göçmen aile çocukları, evde okuma-yazma

Learner Attitudes and Preferences in Terms of Learning Culture

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Abstract

Problem statement: Due to its complex nature, the teaching of culture poses a lot of problems. It encompasses everything from daily life to traditions, or from ways of showing politeness to important occasions or special days in a society. Thus, “what of culture” and how it will be taught must be determined carefully through close scrutiny especially for the “expanding circle countries” since in these countries there is no direct contact with native speakers. Curriculum designers and language teachers need to make a number of choices as regards the selection of cultural categories to teach and what techniques to use in the teaching of these cultural elements.

Purpose of the study: The present study aims at finding out Turkish learners’ preferences in terms of learning and teaching of culture in order to shed light on the practice of language teaching in an EFL context.

Method: A questionnaire was used in the study. It was administered to 92 participants.

Findings and results: The findings suggest that Turkish learners’ awareness must be raised in terms of the importance of the target culture. Turkish learners view target culture learning as comprising of both big “C”, which can roughly be defined as values pertaining to the target community, and lower case “c” culture, which is related to practices. Another important finding of the study is that students in Turkish context do not view learning culture essential for effective communication.

Conclusion and recommendations: This study focused on the learning and teaching of culture in terms of learner attitudes and preferences. As an indispensable element of language, culture must also be studied in terms of other variables like materials and course books. Therefore, studies into materials and course books in relation to their cultural load are needed in order to bridge the gap and optimize the practice of target culture teaching in Turkey.

Keywords: culture, culture teaching, learner preference

Introduction

The majority of the discussion on the place of culture in EFL has problematized whether or not to incorporate culture into the language teaching process. Recent views have articulated that language and culture are indeed inseparable (Dörnyei, 2000). As an international language, English has spread all over the world and created a lot of varieties. Accordingly, profiles of English users and learners are changing. To categorize them, one can refer to Kachru's (1992) terms: *Inner Circle Countries*, *Outer Circle Countries*, and *Expanding Circle Countries*. Culture seems to be the most relevant, at least in the case of immediate language needs, in the *Inner* and *Outer Circle Countries* due to the fact that in these countries English is used in daily transactions either as first or second language. Therefore, cultural elements assume significance in Inner Circle and Outer Circle countries. Teaching and learning a foreign language in the expanding circle denotes that needs of language learners are different. Therefore, in the *Expanding Circle Countries*, practitioners must be relatively more selective in the teaching of culture.

The relationship between language and culture has been studied in various studies in Turkish contexts (Bada & Genç, 2005, Önalın, 2005, Ünver, 2007). Önalın (2005), for example, focused on Turkish teachers' views on teaching culture. Bada & Genç (2005) examined effectiveness of a separate culture course and found that a separate course on target culture raises learners' motivation and awareness. Ünver (2007) offers a program for exchange students in ERASMUS programs.

Another important point is that as a result of the spread of English worldwide, there are now assumptions that American or British cultures may no longer be the relevant cultures (Alptekin, 2002) on account of the fact that there are too many varieties and users

of the English language. In order to reduce the complexity and determine how much culture is needed and how it is to be handled in L2 classes, studies must be conducted. The present study was undertaken to investigate Turkish learners' views, attitudes, and preferences on the learning of target culture with a view to unearth how they approach the issue and more importantly to help curriculum designers and language teachers in their practices.

Definition of Culture

It is not easy to define culture. For some it is related to general knowledge and for others it is related to ways of life. When we agree on the latter definition, we are faced with a whole bunch of choices that range from categories like *holidays* to the *flag of the target country* or from *food* to *special occasions*. Hence, language teachers and planners are inevitably faced with the issue of selection of the cultural elements that are most applicable for their teaching contexts.

For others, *art, literature, customs* and *everyday lives* of a peculiar group form the culture. These are, however, manifestations of the implicit culture. There are also values, beliefs, norms, and attitudes. The new Encyclopedia Britannica's definition may be a working definition. It reads as follows: "behavior peculiar to Homo sapiens, together with material objects used as an integral part of this behavior; specifically culture consists of language, ideas, beliefs, customs, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, works of art, ritual, ceremonies, and so on" (1991, p.874). This comprehensive definition covers most of the components of culture.

When it comes to the relation between language and culture, many researchers seem to indicate the close relation between them. Brown (2000, p. 177), for example, states that "a language is part of a culture, and a culture is a part of language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either culture or language". Byram (1994, p. 94) makes the point that "the language holds the culture through denotations and connotations of its semantics". All in all, the relation between language and culture is so tight that it is almost impossible to think one as independent of the other. Therefore, the teaching of any language inevitably involves the teaching of culture, either explicitly or implicitly.

In short, it would be wise to converge on the point Hinkel (1999) makes: there are "as many definitions of culture as there are fields of inquiry into human societies, groups,

system, behaviors, and activities” (p.1). Therefore, a study into target culture learning and teaching would have to include everything that can be viewed as part of a culture.

Topics for Teaching Target Culture

Topics that are to be taught within the scope of the target culture are many and varied. Brooks (1994), for example, compiled 62 topics that are related to target culture. His list includes greetings, patterns of politeness, verbal taboos, festivals, folklore, music, medicine, hobbies, learning in schools, meals, schools, and careers. Similarly, Chastain (1988) compiled 37 categories including family, home, money, religion, holidays, clothes, good manners, and non-verbal communication. The literature offers different groupings. The CEF (2001, p.102-102), for example, offers six categories. These are as follows:

1. Everyday living (e.g. food and drink, holidays, and working practices)
2. Living conditions (e.g. housing conditions)
3. Interpersonal relations (e.g., class structure, family structures, and relations between generations.)
4. Values, beliefs, and attitudes (e.g., social class, wealth, regional cultures, minorities and arts)
5. Body language and social conventions (punctuality, dress, behavioral, and conversational conventions)
6. Ritual behavior (e.g., birth, marriage, and death)

Byram and Morgan (1994) offer nine categories including social identity and social groups (e.g. social class, sub-culture identities, ethnic and cultural minorities), *social interaction* (e.g. verbal and non-verbal behavior, greetings at different levels, gender relations and taboos) *belief and behavior* (e.g. certain actions such as going to school and going to church and their meanings, and recipe knowledge, that is, routine behaviors, e.g. how to use public transport), *socio-political institutions* (e.g. government, law and order and health care), *socialization* and the *life-cycle* (e.g. schools, family and education), *national history* (e.g. different periods and events, national geography (e.g. distribution of population, topography and climate and vegetation), *national and cultural heritage* (e.g. embodiments from national culture from the past and present), and *stereotypes* and *national*

identity (e.g. explanation of stereotypes and symbols of national stereotypes and their meanings and national identity).

Moran (2001: 25) conceptualizes culture in five broad dimensions: practices, persons, perspectives, communities, and *products*. “*Products*” are all of the elements produced by the members of a given society. They can be either tangible like tools, buildings, or written documents, or intangible like oral and written language, music, or various institutions. “*Practices*” refer to language and other forms of communication, either verbal or non-verbal, involving notions of space, time, and appropriateness. “*Perspectives*” reflect beliefs, values, and attitudes, which actually form the worldview of the given society. “*Communities*” include social contexts where practices occur like national culture, language, gender and class, or more narrowly political parties, sport clubs, and family. Finally “persons” are the main building blocks who experience that specific culture. Clearly, such *systematic* categorization would help curriculum designers by giving them a clear view in facilitating topic selection processes. Therefore, it is also important to analyze cultural issues under such headings in order to maintain systematicity of what is taught. Due to the complexity of such lists, and for the sake of clarity, the cultural elements used in the present study have been grouped in a way to provide systematic results and draw logical conclusion. In the present study the number of categories is ten including the following:

1. Geography (neighboring countries, plants, animals, etc.)
2. History Politics (monarchy, democracy, etc)
3. Traditions (religion, celebrations, etc)
4. Art, literature, music
5. Youth life (education, hobbies, problems, drugs)
6. National symbols (flag, monuments, etc.)
7. Rules of behavior (body language)
8. Cultural groups, minorities
9. Sports
10. Business and economy

This study aims at identifying Turkish learners’ attitudes and preferences in an attempt to provide help for curriculum designers and language teachers. Therefore, the study aims at answering the following research questions:

1. What are Turkish learners' attitudes and beliefs towards the learning of the target culture?
2. Which aspects of the target culture do Turkish learners want to learn?
3. What are the best ways of learning the target culture?
4. Are Turkish learners motivated to learn the target culture?

Method

Data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire that was administered to preparatory level students enrolled at Başkent University. Five classes were selected randomly. The application stage went smoothly because the questionnaire was piloted prior to use.

Data Collection Tool and Participants

The questionnaire consists of three parts. In the first part, demographics and questions regarding some possible intercultural experiences of the subjects are sought. The second part contains personal preferences in relation to the teaching and learning of culture. Finally, the last part aims at gathering data on the elements of culture in which learners would be interested and how they would like to be taught these elements. The results are analyzed with the help of SPSS 16.0. The questionnaire was administered on 92 Turkish learners at University Preparatory classes. The classes were selected randomly.

Data Analysis

This part regards what the definition of culture for Turkish language learners is. In the questionnaire there are three options. These items try to find out whether learners view culture as comprising of big "C" or a small "c" or both. Big „C" culture refers to arts or literature of a society whereas small „c" culture refers to daily, practical issues.

Table 1

Definition of culture according to students

Definition of culture	<i>f</i>	%
C	7	7,6
c	29	31,5
Cc	56	60,9

The results suggest that with a mean score of 2,53 learners opted more for the small “c” culture. It is understandable from Table 1 that Turkish learners see culture as a combination of both big “C” and small “c” elements. Therefore, we can understand that Turkish learners have a more instrumental sense in their cultural preferences.

Table 2

The meaning of target culture

Target culture	f	%
American	18	19,06
British	48	52,02
Australia/Canada	6	6,05
Other	20	21,07
Total	92	100

Table 2 presents the results about the primary culture in the eyes of the learners and which one must be learned in English lessons. The highest frequency belongs to British culture.

The following items constitute the likert section where learners’ beliefs and attitudes are investigated. Table 3 gives the frequencies.

Table 3

Turkish learners’ attitudes on learning culture

ITEMS	DISAGREE	AGREE
1. I would like to learn more about English speaking countries	72	20
2. I don’t mind what others do in their own cultures, what really a matter for me is just to learn the language.	37	55

For Item 1, Turkish learners opted for the “disagree” option with a frequency of 72. They do not seem to be willing to learn more about the English speaking countries. The second item is complementary of the first one. In this item, learners mostly disagreed with a frequency of 55. We can understand from these two items that Turkish learners of English are not motivated to learn the culture of the language they are learning. This answers the fourth research question of the study. These results may be related to the fact that Turkish learners view target culture knowledge as comprising of both big C and lower case c

culture. Ethno-linguistically speaking, they may be resistant to learn the *products* of the target culture.

Turkish Learners' Beliefs on Learning Target Culture

The following items are about learners' beliefs on learning the target culture. They are analyzed in detail. The results can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Turkish learners' beliefs on learning culture

ITEMS	DISAGREE	AGREE
3. Culture is an indispensable part of language learning.	63	29
4. I could learn cultural aspects better if I had a native teacher.	58	34
5. Learning a foreign language is the same as learning any other academic subject	21	71
6. While learning the target culture it is important to study certain communities like family, or political parties.	36	56
7. I will lose my native culture if I learn the target culture	12	80
8. Learning the target culture gives harm to the home culture	20	72
9. Insufficient cultural awareness hinders communications in the second language	47	45

For item 3, 63 of the participants disagreed, indicating that Turkish learners do not view learning culture as important or indispensable. Item 4 regards whether learners could learn the target culture better if they had a *native* English teacher. The results are surprising. Most of them (n=58) disagreed. Learners do not think that they could learn the culture better with a native English teacher. This item seems to verify the emerging view that the status of native speaker as a point of reference is declining.

Item 5 was particularly important on account of the fact that we need to find out how language learners view learning a second language. Majority of the participants (n=71) stated that they agreed on the statement. Turkish learners view learning a second language the same as learning any other subject. Item 6 was about whether certain communities like family, or political parties bear importance in the eyes of Turkish learners. The result shows that they are actually important because 56 of the participants agreed.

Item 7 in the questionnaire was about whether Turkish learners think they will lose their own identities when they learn the target culture. Most of the learners (n=80) agreed

on the statement, which indicates that Turkish learners think that they may lose their native culture and identity when they learn the target culture. Similarly, for item 8, majority of learners (n=72) stated that learning the target culture may give harm to the home culture in general.

Item 9 is about how learners view the relation between culture and the ability to communicate. Participants do not seem to think that insufficient cultural knowledge hinders communication. However, we know that it is not possible to communicate without cultural knowledge. We can also understand from this item that learners actually are not aware of the tight bounds between culture and language. To sum up, Turkish learners of English are not willing to learn the target culture for fear that it will give harm both to the individual and collective identities of home culture.

Practical Aspects of Learning Target Culture

There are three items under this heading. The results are given in Table 5.

Table 5

Practical aspects of learning culture (frequencies)

ITEMS	DISAGREE	AGREE
10. We generally work on cultural issues in our English lessons.	23	69
11. Working on culture motivates me to learn the language.	61	31
12. Our course book includes sufficient cultural knowledge	46	46

It appears that Turkish learners work on cultural issues in their English lessons. They also become more motivated to learn the language when they work on target culture. Finally, they believe that their coursebooks include enough amount of cultural knowledge.

Preferred Methods of Learning Target Culture

This section concerns the preferred ways of learning culture on the part on the part of the participants.

Table 6

Preferred ways of learning culture

	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
From my English lessons	22	23,91	14	15,21	35	38,04	10	10,86	11	11,95	3,35
From press	13	14,13	16	17,39	21	22,82	13	14,13	29	31,5	2,68
School activities	16	17,39	13	14,13	15	16,30	25	27,17	23	25	3,18
Internet	23	25	26	28,26	25	27,17	12	13,04	6	6,52	3,08
Cinema	19	20,65	22	23,91	21	22,82	17	18,47	13	14,13	3,78
Music	15	16,30	17	18,47	19	20,65	16	17,39	25	27,17	3,07
From native speakers	14	15,21	3	3,26	15	16,30	21	22,82	39	42,39	4,25
From my family	14	15,21	12	13,04	13	14,13	18	19,56	35	38,04	2,47
From TV	12	13,04	19	20,65	31	33,69	19	20,65	11	11,95	3,02
From social networks	18	19,56	15	16,30	29	31,5	9	9,78	21	22,82	3,00
Going abroad	20	21,73	7	7,60	10	10,86	10	10,86	45	48,91	2,42

The top choice is “from native speakers” with a mean score of 4,25. We can understand that Turkish learners view the native speaker as the main point of reference in the learning of culture. “Going abroad”, “watching English movies” and “reading written sources like novels or magazines” are the following most favored options. In this section almost all of the items have a mean score of above 3.00. It seems that learners favored all of them as viable ways to learn the target culture. However, watching TV, listening to music, and social networking sites received the lowest scores, suggesting that these are less favored by the participants as culture learning opportunities.

Cultural Elements Turkish Learners Prefer Working on

Finally, the last section concerns the cultural issues that learners would like to work on. Learners were presented with a number of choices and asked to select.

Table 7

Cultural elements Turkish learners prefer working on

	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
Geography	26	28,26	11	11,95	22	23,91	18	19,56	15	16,30	3,16
History	20	21,73	24	26,08	19	20,65	14	15,21	15	16,30	3,21
Politics	25	27,17	18	19,5	20	21,73	12	13,04	17	18,47	3,23
Traditions	29	31,5	25	27,17	15	16,30	10	10,86	13	14,13	3,51
Art	27	29,34	29	31,5	13	14,13	14	15,21	9	9,78	3,55
National symbols	27	29,34	19	20,65	16	17,39	11	11,95	19	20,65	3,26
Cultural groups	21	22,82	19	20,65	19	20,65	18	19,5	15	16,30	3,14
Youth life	32	34,78	25	27,17	15	16,30	11	11,95	9	9,78	3,65
Rules of behavior	34	36,95	22	23,91	12	13,04	11	11,95	13	14,13	3,57
Sports	20	21,73	24	26,08	19	20,65	12	13,04	17	18,47	3,19
Business life	31	33,69	20	21,73	17	18,47	13	14,13	11	11,95	3,51
Social rules	34	36,95	21	22,82	18	19,56	5	5,43	14	15,21	3,61

Items in the table above include examples of both big “C” (history or art) and lower case “c” (daily behaviors or social rules). The results show that the top mean score is that of the “youth life”. What follows is *social rules of behavior* with a mean score of 3,60. The fact that “social rules of behavior” has a high degree of frequency indicates that Turkish learners are actually more interested in learning lower case culture. In short, important findings of the present research can be summarized as follows:

- Turkish learners view target culture learning as comprising of both big “C” and lower case “c”.
- Turkish learners did not benefit from their English lessons in terms of learning the target culture.
- Turkish learners are not motivated to learn the target culture.
- Turkish learners believe that learning the target culture harms home culture.
- Turkish learners see “British Culture” as the primary culture to be learned.
- Turkish learners are not fully aware of the link between language and culture.
- The primary choice of Turkish learners in regard to the cultural categories is “social rules of behavior”.

Discussion

This study is a descriptive study as regards Turkish learners' beliefs, attitudes, and preferences about the learning and teaching of target culture. The results have been listed item by item above. In the light of the findings, it is possible to say that Turkish learners view "English Culture" as the relevant culture to study. Another point that merits attention is that Turkish learners do not seem to be motivated to learn culture. First of all, they must be motivated to learn the target culture. There are a lot of activities and ways to teach the target culture. They can be applied in the process of teaching the target culture.

It was mentioned above that the study would also focus on Moran's (2001) cultural categories: *persons*, *products*, *practices*, *communities*, and *perspectives*. The results can be categorized under these headings. For *persons* the items that sought whether learners would prefer to work on different groups within the target community found out the Turkish learners are actually eager to get to know the how persons live in their daily lives. As regards *products*, we can say that learners consider them important as well because they stated that they would like to learn the literature pertaining to English. When it comes to *practices*, the findings indicate that practices also occupy an important place in the views of learners. Perspectives did not turn out to be an applicable item for the present study on account of the fact that it is related to the general aim of the paper. Finally, *communities* were also favored by Turkish learners high.

Conclusion

In this study, the main aim has been to get an overall understanding of how Turkish learners view the learning of the target culture. To this end, learners' previous experiences, their beliefs and attitudes as regards certain issues about the learning of culture and finally their preferences about what cultural topics they would like to work on were investigated.

The results of the study revealed a number of important points on how Turkish language learners view the learning of the target culture. It must be noted that Turkish learners' awareness must be raised in regard to the learning of the target culture. In short, this research was significant in that it found out a number of important points that can be reconsidered in curriculum design for the future language teaching practices.

The relation between culture learning and motivation is an important one. Since the present study attempted to get an overall picture, the relation between motivation and the learning of the target was also another area of interest. However, it could not be studied thoroughly due to the reason that the purpose of the paper was to research the issue of culture from a broader perspective. In another study this can be studied. Another suggestion might be to reconsider the cultural topics given in the last part of the questionnaire. In addition, as regards the categorization there are a number of different categorizations. The ones selected for the present study were re-written by the researcher. In another study, they may be selected from longer or more detailed ones. As was stated at the onset, since culture is too broad a construct it is not easy to handle it in one single study. Therefore, more research is needed to identify specific points regarding the teaching of target culture in Turkey.

The findings of this study may help curriculum designers on deciding what to include and what not to include in regard to culture in language teaching programs. Another important finding, namely the fact that Turkish learners do not have a clear understanding of what constitutes culture, must be handled carefully prior to embarking on the teaching of it. Therefore, as Önalın's (2005) study also reveals, the teaching of culture must primarily focus on increasing learners' awareness

This study focused on the learning and teaching of culture in terms of learner attitudes and preferences. As an indispensable element of language, culture must also be studied in terms of other variables like for example materials and course books. Therefore, studies into materials and course books in relation to their cultural load are needed in order to bridge the gap and optimize the practice of target culture teaching in Turkey.

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Hedef Kültür Öğrenimi Hakkında Öğrencilerin Tutum ve Seçimleri

Öz

Problem Cümlesi: Yabancı dil eğitiminde etkili iletişim becerilerinin kazandırılması için hedef kültürün öğretimi büyük önem taşımaktadır. Ancak karmaşık yapısı yüzünden hedef kültürün öğretimi eğitimciler açısından problemler yaratmaktadır. Bu problemlerden en başta geleni hangi kültürel öğelerin dil öğretim programlarında yer alacağıdır. Diğer bir sorun ise öğrencilerin hedef kültürü öğrenmedeki motivasyon eksikliğidir. Bu çalışma program geliştiricilere bu konularda yardım etmek için yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmanın amacı öğrenciler açısından kültürün tanımının ne olduğunu anlamak, hangi kültürel öğelerin öğrenciler açısından önemli olduğunu saptamak ve hedef kültürü öğrenirken öğrencilerin hangi noktalara yoğunlaşmak istediklerini tespit ederek program geliştiricilere yardımcı olmaktır.

Yöntem: Çalışmanın yukarıda belirtilen amacını gerçekleştirebilmek için alanyazın taramasının ardından hazırlanan bir anket 92 kişiden oluşan bir katılımcı gruba uygulanmış ve sonuçları analiz edilmiştir. Anket birkaç bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcılara kültürün tanımının ne olduğu sorulmaktadır. İkinci bölümde katılımcılara kültür öğrenimi hakkında maddeler sunulmuş ve bu maddeler hakkında katılımcıların görüşleri alınmıştır. Son bölümde ise öğrencilerin hangi kültürel öğeleri önemsedikleri ve bunları hangi yöntemlerde öğrenmek istedikleri sorulmuştur.

Bulgular: Bulgulara göre hedef kültürü öğrenme konusunda öğrencilerimizin eksikleri olduğu görülmüş ve bunların başında motivasyon olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Sonuç olarak hedef kültürün öğretimi açısından yapılması gerekenlerin başında öğrencilerin bu konuda farkındalıklarının artırılması gelmektedir.

Sonuç ve öneriler: Bu çalışma, kültür öğretimi hakkında öğrencilerin düşünce ve tutumlarını kültürün öğrenciler açısından tanımının ne olduğunu ve öğrencilerin hangi kültürel öğeleri önemli gördüklerini belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Bulgulara göre öğrencilerin kültür öğretimi hakkındaki farkındalıklarının ve motivasyonlarının artırılması gerekmektedir. Bundan sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda katılımcı sayısı artırılabilir veya öğrencilere göre kültürel öğelerin önem derecesi saptanabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kültür, kültür öğretimi, öğrenen tercihi

**The Relationship between Communication Strategies and
Noticing Function of Output Hypothesis in Teacher Talk**

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Abstract

Purpose of the Study: The present study, building upon communication strategies research and noticing function of output hypothesis, examines the relationship between these two issues in teacher talk.

Method: Five Iranian EFL teachers along with the students in their classes participated in this study. To collect the required data for this study, two steps were taken. First, the researcher observed the classrooms as a non-participant and made audio-recordings from three lessons of each teacher. Second, a single semi-structured interview session was conducted with each teacher.

Results: The results showed that whether the teacher notices his linguistic gaps and uses communication strategies to deal with his linguistic problems but this noticing does not lead to any reaction on the part of the teacher; or the communication strategy is not noticed by the teacher that is in apparent contrast to Swain's noticing function of output hypothesis.

Keywords: Communication strategies, Output hypothesis, Noticing function, Iranian EFL teachers, Linguistic gaps

Introduction

The study of second/foreign language communication strategies (CSs) has a respectably long history in the field of second/foreign language acquisition. Since the

publication of the classic collection of papers on CSs in Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) book, language educators in many different contexts have always been interested in how second/foreign language learners make use of their linguistic repertoire in order to fill gaps in their efforts to communicate in foreign languages. Although there is not a consensus among researchers on the definition of CSs, Bialystok's (1990) definition will provide us with an insight into the nature of CSs. She asserts that native and non-native speakers of any language sometimes attempt to find appropriate expressions and/or grammatical constructions when struggling to communicate their meaning. Here, a gap is created between what the individual wants to communicate and the immediately available linguistic resources. The ways in which he/she tries to fill the gap are known as CSs. More specifically, "communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b, p. 36).

The importance of CSs relies on two aspects: first, they are an invaluable means of dealing with communication trouble spot, such as when a speaker doesn't know a particular word or misunderstands the other speaker. Second, these strategies can also enhance fluency and help to the efficiency of communication. Knowing such strategies is particularly useful for L2 speakers, who frequently experience such difficulties in conversation, because they may provide them with a sense of security in the language by allowing extra time and room to maneuver. Generally, it is argued that the application of foreign language CSs is viewed as one vehicle for promoting greater success in EFL contexts.

Of particular relevance to CSs study is Swain's output hypothesis, especially its noticing function which states that language production enables learners to notice the gap between what they can say and what they want to say when they formulate the target language (notice that this definition is the same as the Bialystok's definition stated above). In other words, Swain (1995) believes that output gives rise to noticing. She states, "to test this hypothesis (function), one would need to demonstrate that learners may, on occasion, notice a problem (even without external cueing) through, for example, implicit or explicit feedback provided from an interlocutor about problems in the learners' output" (p. 129). She further asserts,

It seems to me that there is ample evidence from the *communication strategy* literature (for example, Tarone, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991) that learners do notice problems as they speak, and do try to do something about them (p. 129; emphasis added).

The main reason underlying our focus on the noticing function of output in the present study is its important theoretical and pedagogical implications. Theoretically, the noticing function of output is closely related to the issue of CSs in second language acquisition (Swain, 1995). Pedagogically, a fair amount of research has taken into account and tested student output and its noticing function (e.g., Iwashita, 2001; Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999; Pica et al., 1996; Shehadeh, 1999, 2001; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Van den Branden, 1997) but no study has already dealt with this notion in teacher talk, generally, and non-native English teachers, specifically. In spite of the fact that the investigation of teacher talk within classroom discourse has been the focus of much attention for a number of years, it is still only partially understood. In recent years, the second language classroom has been characterized as an on-going and complex series of interrelated contexts, in which teacher talk is seen as being central to teaching and learning. Our understanding of this issue can only be advanced once we identify meaningful ways of investigating teacher talk within classroom discourse.

It should be noted that when we are talking about teachers, we are concerned with EFL teachers and we believe that these teachers' job is more difficult in comparison with their native English colleagues. Since most of these teachers have obvious deficiency of linguistic knowledge, they have another responsibility except their natural duty (teaching), that is learning (improving) language on their own. Metaphorically, non-native English teachers are potential learners that are teaching to other learners. As Anani Sarab (2004, p. 2) states, "In handling communication problems, teachers – like any speaker – are probably constantly planning ahead, making on-line adjustments and monitoring or responding to problems as they become manifest".

Considering the Swain's claim, it seems that output hypothesis and its noticing function is applicable to non-native English teachers' research, specifically to the use of CSs in their talk. In other words, it seems that there is a relationship between noticing function of output hypothesis and CSs. This study is, therefore, an attempt to shed some

light on this issue by asking the following questions: is noticing function true for non-native English teachers (as it is for learners)? What happens when (if at all) these teachers notice their linguistic gaps?

Review of Literature

Generally, there have been two different groups in approaching CSs. The first group tries to propose additional categories, maintain and expand existing taxonomies (e.g., Tarone et al., 1976). The second group denies the value of existing taxonomies and is always trying to reduce the number of categories of analysis (e.g., The Nijmegen Group). Yule and Tarone (1997), for ease of reference, call the proponents of the first group "the pros" since they are profligate in their liberal expansion of categories and the proponents of the second group "the cons" since they are rather conservative, given their emphasis on parsimony. Proponents of the first approach deal with the external and interactional perspective of learners (e.g., Varadi, 1973; Tarone et al., 1976; Tarone, 1983; and Corder, 1983); but advocates of the second approach take the internal and cognitive processes of learners into account (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Bialystok, 1990; and the Nijmegen Group). However, it should be noted that these all are superficial manifestations of two divergent theoretical perspectives, namely, interactional (sociolinguistic) and psycholinguistic. Due to their importance in CSs research, a brief review of the studies of the leading scholars of these two opposing theoretical manifestations is represented in the following.

Varadi (1973; but published in 1983) gave a talk at a small European conference which is considered the first systematic analysis of strategic language behavior. This talk dealt with message adjustment in particular and was deeply rooted in Error Analysis. Briefly, Tamas Varadi's classic paper, "Strategies of Target Language Communication: Message Adjustment", establishes a model of interlanguage production which focuses on the strategies the learner employs when he experiences a "hiatus" in his interlanguage repertoire and he believes "the question of how close the learner comes to communicating what he wanted to say must not be disregarded" (p. 80). He then offers a schematic view of the communication process of target language learners which takes into account the implications of this criterion. In order to adjust his message to his communicative resources, the learner either replaces the meaning or form of his intended message by using

items which are part of his interlanguage, or he reduces his intended message on either the formal or the functional level. This model was tested out in a pilot study involving adult Hungarian learners of English at the intermediate level and the experiment confirmed the hypothetical model of adjustment strategies.

In another study, Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) defined communication strategy "as a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed" (p. 5). They established the first systematic classification of communication strategies and based their CSs typology on data from nine subjects. Several distinct types of communication strategies which were for the most part observable in the various domains of language (phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical) were discussed and illustrated. These strategies involved transfer from native language, overgeneralization, prefabricated pattern, overelaboration, epenthesis, and avoidance (also divided into sub-categories). Their taxonomy is still seen as the most important in the field since most of the following taxonomies relied on it.

The relationship between CSs and meaning-negotiation mechanisms, for the first time, was presented by Tarone (1983), according to which CSs, "relate to a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p. 65). This definition is potentially broader than Tarone et al.'s (1976) earlier one. It represented an interactional perspective. In other words, CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal. This interactional perspective covered various repair mechanisms, which Tarone considered CSs if their intention was to clarify intended meaning rather than simply correct linguistic form.

Finally, Corder's (1983) survey, "Strategies of Communication", represents a markedly different way of defining CSs. According to Corder, CSs are used by a speaker when faced with some difficulty due to his communicative ends outrunning his communicative means. In other words, communicative strategies "are a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p. 16). He proposes two options for appointing CSs to different types: either the speaker tailors the intended message to his linguistic resources or manipulates the available

linguistic competence in order to make it consistent with the intended meaning. Corder calls the strategies produced by the first option "message adjustment strategies" and those by the second, "resource expansion strategies".

Most of the research conducted on CSs up to the second half of the 1980s share one thing: namely, they follow a primarily linguistic approach to defining CSs (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Instead of conducting product-oriented research, Faerch and Kasper (1983b), Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group recommended CS research adopt a new analytic perspective, focusing on the cognitive "deep structure" of strategic language behavior. In other words, these researchers consider CSs as mental plans implemented by the second language learner in response to an internal signal of an imminent problem, a form of self-help that does not have to engage the interlocutor's support for resolution. In Kellerman's (1991) conclusion,

The systematic study of compensatory strategies has not been properly served by the construction of taxonomies of strategy types which are identified on the basis of variable and conflicting criteria which confound grammatical form, incidental and inherent properties of referents, and encoding medium with putative cognitive processes. This inconsistency has led to a proliferation of strategy types with little regard for such desirable requirements as psychological plausibility, parsimony and finiteness (p. 158).

The intraindividual, psycholinguistic view locates CSs either in models of speech production (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b) or cognitive organization and processing (Bialystok, 1990 and the Nijmegen Group).

In this way, Faerch and Kasper (1983b) adopted, for the first time, a psycholinguistic approach to CSs and attempted to distinguish strategies from processes, procedures, plans, tactics, etc. From this perspective, CSs are located within a general model of speech production, in which two phases are identified, the planning phase and the execution phase. They found that in the planning phase, language learners retrieve items from the relevant linguistic system. The product of the planning process is a plan that controls the execution phase. The execution phase consists of neurological/physiological processes. When non-native speakers of a target language encounter a problem during the course of communication, due to the lack of linguistic knowledge at either the planning or the

execution phase of speech production, they produce a plan to overcome the problem. Communication strategies are part of this planning phase and are utilized when learners are prevented from executing their original plan because of some problem. Similar to Tarone's criteria, learners may choose avoidance by changing their original goal through some sort of "reduction" strategy. Alternatively, they may maintain their original goal through a substitute plan. This is referred to as an "achievement" strategy.

Bialystok (1990), another psycholinguistic researcher, believes that although considerable progress has been made through different approaches, the ultimate goal of integrating the observations into a coherent account of speech production has not been realized. According to Bialystok, the only solution to this problem is an approach based on the process of using language for communicative purposes. In this way, Bialystok's alternative cognitive framework of CSs is based on two cognitive skills: *analysis of knowledge* and *cognitive control*. Analysis of knowledge is defined as the ability to make some kind of alteration to the message content by exploiting knowledge of the concept. Strategies employed to accomplish this may include providing a definition of a concept or object, or engaging in circumlocution. Cognitive control refers to the manipulation of the method of expression by integrating resources from outside the L2 in order to communicate the intended message. Strategies employed to accomplish this may include use of the L1 or non-linguistic strategies such as miming.

Perhaps the most extensive series of studies to date into CSs was undertaken by the Nijmegen project throughout the 1980s and 1990s (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). The Nijmegen Group researchers (i.e., Kellerman, Bongaerts, and Poullisse) also approached CSs from a psycholinguistic perspective and chiefly concerned with investigating a subset of CSs called "compensatory strategies". In the Nijmegen model, compensatory strategies will be one of two types, *conceptual* or *code* compensatory strategies (Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997). Conceptual strategies are those whereby the participant manipulates the concept of the target referent in an effort to explain the item and is consistent with Bialystok's notion of analysis of knowledge. Linguistic or code compensatory strategies are those where learners manipulate their linguistic knowledge.

Yule and Tarone (1997) summarize the duality of approaches taken by researchers – the "Pros" following the traditional approach and the "Cons" taking a primarily psychological stance – as follows:

The taxonomic approach of the Pros focuses on the descriptions of the language produced by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the means used to accomplish reference in terms of the observed form. It is primarily a description of observed forms in L2 output, with implicit inferences being made about the differences in the psychological processing that produced them. The alternative approach of the Cons focuses on a description of the psychological processes used by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the cognitive decisions humans make in order to accomplish reference. It is primarily a description of cognitive processing, with implicit references being made about the inherent similarity of linguistically different forms observed in the L2 output (p. 19).

A New Approach to Dealing with CSs

Following Yule and Tarone's (1991) claim that for a comprehensive understanding of strategic communication, attention needs to be paid to "both sides of the page", i.e. to the actions of both learners and interlocutors, scholars, such as Firth and Wagner (1996; also Wagner & Firth 1997), have tried to describe strategic communication as an interactive activity. In these studies, CSs are analyzed as elements of the ongoing and co-constructed context of the interaction and their communicative function is established by taking into account the actions of all the conversational participants, not only students. It does not need just be the L2 student who is felt to have inadequate linguistic knowledge in classroom interaction (it may be the teacher; Rampton, 1997). As Willems (1987, p. 354) asserts "all of us [teachers] – and not just our pupils – have a natural tendency to use communication strategies when communication problems arise".

The latter argument is of particular importance in EFL classroom contexts where non-native English teachers are performing their duties. It is interesting to know that many language teachers are themselves second/foreign language speakers and lag behind their linguistic knowledge. These teachers' talk can reveal and make explicit to a large extent the conditions and consequences of teaching and learning principles in classroom contexts. In this way, Cullen (1998, p. 179) asserts,

while the question of how much teachers talk is still important, more emphasis is given to how effectively they are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in their classroom through, for example, the kind of questions they ask, the speech modifications they make when talking to learners [such as communication strategies], or the way they react to student errors.

Thus, the importance of teacher talk relies on two aspects: first, its role as a source for L2 learning; second, its role as a key interactional constituent of the language learning context. Anani Sarab (2004, p. 1) believes,

The implications [of teacher talk] are of interest generally in contemporary language teaching, and of course for teacher education and teacher development. This interest is motivated by the growing recognition of the role of teacher talk in determining the patterns of interaction and in effect the learning opportunities provided for the learners. The consensus is that through the investigation of teacher talk and classroom interaction we can come to a better understanding of the teaching-learning process.

Thus, although teacher talk has been of considerable interest in understanding and attempting to develop second language teaching pedagogy, little attention has been paid to teachers, especially a very significant aspect of teacher talk that is CSs. This paper is an attempt to deal with this important, and neglected, feature of teacher talk and its relation to the noticing function of output hypothesis.

The Rationale for Adopting Noticing Function

In a seminal article, Swain (1985) argued that comprehensible input may not be sufficient for successful second language acquisition (SLA), but that opportunities for non-native speakers to produce comprehensible output are also necessary. In this way, Swain (1985) proposed a hypothesis relating to the second language learner's production comparable to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis. She termed this hypothesis as the "comprehensible output hypothesis" for SLA. Swain argued that comprehensible output is the output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired.

More recently, Swain (1995), refining the comprehensible output hypothesis developed in Swain (1985), proposed three different functions of output in SLA. First, it is hypothesized that output promotes "noticing". That is to say, "in producing the target language (vocally or subvocally) learners may notice a gap between what they *want* to say and what they *can* say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only partially" (pp. 125-126). A second way in which producing language may serve the language learning process is through hypothesis testing. That is, "producing output is one way of testing a hypothesis about comprehensibility or linguistic well-formedness" (p. 126). Thirdly, as learners reflect upon their own target language use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge. She states, "my assumption at present is that there is theoretical justification for considering a distinct metalinguistic function of output" (p. 126).

Of several functions of output identified by Swain (1995), we focus in this study on the *noticing/triggering* function due to its relevance to CSs literature. Addressing this function of output, Swain (1995, p. 126) argues that,

...under some circumstances, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to consciously recognize some of their linguistic problems; it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about their L2.

A second reason for adopting this function of Swain's output hypothesis is that previous research has predominantly focused on second/foreign language learners' language production and there is no study regarding non-native second/foreign language teachers' language production, particularly testing the noticing function.

Research Questions

The aim of this study is to shed some light on the question of whether the use of CSs by Iranian non-native English teachers brings about noticing and if it does what happens. More specifically, the following research questions were addressed in this study:

- 1) Does the use of communication strategies by Iranian non-native English teachers bring about noticing?

- 2) What does happen if the use of communication strategies by Iranian non-native English teachers brings about noticing?

Method

Subjects

In accordance with previous literature on investigating English teachers in language contexts generally (for example, Seedhouse, 1996, 1997a, 1997b, 1999, 2004; and Walsh, 2002, 2006), and Iranian non-native English teachers in EFL contexts specifically (for example, Farrokhi, 2006 and Anani Sarab, 2004), five EFL teachers along with the students in their classes participated in this study. One class at pre-intermediate level was selected from each teacher. Each class had between 10 to 15 students who were between 14 and 20 years old. All teachers were male, ranging from 1 to 27 years in terms of their experience in teaching EFL. They were between 21 and 47 years old, teaching in two private language institutes in Babolsar, Iran. Three classes of one institute met two times a week with 120-minute sessions each time and two classes of the other institute met two times a week with 90-minute sessions. The teachers were not made aware that the researchers intended to examine how they deal with linguistic gaps in their interlanguage repertoire. They were simply told that the study aimed at investigating general patterns of their talk in the classroom context.

Data Collection Procedures

According to Seedhouse (2004, p. 87) "classroom research has considered between five and ten lessons a reasonable database". This study rests on a corpus of 15 sessions, a reasonable sample size on which to make generalizations and draw conclusions. The data for the present study were collected from EFL classroom contexts in Iran. To collect the required data for this study, two steps were taken. First, one of the researchers observed the classrooms as a non-participant and made audio-recordings from three lessons of each teacher. The reason for researcher's presence in the classroom as a non-participant observer was that some of the CSs are non-verbal (such as miming) and this fact justifies the researcher's presence in the classroom. The researcher made use of a tape-recorder for making the audio-recordings of the whole class. In addition, an MP3 Player was put near to the teacher in each class both to record whole-class interaction and to capture teacher voice

more clearly. Using the above-mentioned method, 27 hours of naturally occurring data was obtained from the five teachers (3 sessions for each teacher, with 9 sessions lasting about 120 minutes and 6 sessions lasting about 90 minutes) participating in this study.

Second, a single semi-structured interview session was conducted with each teacher. While the interviews were conducted, the conversations were audio-recorded and the researcher took notes. Farsi (the teachers' native language) was used to elicit more information about the teachers' attitudes. Each interview lasted about 15 to 30 minutes. It could be debated that other means would also be feasible to gather such data, such as questionnaires or group interviews. However, due to restrictions in time and teachers' preferences, the researchers decided to conduct a more direct means to gain access to the opinions and experiences of the participants. Interviewing, in this sense, provides a direct route to the data, especially semi-structured interviewing which has a free form in its interactional style and is best suited to exploring the topics associated with the research (Adamson, 2004). Rather than a rigidly structured interviewing style which would limit the interviewer to set questions, the researchers preferred to use semi-structured style to have the ability to change question forms to suit the linguistic or conceptual competence of the interviewees. Yet, another reason for choosing this type of interview, which is used quite widely in applied linguistics research, was that it offered a compromise between the two extremes: although there was a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format was open-ended and the interviewee was encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner (Dornyei, 2007). In other words, the interviewer provided guidance and direction, but was also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee to elaborate on certain issues.

Coding and Analysis of the Data

In order to answer the first research question, the researchers analyzed the audio-recordings of the classroom data. In this way, we first transcribed the data and then identified the CSs in them. The next step in analyzing the data was to develop the categories of analysis for coding the CSs. These different categories of analysis are defined and illustrated in the following. Regarding the second research question, a qualitative analysis was carried out on interviews and lessons which have already been transcribed and

coded. The aim of the analysis was to reveal something about Iranian non-native English teachers' use of CSs and its consequences.

Coding Communication Strategies

In order to show the widespread use of CSs and their importance in teacher talk, different types of communication strategy identified in the database of this study were coded into one of the following CS types: 1) approximation, 2) circumlocution, 3) avoidance, 4) miming, 5) appeal for assistance, and 6) code switching. This typology is basically developed based on theoretical considerations (Tarone et al., 1976 and Tarone, 1977), though the categorization is supported by empirical research evidence (Bialystok, 1990). The reason for choosing Tarone's typology is that her taxonomy is still seen as the most important in the field since most of the following taxonomies relied on it (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). The following table gives a detailed view of the results and provides an overall representation of the frequencies of CSs for each teacher.

Table 1

Distribution of communication strategies across teachers (numbers show the frequencies)

CS Types Teachers	CS Types						Row Total
	Approximation	Circumlocution	Avoidance	Miming	Appeal for Assistance	Code Switching	
T1	40	4	7	1	3	2	57
T2	97	11	13	7	6	4	138
T3	19	1	8	1	3	0	32
T4	17	0	0	0	0	0	17
T5	17	1	0	0	0	0	18
Column Total	190	17	28	9	12	6	Grand Total: 262

These CSs are defined and exemplified below. The transcripts presented below are based on the standard transcription system. Language has not been corrected and standard conventions of punctuation are not used, the aim being to represent "warts and all" the exchanges as they occurred in the classroom. The only contractions in the following

transcriptions that seem necessary to be defined are T that stands for "teacher", L that stands for "learner" and LL that stands for "several learners at once".

Approximation

It is simply the use of a substitute word which shares some of the critical semantic features with the target item. Tarone (1977) identifies this type of CS within the broad category of paraphrase and defines it as "the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the learner" (p. 198). Approximation, then, includes virtually all word substitutions that the L2 speaker knowingly employs to serve in place of the more accurate term. The substitute word can refer to the correct concept but at an inappropriate level, such as worm for silkworm, or refer to another object that may give some hint to the intended referent, such as lamp for water-pipe (Bialystok, 1990). The example below from our database illustrates approximation:

Extract 1:

1 T: all right I think most of you finished

2 L: yeah

3 T: Hamed zero point two five is the same as?

4 L: A quarter

5 T: a quarter why did you hang? yes you're in doubt when you say ha? You're in doubt be sure you're true and Hossein eh... zero point three three is the same as?

In this exchange, the teacher is doing a practice from the book in which the students are required to say the equivalents to the teacher's numbers. As he is asking questions, he uses the word "hang" in number 5 that does not seem to be correct based on what he says in the rest of the sentence. In fact, he is expressing the meaning of "surprise". Although this expression is not correct, it semantically conveys the meaning to the students.

Circumlocution

This communication strategy is simply defined as the description of the characteristics or elements of the subject or action instead of using the appropriate target language structure. This strategy is also a subtype of paraphrase in Tarone's typology and is

defined as "a wordly extended process in which the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language structure" (p. 198). The example Tarone gives from her study is a subject attempting to refer to water-pipe: "she is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of". Here the learner is groping for features that may help the listener guess what the intended object might be. Bialystok (1990) gives another example from her study. The following circumlocutions were provided for bench: a little wooden chair, to rest your legs when you are tired, it doesn't have a back. The example below from our database illustrates circumlocution:

Extract 2:

1 T: Interesting such a beautiful stomach ha? all right so what does he do? He eats a sandwich?

2 LL: yeah

3 T: can you read the sentence that is written on the T-shirt?

4 L: Nike /naik/

5 T: Nike? We call it /naiki/

6 L: yeah

7 T: Mr. Danial rude Danial is eating in the class the action is called eh... yes it means eh... use your teeth and eh... make into different slices and eat all right?

In this extract, the teacher is describing a caricature in the book. He suddenly stops teaching and refers to one of the students in number 7 who is chewing gum and it seems that he can not find the appropriate word for his action. In this way, he makes use of circumlocution and describes the characteristics of what he is going to say that is "chewing".

Avoidance

L2 speakers sometimes make a deliberate decision not to speak because they expect communication problems to arise. This avoidance is a common strategy for second language speakers, causing them to remain silent simply because some aspect of vocabulary or grammar is not known. Although normally difficult to detect, Tarone's methodology made it clear when a subject was deliberately using an avoidance strategy.

Omitting salient but lexically difficult objects shown in the picture, such as mushroom or water-pipe, was interpreted as evidence of this strategy. Bialystok (1990) believes, "such interpretations were especially well-grounded since each subject also provided descriptions in their native language. Content discrepancies between the two data sets pointed to cases of avoidance" (p. 40).

Tarone refined this strategy by distinguishing between *topic avoidance* and *message abandonment*. For the former, specific topics or words are avoided to the best of the learner's ability. In other words, learners manage to prevent the occurrence of topics that are certain to present difficulties. For the latter, learners stumble into a topic that is too difficult and simply give up and go on to another. The examples below from the database illustrate both of these avoidance strategies:

Extract 3:

- 1 T: I said we watch movie or I said we read the story? Because we have two or three sessions to finish this term I think eh... we watched a lot we have watched movie a lot eh... so please open your story eh... books to finish it so don't forget to bring your writing next session we will talk about
- 2 L: This question
- 3 T: Yes answer these questions please I beg you I talked a lot yeah? So have you ever heard I'm sorry eh... women eh... I forget what do we call it ok so women are women (the teacher laughs) later I will tell you

In this extract, the teacher consciously avoids the topic about women in number 3. The expression "later I will tell you" shows that maybe the teacher finds this topic rather difficult to discuss and, in this way, prefers to avoid it. This extract is an example of the first type of avoidance that is topic avoidance.

Extract 4:

- 1 T: Which option is it?
- 2 L: One and a half f
- 3 T: Yes yes one and a half years old our kids just start saying mama papa but he started to play golf
- 4 L: When he is nine month...

5 T: Yes he could because he's Tiger

6 LL: (two of the students knock on the door and enter) hello

7 T: Hello some people who have muscles it's hard to eh... you're late why you're late?

8 L: we were coming to Kish Air we were arrested they caught motor bike

In this extract, the teacher is doing an exercise from the book and is talking about a famous golf player. It seems that the teacher is going to say something in number 7 but suddenly leaves the message and continues. This extract is an illustration of the second type of avoidance that is message abandonment.

Miming

This strategy includes all non-verbal accompaniments to communication, particularly those that serve in the place of a missing target language word. Tarone's example makes this type of communication strategy more clear. The subject claps his hands to indicate applause. An example of miming is provided below:

Extract 5:

T: yes that time I enemy my enemy was between my my field and I thought that eh... their goal is smaller than us he was cheating and I said hey what do you do? And he said what? What did you say me? Are you shouting at me? And I said yeah what do you think? Who are you? And eh... suddenly eh... he put his legs behind my legs and he pushed me and I felt on the cement on my head exactly I was I was styling in this style (the teacher mimes) then I was converse

In this extract, the teacher is telling a story in the past when he was a kid. As he is talking about his fight with one of his friends, he gestures to show that he was on his back. It seems that the teacher could not find an appropriate word for this action and, therefore, made use of miming to convey his intended meaning.

Appeal for Assistance

This type of strategy occurs when the L2 speaker seeks direct or indirect help from one's interlocutor in resolving problems. An appeal for assistance occurs when the L2 speaker consults any source of authority: a native speaker, the experimenter, a dictionary.

This strategy also takes into account other more verbal efforts such as prosodic features like rising intonation which implicitly elicits some assistance or validation from the listener. In other words, there are two kinds of appeal for assistance as follows:

- 1) *Explicit appeal for assistance*: giving up one's efforts to express meaning and asking the interlocutor to help or using a dictionary.
- 2) *Implicit appeal for assistance*: disfluency marker realized in one's speech signaling linguistic problems in production.

The examples below are drawn from our own database and take into account both types of appeal for assistance:

Extract 6:

- 1 L: Excuse me what is الگوش وایتادن/falgush vaistadan/?
- 2 T: It means eh... let me check it up (teacher checks it up in a dictionary) eavesdrop overhear listen secretly to a conversation yes? Eavesdropping overhear

In this extract, one of the students asks the meaning of a word in L2. In order to find the answer to this question, the teacher uses his dictionary in number 2. This extract clearly depicts the use of an explicit appeal for assistance by an EFL teacher.

Extract 7:

- 1 T: Some national what does it mean? It means all of the country it sends they send to all of the country like Jame Jam Iran Etemade Meli but some are eh... it means just in Mazandaran just in Babolsar eh...
- 2 L: local
- 3 T: yes it is true local

In this extract, the teacher talks about newspapers in different countries as the class is watching a movie about media. At the end of number 1, the teacher uses a disfluency marker to show that he can not remember the intended word and, in this way, implicitly appeals for assistance. In number 2, one of the students helped him and in number 3, the teacher confirmed that this word was his intended word.

Code Switching

This strategy is simply defined as switching to a language other than L2. In Tarone's typology code switching (language switch) is a manifestation of the broader category *conscious transfer*. In her definition, code switch is the straightforward insertion of words from another language. The example below clearly illustrates this type of communication strategy:

Extract 8:

T: let me give you another example and what's it useful for I'm going to teach you the word mooch it's a beautiful word let's learn it look at my example (the teacher writes on the board) are you moocher? You know mooch don't you? You don't know mooch means for example a person who takes money a person who قرض میگیرد/qarz migire/ but he never pay it again he never pays pay back you see

This extract is a part of a rather long monologue by the teacher. As the teacher is explaining the meaning of a new word to the students, he resorts to his first language (Farsi) and uses an L1 word that has the same meaning as "borrow" to convey his meaning.

Results and Discussion

As it was mentioned earlier, in order to deal with research questions, an especial methodology was designed that relied on two aspects: 1) finding out whether the CSs, regarding an intended meaning, used in one of the sessions occur in the subsequent sessions, and 2) conducting an interview for exploring the effect of CSs on teachers in cases the first aspect fails and the effect of CSs is not clear. In other words, if the teachers repeated any type of communication strategy for conveying an intended meaning in one of the three sessions, it shows that the communication strategy has not been noticed and they have not done any reaction regarding this issue. In the cases in which the communication strategy for conveying an intended meaning does not occur in subsequent sessions, an interview is conducted with the teacher to obtain more information regarding this phenomenon. Meanwhile, in the cases in which the communication strategy occurs in subsequent sessions, an interview is conducted with the teacher to both validate the use of communication strategy by the teacher and obtain more information.

Regarding the first procedure, data show that only three teachers have repeated CSs in subsequent sessions (teachers 2, 3, and 4). The following examples illustrate how these teachers have made use of CSs in their talk:

Extract 9:

1 L: we were coming to Kish Air we were arrested they caught motor bike

2 T: Oh really? Your your motorbike was caught by police?

3 L: Yes

4 L: Why?

5 T: You couldn't پارٹی/parti/?

6 L: No

Extract 10:

1 T: look at the drawn painting it's very interesting look one two and three it's it's a normal yeah? but number four

2 LL: (the students laugh)

3 T: is the first one I think really sometimes eh... I don't know what do we call it it means you have eh... three p three p in Iran one of them is money yeah? One of them is you you are rude it means you have good conversation you have good connection to people and the last one is somebody help you yeah? Beyond the story yeah

As extract 9 shows, teacher 2 is confronted with a situation in session 2 in which he doesn't know the intended word (favoritism) in second language and makes use of code switching (that is a type of communication strategy). Extract 10 shows that teacher 2 is again confronted with a situation in session 3 in which he doesn't know the *same word* and, in this way, makes use of another communication strategy that is circumlocution. What do these two extracts tell us? These two extracts indicate that whether the use of communication strategy has not resulted in noticing or if it has resulted in noticing, the teacher has not done anything especial regarding this noticing (i.e., noticing has not resulted in learning). This is obviously in contrast to Swain's (1995) noticing function of output hypothesis which claims that language production enables learners to notice the gap between what they can say and what they want to say when they formulate the target language.

Extract 11:

1 L: si tE e e esu xEمراض /mortaz/?

2 T: Eh... let's say yeah I know some Indian people are jugglers actually like this
yes? Woodoers we call woodoers (teacher checks the dictionary)

Extract 12:

1 L: Excuse me last session I asked you مراض /mortaz/

2 T: Nowadays I don't know whether I'm coming or going you know? Because I
have so many classes believe me or not I want let you know my phone number all right?

In extract 11, a student asks teacher 3 a word (ascetic in L2) in session 2 that he doesn't know and he consequently makes use of a communication strategy that is appeal for assistance (the teacher checks the dictionary) but he can not find the appropriate answer. In session 3 (extract 12), the student again raises the same question and the teacher doesn't know the word for the second time. What can be concluded from these two extracts is that the teacher has obviously noticed the gap (checking dictionary) in the second session but he has not done anything especial regarding this noticing.

Extract 13:

T: read the text what is text? Can you show me text? This is a text (teacher refers to a text in the book) that's nice and number f

Extract 14:

T: ok? Use them use them in sentences an used for a vowel sound an engineer ok? Please write (students do the exercise) ok Naser number b ready?

As extract 13 shows, teacher 4 is confronted with a situation in session 1 in which he doesn't use the intended word (option) and makes use of approximation. Extract 14 shows that teacher 4 is again confronted with a situation in session 3 in which he doesn't use the intended word again and, in this way, makes use of the same communication strategy. Again it seems that whether the use of communication strategy has not resulted in noticing or if it has resulted in noticing, the teacher has not done anything especial regarding this noticing and the same inappropriate word has been repeated.

Generally, it can be concluded that whether: 1) the teacher notices his linguistic gaps and uses CSs to deal with his linguistic problems (as is the case with teacher 3) but this noticing does not lead to any reaction on the part of the teacher and he does not do anything especial regarding this issue or, 2) the communication strategy is not noticed by the teacher (as is the case with teachers 2 and 4) that is in apparent contrast to Swain's (1995) noticing function. In proposing the output hypothesis, Swain (1985) argued that producing the target language may serve as "the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning" (p. 249). In the same line, learning is believed to be enhanced through the act of producing language, which, by its mechanisms, increases the likelihood that learners become sensitive to what they can and can not say in the target language, which leads to the reappraisal of their interlanguage capabilities. But this research didn't find any support to this claim.

In contrast to the previous teachers, it was not clear from the data whether the other two teachers (teachers 1 and 5) have noticed the linguistic gap due to the use of CSs in their talk or noticing has resulted in any reaction. Thus, one of the researchers conducted an interview with each of them. Teacher 1 in response to this question that what he will do if he is confronted with a situation in which he can not remember or even he does not know the intended word said, "in this situation I prefer to use a synonym". It seems that teacher 1 prefers to use approximation and this fact is clear from Table 1 where he has used approximation more frequently than other types of communication strategy. This teacher also in response to the general question that whether he thinks about or tries to learn the words and structures that he does not know or remember in the classroom said, "I have always tried to learn unknown and difficult words and structures especially those that have happened during my teaching". It seems that this teacher is more conscious about his difficulties in the classroom context since no similar CSs, regarding the same intended meaning, occurred in his speech.

The same two questions were asked from teacher 5. In contrast to teacher 1, teacher 5 in response to the first question said, "I'd prefer to use description and interpretation". Although teacher 5's answer shows that he is more interested in circumlocution, data show that he has used approximation more frequently than any other type of communication strategy. In response to the second question, teacher 5 asserted, "I think teaching is not

static and teachers should not feel themselves free from learning. I have always tried to learn what I don't know". Again it seems that this teacher is also aware of his teaching due to the lack of repeated CSs in his speech.

Conclusion

Much of the research conducted on CSs has been rather narrow in that it has been conducted almost exclusively using elicitation tasks in laboratory-like settings with unnatural methods and no attention has been paid to the natural context of the classrooms (for example see Varadi, 1973; Bialystok, 1983; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Dechert, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Wagner, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Jourdain, 2000; Littlemore, 2003; Nakatani, 2006; Maleki, 2007). In other words, researchers have treated CSs as independent and isolated units of analysis, paying little or no attention at all to the interactional context (classroom) in which they are used. Nakatani and Goh (2007, p. 213) contend, "while many studies have been conducted into the use of CSs for negotiation and repairs in research settings, few have explored L2 learners' CS use in actual classroom contexts where learners might use CSs that are quantitatively and qualitatively different from experimental settings".

Thus, due to the lack of understanding of classroom's problems and teacher-student interaction, there has been an increase in the number of investigations of CSs in classroom discourse. In the last few years, new studies have appeared adopting what can be considered as a strictly interactional approach to the description of CS use (Fernandez Dobao & Palacios Martinez, 2007). In this way, while previous studies have presented CSs mainly from an outside researcher's perspective, the aim in this paper was to move the focus to that of classroom contexts, especially Iranian EFL teaching contexts. Furthermore, it was proposed that CSs should be studied in the talk of the most important element of the classroom, that is teacher, and not just second language learners. In spite of the fact that the investigation of teacher talk within classroom discourse has been the focus of much attention for a number of years, it is still only partially understood. In this way, this study was an attempt to enhance our understanding of this issue through investigating CSs in teacher talk within classroom discourse. In addition, this study investigated the relationship between CSs and noticing function of output hypothesis. According to the findings, it

seems that the use of communication strategy does not generally result in noticing and, in the cases it does, teachers do not do anything especial regarding their noticing.

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Öğretmen Konuşmasında İletişim Stratejileri ve Çıktı Hipotezinin Farketme İşlevi Arasındaki İlişki

Öz

Çalışmanın Amacı: Bu çalışma, iletişim stratejileri araştırmalarına ve çıktı hipotezinin farketme işlevine dayanarak öğretmen konuşmasında bu iki konu arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir.

Yöntem: Beş İranlı İngilizce yabancı dil öğretmeni ve sınıflarındaki öğrenciler bu çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Bu çalışma için gerekli veriyi toplamak amacıyla iki aşama uygulanmıştır. Öncelikle, araştırmacı katılımcı olmayarak sınıfları gözlemlemiş ve her bir öğretmenin derslerinden üç tanesinin sesli kaydını yapmıştır. Daha sonra, her bir öğretmenle yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Sonuçlar: Sonuçlar, öğretmenin kendi dilbilgisel açığını fark edip dilbilgisel sorunlarını çözmek için iletişim stratejileri kullanıp kullanmasa da bu farkındalığın öğretmen tarafından herhangi bir tepkiye neden olmadığını göstermiştir. İletişim stratejisi öğretmen tarafından fark edilmemiştir ki bu da Swain'in çıktı hipotezindeki farketme işlevine ters düşmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: iletişim stratejileri, çıktı hipotezi, farketme işlevi, İranlı İngilizce yabancı dil öğretmenleri, dilbilgisel açıklar

**Improving EFL Students' Self-regulation in Reading English
Using a Cognitive Tool**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: One of the techniques which recently have attracted attention of researchers is concept mapping. Although, there are a number of researches investigating the influence of concept mapping technique on different skills e.g. reading, writing and etc, there are quite few studies on the effect of concept maps on motivational factors which are influential in students' success in reading such as self-regulation.

Purpose of Study: This paper strives to investigate if concept mapping as a cognitive tool could contribute to improving self-regulation of students in a reading course.

Methods: To fulfill the aim of the study, sixty university students from one of the universities in Iran were randomly assigned to two groups: one experimental (concept mapping) and the other control (conventional method).

Findings and Results: Results revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups with students in the experimental group outperforming those in the control group on self-regulation in reading.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The findings of the present study clearly demonstrated that the use of concept mapping strategy in teaching reading comprehension benefited Iranian EFL students who are at the intermediate level of language proficiency. The findings of the study have implications for teaching reading nationally and globally.

Keywords: self-regulation, concept mapping, reading.

Introduction

Reading comprehension possesses a vital role in academic life of many students. Many studies have been conducted in recent years regarding how to find ways influential in enhancing reading comprehension of students. It has been found that motivational factors are closely related to achievement and success of students in academic life. As a result, finding ways which contribute to enhancing students' motivational factors seems quite helpful. But the question which should be answered is that which methods or strategies can result in improving learners' motivational factors and consequently their achievement. One of the motivational variables which act as a facilitative factor leading to students' learning is self-regulation. Unlike the importance of this factor, few researches have been conducted regarding methods and techniques which can contribute to improvement of this trait.

One of the techniques which recently have attracted attention of researchers is concept mapping. Concept mapping has confirmed to be a valuable tool for improving aspects of cognitive processing of conceptual knowledge. It meets the demands of coping effectively with managing conceptual, content and resource knowledge in one consistent visual demonstration (Cañas et al., 2005, as cited in Tergana et al., 2006). Based on the results of many studies, concept mapping has been proved to be very effective in enhancing reading comprehension of students (Chapman & Tunmer, 2003; Chularut & DeBacker, 2004). Concept maps also seem to have a high potential to help learners in self-regulated learning and knowledge management (Tergan, Gräber, & Neumann, 2006). In present study, we hypothesized that due to processes done in concept mapping, it could contribute to self-regulation of students in reading comprehension. As such, the study strives to find if this technique can contribute to self-regulation of students in a reading course.

Review of Literature

Self-Regulation

According to Zimmerman (2002), self-regulation is defined as ones' ability to devise thoughts, feelings and actions that lead to achieve his/her goals. Self-regulation will be enhanced in students to raise motivation since it is one of the very important motivational factors. Those who are highly regulated can be compatible to different situations and come up with a solution while approaching a task in a confident tenacious purposeful manner (Zimmerman, 2002).

Learners need to pass through three processes to be self-regulated: self observation, self judgment and self-reaction (Bandura, 1986). Four regularly cognitive recurring cycles are applied in Pintrich's model (2000) that shares some processes in common with models of self-regulation. The first phase deals with planning, goal targeting and also assessing the presupposition related to approaching a task. Phase two involves a different self-monitoring process that indicates cognitive self-awareness and personal learning strategies. The third phase relates to various aspects of self-control/regulation and the task in situations. In phase four, one's reactions or reflections of the process are manifested. Pintrich (2000) asserts that self awareness and control/regulation processes in stage two and three are the main promising results in the course of schooling. Pintrich & Degroot (1990) conducted some researches which led to Pintrich's (2000) heuristic experiences. The important influence of self-efficacy beliefs in the use of metacognitive learning strategies and regulation of cognition are represented in their research as intending to find and increase self-regulated learning in children (Pintrich & Degroot, 1990). Students' success increase as they use motivational beliefs and learning strategies for self-regulation. It is indicated in literature by (Camahalan, 2006; Dresel, & Haugitz, 2005).

Pintrich (2004) states that motivational beliefs are very important in the learning process. He further emphasizes that these beliefs should be regulated like self-efficacy in order to be serviceable in the learning process. In this line, Zimmerman (2000) proposed three recurring stages for self-regulation process: forethought (premeditation), performance (implementation) or volitional control (decision making control). The first part relates to those activities done earlier than learning; for example, students' motivation, self-efficacy, goal setting and planning. In the second stage, the learners concentrate on the task to raise

their performance; for instance, careful attention, taking notes and monitoring. In self-reflection process, they have processes such as self-observation and self-assessment. In this phase, students run a comparison between their performance and the standard or goal and try to find the reason of the differences if any. They want to know whether the distance between their performance and the standard one is due to their potential weakness or their inadequate attempt.

Self-regulated learning will be emerged with learner's motivational beliefs, and meta-cognitive and cognitive learning strategies. Three main stages of self-regulation process have been defined by Schunk and Zimmerman (1997): self-observation, self judgment and self- reaction. Planning, managing time, attending to and focusing on instruction, using cognitive and meta- cognitive strategies, making a creative study environment and using social sources are essential in this process. Kesici and Erdogan (2007) mention some factors affecting evaluation of motivational process: goals materialization and their results, provision of positive beliefs about one's abilities, learning evaluation and its results and positive experiences influencing learning.

Self-Regulation and Achievement

The relationship between self-regulation and achievement has been confirmed in various studies. Pajares (1998) sought to investigate whether a relationship exist between goal orientation types, processes of self-regulation and school performance, and also why differences between self-regulation, academic performance regarding their profiles resulted from combination of learning and goal orientation. 702 college students i.e. 239 males and 463 females responded to a questionnaire to evaluate their orientation toward performance goals and learning. The outcomes indicated that for all of them, there were systematic relations between self -regulation, learning goals and academic achievement.

Wang & Pape (2003) investigated the verbal protocol data and strategy questionnaire data of 40 sixth and seventh-grade students. The questionnaire was adapted by the interview guide devised by Zimmerman and Martinez Pons (1986) including five scenarios which middle school students might confront in their school work. About 80% of the participants reported some important academic behaviors like seeking information and social assistance, goal setting and planning, organizing and transforming. Furthermore, there existed no significant differences regarding the total number of strategies reported by

mathematics high achievement group than low achievement group. Considerably, both high achievement groups i.e. mathematics, reading and successful problem solvers reported more examples of strategic behavior. Wang and Pape (2003) held that the variability of strategies and categories of strategies are the main causes of student's achievement in mathematics and reading. Their study showed that with confined number of different strategies and categories of strategies available, even less successful students easily used the same strategies available to them. The same results were obtained in other studies (Chamot & El Dinary, 1999).

In another study, Perry et al. (2001) found that academic performance evaluated by the final course grades has positive relationship with some measures such as academic control, intrinsic motivation, self-monitoring and perceived control. In this longitudinal study, data collection was done by the researchers at the beginning and at the end of the academic year. Negative correlation was observed between preoccupations with failure, course anxiety, boredom and final grades. conversely, the students with higher perceived levels of academic control displayed greater motivation, used self-monitoring strategies and had more control over their assignments and life, and it not only affected their perceptions but also their grades. As the results of mentioned studies clearly show, self-regulation and its components like self-monitoring are related to academic achievement of students.

In a recent study, Çelik et al. (2012) strived to find out the use of communication and information technologies for self regulation among university students. The results revealed no significant differences between the male and female students' use of ICT for self-regulated learning and also their academic level. In addition participants reported use of ICT to practice listening, vocabulary and writing skills. The authors continue continue to suggest that ICT for self regulation should be considered in teacher support and learners' education.

Concept Maps and Reading Class

A concept map is a graph organization made of nodes that are connected by labeled lines (see appendix). Concept maps can be utilized as an information illustration device to show relations that exist between concepts that reside in ones' mind (Jacobs-Lawson & Hershey, 2002). Concept mapping is a visualization technique, which has a long tradition in

the educational context as a cognitive tool for enhancing learning. This technique was proposed by Novak and Gowin (1984) based on the ideas of Ausubel (1963), who advocated that an individual's subject matter knowledge is mentally represented in a hierarchy of concepts. Concept mapping is suggested to take advantage of the remarkable capabilities of the human visual perception system and the benefits of visual information representation. These benefits include (a) ease of recognition, (b) the possibility to quickly scan a picture and find differences or keywords, (c) compactness of representation, and (d) the observation that it seems to be easier to keep an overview. (Kommers & Lanzing, 1997, p. 423 as cited in Tergan, et al., 2006). Concept mapping builds upon principles of two theories; namely, assimilation theory Ausubel (1963) and Constructivist theories (Colburn, 2000).

According to Chiou (2008), in a typical concept mapping class, the teacher first explains about usefulness of concept mapping tool for learning, elaborates on how concept mapping can be employed to illustrate relationships among concepts, and then students will be trained how to draw concept maps in accordance with the procedures suggested by Novak and Gowin (1984). After finishing a passage, the students are asked to use concept maps to represent what they had learned from the passage. The teacher then corrects student-constructed concept maps.

Although, there are a number of researches investigating the influence of concept mapping technique on different skills e.g. reading, writing and etc, there are quite few studies on the effect of concept maps on motivational factors which are influential in students' success in reading such as self-regulation. Given this necessity, we conducted a study to see if concept mapping would produce better results than conventional approaches to teaching reading currently in practice in the context of Iran. Specifically, present study aimed to investigate if concept mapping as a cognitive tool could contribute to improving self-regulation of students in a reading course.

Method

Participants

From among 120 students who volunteered to participate in the study, sixty sophomores who had registered for English reading comprehension course were selected in the study. The age range of participants was 19–25 (who turned out to have the same

intermediate proficiency level based on the results of Nelson English language proficiency test). The students were randomly placed into the experimental (N =30) and control (N=30) groups. In terms of geographical region, they were from the same location. All of the participants had studied English for six years in public schools and university. The teacher and the textbooks for both classes were the same to avoid confounding effects on the experiment. None of the students reported previous experience in concept mapping.

Instruments

In order to evaluate self-regulation of students, 13 items in MLSQ (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) which measure this trait were used. In this questionnaire, students are required to report their understanding of items in a likert-type manner. These items range from “completely true of me” to “not at all true of me”. This questionnaire has been used widely in different countries including Iran. It has been proved to have a high index of reliability.

Instructional materials in classes consisted of six passages selected from TOEFL practice tests (Pyle, 2001) and two passages from Readers Digest magazine. The difficulty level of these passages was medium based on the judgment of two experts and piloting on a sample with similar characteristics of participants. Another instrument used was a booklet which was prepared by the researchers in order to teach students how to draw concept maps. It was compiled using many sources such as Novak and Gowin, 1984; Llewellyn, 2007).

Procedure

At the outset of the study students were informed about the aim of the study and necessary consent forms were obtained. In the first phase of the study the homogeneity of students in terms of reading comprehension was insured through Nelson test of English proficiency. In the next phase, the self-regulation in reading measure was administered to all of the students in both groups.

In the learning phase of the study, students in concept mapping group studied the materials using concept maps i.e. they were supposed to draw maps for paragraphs and passages. For both control and experimental groups the reading materials were the same, however, they were taught in two methods. Students in the control group were taught using conventional method i.e. through individual reading and question-answer type. This method

of teaching reading is prevalent in Iran. The strategy instruction phase followed the following steps adopted from Harris and Graham (1996): “(1) Strategy description, (2) Discussion of goals and purposes, (3) Modeling of the strategy, (4) Student mastery of strategy steps, and (5) Guided practice and feedback” (cited in Talebinezhad & Mousapour, 2007: 76)

After familiarizing students with concept mapping, students started drawing maps for passages based on their understanding. The teacher provided feedback on students' performance and helped them correct their mistakes. Upon completion of a 10-week treatment program, the post-test on self-regulation was administered to examine the treatment effect.

Findings and Discussion

As table 1 shows, there were higher post-test scores on self-regulation than on the pre-test in both groups. The analysis of students' post test scores of self-regulation in reading revealed that students in the concept mapping group obtained higher mean post-test scores on self-regulation than the control group.

To ensure that the two groups were initially equivalent and could be compared, a Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was performed. No Significant difference was found between two groups' pre-test scores on self-regulation ($F=1.584, p> 0.05$).

Table 1

Means and standard deviations for pre-test and post-test scores on the self-regulation in reading

Self-regulation scores	M	SD	N
Pre-test			
Experimental group	9267.3	.22..3	30
Control group	9236..	.273.7	30
Post-test			
Experimental group	.29...	.2..26	30
Control group	.2.3.2	.263.0	30

This indicates that students in the concept mapping and the traditional learning strategy group did not differ significantly on pre-test scores of self-regulation.

Table 2

ANCOVA on post self-regulation scores in by group (experimental vs. control), using pre self-regulation as a covariate

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta Squared
Self-regulation in reading	1091.749	1	1091.749	80.910	.000	.587
Group	184.310	1	184.310	13.659	.000	.193
Error	769.118	57	13.493			

To investigate the effect of the instruction of concept mapping strategy on the students' self-regulation in reading while controlling for the effect of the pre-tests, ANCOVA was applied. Table 2 displays the results. Significant main effect was found for self-regulation strategy ($F = 13.659, p = .000$). It shows that the student's self-regulation in reading improved significantly as the consequence of the concept mapping strategy instruction. The data revealed that students' self-regulation was higher after the instruction of concept mapping.

The findings of the study clearly show that the students' self-regulation in reading improved significantly as the consequence of the concept mapping strategy instruction. These results are consistent with the findings of other researchers (Wang & Pape, 2003; Talebinezhad & Mousapour, 2007; Chularut, & DeBacker, 2004; Perry et al., 2002). The literature suggests that when students use motivational beliefs and learning strategies for self-regulation, their successes increase (Camahalan, 2006; Dresel, & Haugwitz, 2005). Planning, managing time, attending to and concentrating on instruction, using cognitive learning strategies, building a productive study environment, and making use of social sources are crucial in learning.

There are some explanations for the outperformance of students in concept mapping group. In concept mapping group, students applied cognitive and metacognitive strategies

in order to complete the maps e.g. they decided on important material presented in the passages. This may have contributed to students' improvement in self-regulation. In addition, strategies for evaluating motivational processes like setting performance goals and outcomes, holding a positive attitude about one's capabilities, and evaluating learning, its outcomes, and positive experiences that can affect learning have a considerable role (cited in Kesici & Erdogan, 2007). Students in the concept mapping group used mapping as a cognitive strategy. This strategy may have helped them regulate their learning through different processes which necessitates drawing maps. As results showed this strategy leads to students' success.

In addition, According to Pintrich's model (2000) regarding four phases that incorporates the processes common among models of self-regulation. Phase one involves planning and goal setting as well as the assessment of one's prior knowledge in relation to the task at hand. Phase two focuses on various monitoring processes that represent metacognitive awareness. Phase three involves control/regulation of different aspects of one's self and the task in context. Phase four represents one's reactions or reflections of the process. Considering concept mapping strategy, one can suggest that creating concept maps requires most of these phases. In the first phase which is the goal setting, students were given some texts and they were required to draw concept maps based on the given texts. In this phase students set a goal i.e. the goal of drawing concept map is for reading the texts. Phase two is monitoring phase. In concept mapping group, after students drew concept maps they were required to revise and reconsider the maps which they created to see if they were in harmony with the reading material. This can be regarded as monitoring phase. In phase three students corrected the mapping parts which they had not considered. So it can be concluded that concept mapping utilized all four phases and enhanced self-regulation of students in reading.

The study has implications for teaching, learning and syllabus design. Teaching concept mapping strategy will bring organization to activities which are often difficult for EFL students to achieve like reading and changes them to pleasant and attractive tasks. In addition, through direct instruction of concept mapping, students will become familiar with this strategy and can apply it for reading and understanding different texts. Teachers can help students organize their understanding of what they read with concept mapping

strategy. Furthermore, teachers can teach students how to connect their ideas and what they read and find the interrelationship among different ideas.

With the support of concept mapping technique, students' impetus for engaging in different class activities like reading different texts will be increased. Students' more optimistic attitudes of reading and of themselves as readers may act as a step toward amplifying the quantity and quality of reading. Many English language learners are not able to find out how the content illustrated from passage to passage is related. Course-related content should be utilized to strengthen learners' impetus in concept mapping and disclose the real beneficial effects of concept mapping in improving the quality of different courses.

Teachers can employ various methods to help students see how ideas or concepts relate to one another and fit into a larger picture. Understanding the relationships among concepts helps students grasp them more quickly and efficiently and develop well-structured mental pictures about the content they are learning. From the educational practice standpoint, the study will inform instructional designers and teachers about the effective and efficient uses of concept mapping strategies in their instructional design and teaching practice.

Conclusion

The findings of the present study clearly demonstrated that the use of concept mapping strategy in teaching reading comprehension benefited Iranian EFL students who are at the intermediate level of language proficiency. In other words, the students' self-regulation can be improved by explicit teaching of concept mapping strategy. Therefore, a significant consideration in helping students improve their self-regulation which consequently contributes to their achievement in reading is using concept maps. It can be suggested that concept mapping is one of the influential techniques in teaching reading classes because explicit teaching of concept mapping strategy promotes learners' self-regulation and this, in turn, contributes to their reading achievement. Teachers can amplify the chance that readers will self-regulate by turning reading to a pleasant and appealing activity. A vital issue in providing such a situation is providing sufficient opportunities for the students to self-regulate. If students have little or no room for directing their behavior in reading, their self-regulation will be inhibited. When teaching a learning strategy, teachers should identify the strategy, explain why it is useful, demonstrate its use, give students

practice in applying it to a learning situation, and show them how to evaluate its effectiveness and what to do if it does not work (Duffy et al., 1986, as cited in Talebinejad and Mousapour, 2006).

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Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrencilerin İngilizce Okumada Özdüzenleme Becerilerini Bilişsel bir Araç Kullanarak Geliştirme

Öz

Sorun: Son zamanlarda araştırmacıların dikkatini çeken tekniklerden bir tanesi kavram haritası olmuştur. Kavram haritası tekniğinin çeşitli dil becerileri (ör: okuma, yazma vs.) üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen birçok araştırmacı olmasına rağmen, kavram haritalarının özdüzenleme gibi okumada öğrencinin başarısını etkileyen güdüsel faktörler üzerindeki etkisini araştıran çalışmaların sayısı oldukça azdır.

Çalışmanın Amacı: Bu çalışma bir bilişsel araç olarak kavram haritasının okuma dersinde öğrencilerin özdüzenlemesini geliştirmeye katkı sağlayıp sağlamadığını araştırmayı hedeflemektedir.

Yöntem: Çalışmanın amacını gerçekleştirmek için İran'daki bir üniversiteden 60 üniversite öğrencisi rastgele iki gruba bölünmüştür: biri deneysel grup (kavram haritası) ve diğeri ise kontrol grubudur (geleneksel yöntem).

Bulgular ve Sonuçlar: Sonuçlar iki grup arasında belirgin bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Deneysel gruptaki öğrenciler okuma becerisinde özdüzenleme konusunda kontrol grubun önüne geçmiştir.

Sonuç ve Tavsiyeler: Bu çalışmanın bulguları kavram haritası stratejisinin kullanımının orta derece dil seviyesine sahip olan İranlı İngilizce yabancı dil öğrencilerinin okumayı anlama becerisinin öğretiminde işlerine yaradığını açıkça göstermiştir. Sonuçların okuma öğretimi konusunda hem ulusal hem de evrensel olarak uygulamaları vardır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Özdüzenleme, kavram haritası, okuma.

Appendix A

Figure 1

An example of a concept map

