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Editorial

Welcome to the new issue of *The Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*.

As the editor-in-chief, I once again would like to extend my personal gratitude to the members of both editorial and advisory boards without whose valuable help and support, it would become impossible to complete the issues so far.

In this issue, there are seven articles on language and linguistic studies. The first article written by *Aksu Ataç* is about foreign language teachers' attitude towards authentic assessment in language teaching. She tries to examine the ideas and opinions of English language instructors regarding the use of authentic assessment in foreign language teaching. In the second article entitled "Sexism in Language: Do Fiction Writers Assign Agentive and Patient Roles Equally to Male and Female Characters?", *Ochieng* argues that discrimination stems from speakers' minds; and hence performing gender neutral language alone does not confirm gender neutrality of the performer. The third article by *Solak* looks at needs analysis at Turkish Gendarmerie in Terms of English for Specific Purposes. The present study suggests that some steps need to be taken to improve the language proficiency of the gendarmerie personnel to meet the language requirements especially for joint missions. *Önem* offers a new model of instruction for anxiety and success in teaching grammar in ELT. The aim of the model is to decrease levels of anxiety while increasing success level in EFL contexts by presenting three basic components for study skills deficits, cognitive interference and information processing. *Kızıltan*, in the fifth article, presents some suggested teaching methods for Turkish proverbs and idioms through some semantically identical Italian proverbs and idioms in order to solve the comprehension problems of Italian learners of Turkish arisen from lack of grammatical, strategic, communicative and pragmatic competence. *Çelik, Arkan and Sabriler* attempt to enrich our understanding of language learners' self-initiated use of information and communication technologies (ICT) from language learning perspective. The last article written by *Kırkgöz and Ağçam* looks at the written assessment practices of young English language learners in Grades 4-5 in state Turkish primary schools with a focus on comparing the question types posed by the teachers prior to and following the 2005 curriculum innovation in English language teaching (ELT) in primary education in Turkey.

Finally, I am pleased to announce a 'call for papers' for Year 9 Issue 1 to be published in April 2013. Hope to hear from you.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN
Editor-in-chief

Foreign Language Teachers' Attitude toward Authentic Assessment in Language Teaching

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Abstract

Problem Statement: A rapidly increasing interest has been observed in finding alternatives to traditional forms of assessment in education. For at least three decades, teachers, curriculum developers and program administrators have been studying hard to identify appropriate procedures to assess the knowledge and abilities of students. The term “authentic assessment” has emerged from this need in the field of education, and can be described as “the multiple forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities” (O’Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 4). Given that the topic is a relatively new and challenging one, it has been observed that to examine language teachers’ perceptions and attitude toward authentic assessment is quite important.

Purpose of Study: In this study, a questionnaire which aims to determine the ideas and opinions of English language instructors regarding the use of authentic assessment has been applied and the results of the study have been presented and discussed.

Method: In order to find answers to the research question “What are the language teaching instructors’ ideas and attitude toward authentic assessment in language teaching classes?”, a questionnaire which is called “Authentic Assessment Inventory for Goal Setting”(O’Malley

and Valdez; 1992) has been used in this study. This inventory has been applied to 37 randomly-selected instructors from Atilim University Preparatory School of English. The inventory consists of 15 questions that can be answered with three alternatives, mainly, 1 = not at all, 2 = somewhat, 3 = a great deal.

Findings: Answers to the questions in the inventory were handled under two main categories: at what point the instructors are now, and where they wish to be concerning the issue of authentic assessment.

Conclusion and Recommendations: As a concluding remark for the study, it will be pedagogically useful to attach more importance to authentic assessment in curriculum and educational programs of language teaching. Additionally, it is recommended that more scientific research be conducted about authentic assessment, in particular on goal-setting, educational planning and program development.

Keywords: authentic assessment, traditional assessment, language teaching, testing and assessment.

Introduction

In an age where learning how to make knowledge meaningful is just as important as having the skill to remember some truths, there appears to exist an obvious need for evaluation methods different than standard traditional testing and assessment methods used until the present time. It is without doubt that, until recently, testing and assessment processes have been based on standard tests called “pen and paper tests”, and such form of tests still cover a significant portion of measurement in education both in Turkey and around the world. Nowadays, there seems to be a growing interest in testing and assessment methods.

For at least three decades, teachers, curriculum developers and program administrators have been studying hard to identify appropriate procedures to assess the knowledge and abilities of students. The term “authentic assessment” has emerged from this need in the field of education, and can be described as “the multiple forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities” (O’Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 4).

However, “the concept of authenticity has generated quite a ripple in ESL/EFL classrooms. Contrasting perspectives have emerged over the years in reaction to this concept” (Joy, 2011, p.7). Thus, the topic has been considered as a new and challenging one and to examine language teachers’ perceptions and attitude toward authentic assessment gained importance.

Throughout this study, first some clarifying definitions of authentic assessment from the related reviewed literature will be presented and authentic assessment and standard traditional testing will be compared. Then, findings and results of the application of a questionnaire which is called “Authentic Assessment Inventory for Goal Setting”(O’Malley and Valdez; 1992) will be presented. Thus, it is aimed to determine the attitudes and opinions of the language teachers regarding the use of authentic assessment.

Literature Review

The need for alternatives to the standardized tests gave way to the term “alternative” assessment and many others such as performance assessment, dynamic assessment, portfolio assessment, instructional assessment, and authentic assessment. Although all of these terms suggest different emphases, they all share the same objective – that is, integrating learning, teaching, and assessment. Authentic assessment refers to the procedures for evaluating learner achievement or performance using activities and tasks that represent classroom goals, curricula and instructions, and in real-life situations. It emphasizes the communicative meaningfulness of evaluation and the commitment to measure that which is valued in education. It uses the diverse forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities. Authentic assessment corresponds to, and mirrors, good classroom practices; its results can be utilized to improve instruction based on the knowledge gained regarding how learners make progress. Authentic assessment also emphasizes the importance of the teacher’s professional judgment and commitment to enhance student learning. The use of self-assessment promotes the learner’s direct involvement in learning and the integration of cognitive abilities with affective learning (Hart, 1994; Kohonen, 1997; O’Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996).

Many other researchers have also defined the term authentic assessment. For instance, Jon Mueller (2003) defined authentic assessment as “a form of assessment in which students are asked to perform real-world tasks that demonstrate meaningful application of essential knowledge and skills”. According to Wiggins (1990) authentic assessment is “...engaging and worthy problems or questions of importance, in which students must use knowledge to fashion performances effectively and creatively. The tasks are either replicas of or analogous to the kinds of problems faced by adult citizens and consumers or professionals in the field”. Having said so, the importance of such assessment of real-life-situation-based performance becomes more crucial in identifying students’ language abilities.

Authentic assessment has some other common names, some of which are performance assessment, alternative assessment, direct assessment. Richard Sittings (1992) has also defined this form of assessment under the name of performance assessment in this way: “performance assessments call upon the examinee to demonstrate specific skills and competencies, that is, to apply the skills and knowledge they have mastered”.

As it can be understood from the previous definitions, authentic assessment includes communicative performance assessment, language portfolios, and various forms of self-assessment by learners. According to O’Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996, p. 12) basic types of authentic assessment in language learning are:

- oral interviews (of learners by the teacher)
- story or text retelling (with listening or reading inputs)
- writing samples (with a variety of topics and registers)
- projects and exhibitions (presentation of a collaborative effort)
- experiments and demonstrations (with oral or a written reports)
- constructed response items (to open ended questions)
- teacher observation (of learners’ work in class, making notes)
- portfolios (focused collection of learners’ work to show progress)

It is believed that the term “authentic” in terms of assessment can only be understood better by making of detailed comparisons. According to Wiggins (1993, p. 78) “evaluation becomes authentic when we directly examine the noteworthy rational

performances of students. On the contrary, traditional assessment is based on indirect or average articles and simple placements and through these methods it is thought that valid assessment is made about the students' success and performance". In other words, authentic assessment requires that students demonstrate effective performance with their gained knowledge.

Differences Between Traditional Standardised Tests and Authentic Assessment

The developments in evaluation can be highlighted by comparing authentic assessment with traditional standardised testing. Standardised tests are usually based on multiple choice items, fill-in items and short, restricted-response tasks. They are administered to large numbers of testees with consistent scoring results and thus a high degree of reliability. The need for alternatives to the standardised tests has recently suggested the concept of "alternative" assessment. Other terms of the new approaches include such labels as performance assessment, dynamic assessment, portfolio assessment, instructional assessment, responsive evaluation and authentic assessment. While the terms suggest different emphases, they all imply an approach that aims at integrating learning, teaching and evaluation. Authentic assessment is among the most useful, emphasising real-life communicative meaningfulness of evaluation.

Standardised testing can be contrasted to authentic assessment as follows

<i>Standardised testing</i>	<i>Authentic Assessment</i>
1. Testing and instruction are regarded as separate activities	Assessment is an integral part of instruction
2. Students are treated in a uniform way	Each learner is treated as a unique person
3. Decisions are based on single sets of data (test scores)	Provides multiple sources of data, a more informative view
4. Emphasis on weaknesses/ failures: what students cannot do	Emphasis on strengths/ progress: what learners can do
5. One-shot exams	Ongoing assessment
6. Cultural/ socio-economic status bias	More culture-fair
7. Focus on one, "right answer"	Possibility of several perspectives

- | | |
|--|--|
| 8. Judgement without suggestions for improvement | Useful information for improving/ guiding learning |
| 9. Pressures teachers to narrow teaching to what is tested | Allows teachers to develop meaningful curricula |
| 10. Focus on lower-order knowledge and skills | Emphasis on higher-order learning outcomes and thinking skills |
| 11. Forbids students to interact; promotes comparisons between students (norm-referencing) | Encourages collaborative learning; compares learners to their own past performances and the aims |
| 12. Extrinsic learning for a grade | Intrinsic learning for its own sake |

Comparison of standardised testing and authentic assessment. (adapted from Armstrong 1994, 117-118):

Another way that Authentic Assessment is commonly distinguished from Traditional Assessment is in terms of its defining attributes.

Traditional	-----	Authentic
Selecting a Response	-----	Performing a Task
Contrived	-----	Real-life
Recall/Recognition	-----	Construction/Application
Teacher-structured	-----	Student-structured
Indirect Evidence	-----	Direct Evidence

However, a teacher does not have to choose between Authentic Assessment and Traditional Assessment. It is likely that some mix of the two will best meet the teachers' or students' needs. To use a simple example, if someone had to choose a driver from between someone who passed the *driving* portion of the driver's license test but failed the *written* portion or someone who failed the driving portion and passed the written portion, he would choose the driver who most directly demonstrated the ability to drive, that is, the one who passed the driving portion of the test. However, everyone would *prefer* a driver who passed both portions.

Reasons to Use Authentic Assessment

As it has been mentioned before, teachers often use a mix of traditional and authentic assessments to serve different purposes. Therefore, it is necessary to explain why teachers might choose authentic assessments for certain types of judgments and why authentic assessments have become more popular in recent years.

Authentic assessments are direct measures. We do not just want students to *know* the content of the disciplines when they graduate. We, of course, want them to be able to *use* the acquired knowledge and skills in the real world. So, our assessments have to also tell us if students can apply what they have learned in authentic situations.

Authentic assessments capture constructive nature of learning. A considerable body of research on learning has found that we cannot simply be fed knowledge. We need to construct our own meaning of the world, using information we have gathered and were taught and our own experiences with the world. Thus, assessments cannot just ask students to repeat back information they have received. Students must also be asked to demonstrate that they have accurately constructed meaning about what they have been taught.

Authentic assessments integrate teaching, learning and assessment. Authentic assessment, in contrast to more traditional assessment, encourages the integration of teaching, learning and assessing. In the "traditional assessment" model, teaching and learning are often separated from assessment, i.e., a test is administered after knowledge or skills have (hopefully) been acquired. In the authentic assessment model, the same authentic task used to measure the students' ability to apply the knowledge or skills is used as a vehicle for student learning. For example, when presented with a real-world problem to solve, students are learning in the process of developing a solution, teachers are facilitating the process, and the students' solutions to the problem becomes an assessment of how well the students can meaningfully apply the concepts.

Authentic assessments provide multiple paths to demonstration. We all have different strengths and weaknesses in how we learn. Similarly, we are different in how we can best *demonstrate* what we have learned. Regarding the traditional assessment model, answering multiple-choice questions does not allow for much variability in how students demonstrate the knowledge and skills they have acquired. Authentic tasks tend to give the students more freedom in how they will demonstrate what they have learned. By carefully identifying the criteria of good performance on the authentic task ahead of time, the teacher can still make comparable judgments of student performance even though student performance might be expressed quite differently from student to student.

Method

Data Collection

In order to find answers to the research question “What are the language teaching instructors’ ideas and attitude toward authentic assessment in language teaching classes?”, a questionnaire which is called “Authentic Assessment Inventory for Goal Setting”(O’Malley and Valdez; 1992) has been used in this study(see appendix). This inventory has been applied to 37 randomly-selected instructors from Atilim University Preparatory School of English. This inventory can be used to determine, in terms of the use of authentic assessment, where teachers are now, where they want to be, and what their objectives are regarding the use of such assessment in their classes. The inventory consists of 15 questions that can be answered with three alternatives, mainly, 1 = not at all, 2 = somewhat, 3 = a great deal. A two-hour seminar presentation had been given by the researcher to the subject instructors prior to applying the questionnaire, investigating their general view, knowledge and opinions regarding authentic assessment.

Findings and Results

Answers to the questions in the inventory were handled under two main categories: at what point the instructors are now, and where they wish to be concerning the issue of authentic assessment. Accordingly, findings about the inventory were also examined in two

groups. The responses in each group were analyzed in themselves using the Likert-type-scale.

The results of the “Authentic Assessment Inventory for Goal Setting” were determined individually with a graphic for each question. However, due to space limit in this study only the two graphics which represent the results of the first and second group of answers as a whole have been presented (Table 1 and Table 2). Moreover, it was also believed to be more convenient to take the responses by individuals into consideration in two groups as a whole in the following form:

- where am I now
- where I would like to be

Upon comparing the responses within the two groups, it was found that the answer “somewhat” in the first group and the answer “a great deal” in the second group were significantly higher. It was also observed that the answer “not at all”, appearing significantly in the first group, greatly decreased in the second group.

Table 1

First group of answers

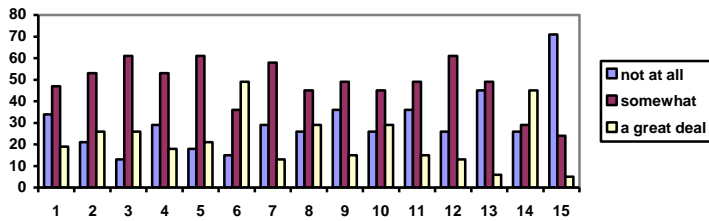
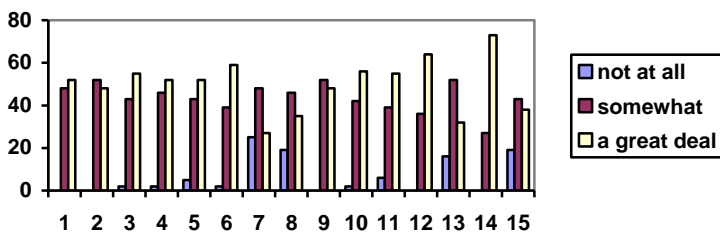


Table 2

Second group of answers



Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the “Authentic Assessment Inventory for Goal Setting” applied to the English language instructors who have been presented a two-hour informative seminar on authentic assessment were investigated in two different categories as ‘where they are now’ and ‘where they want to be’. Although the individuals who participated in this inventory appeared to have limited knowledge of the subject (as established through a set of questions and answers prior to the presentation), the results indicate the participants strong sense of inclination toward goal setting in their classes with regards to authentic assessment. The gap between the responses in the first and second group of has shown that the instructors intend to move beyond the point where they presently are.

In the light of these findings, it can be stated that it will be pedagogically useful to attach more importance to authentic assessment in curriculum and educational programs of language teaching. Moreover, whereas only the instructors’ attitude and opinions have been taken into consideration in this study concerning authentic assessment, it is believed that it is necessary to examine students’ ideas and opinions about the issue as well. Finally, it is recommended that more scientific research be conducted about authentic assessment, in particular on goal-setting, educational planning and program development.

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Yabancı Dil Öğretmenlerinin Dil Öğretiminde Özgün Değerlendirme Yöntemlerinin Kullanımına Karşı Tutumları

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: Eğitimde geleneksel ölçme yöntemlerine karşı farklı seçenekler bulma konusunda hızla artan bir eğilim göze çarpmaktadır. En azından 30 yıldır, öğretmenler, eğitim izlencelerini geliştiren ve programlarını yöneten kişiler öğrencilerin bilgi ve becerilerini değerlendirmek için uygun yöntemleri belirlemeye çalışmaktadırlar. "Özgün Değerlendirme" terimi eğitim alanındaki bu ihtiyaçtan ortaya çıkmıştır, ve "öğrencilerin eğitsel olarak ilgili sınıf etkinlikleri hakkındaki öğrenme, başarı, motivasyon ve tutumlarını yansıtan değerlendirmenin birden fazla şekli" olarak tanımlanabilir (O'Malley and Valdez Pierce, 1996, p. 4). Nispeten yeni ve ilgi çekici bir konu olduğu göz önüne alındığında, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin özgün değerlendirmeye yönelik algı ve tutumlarının incelenmesinin oldukça önemli olduğu gözlenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmada, özgün değerlendirme kullanımı ile ilgili İngilizce okutmanlarının fikir ve görüşlerini belirlemeyi amaçlayan bir anket uygulanmış ve araştırmanın sonuçları sunulmuş ve tartışılmıştır.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada araştırma sorusu olan "Yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin dil öğretimi sınıflarında özgün değerlendirmeye yönelik tutumları nedir?" sorusuna yanıt aramak için "Özgün Değerlendirme Hedef Belirleme Envanteri" (O'Malley ve Valdez, 1992) olarak adlandırılan bir anket kullanılmıştır. Bu envanter Atılım Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu'ndan rastgele seçilmiş 37 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Envanter üç seçenekli cevapları olan 15 sorudan oluşmaktadır. Cevaplar temel olarak 1 = hiç, 2 = kısmen, 3 = oldukça şeklindedir.

Bulgular: Özgün Değerlendirme Hedef Belirleme Envanteri'ndeki sorulara verilen cevaplar iki ana başlık altında ele alınmıştır: okutmanlar özgün değerlendirme ile ilgili konularda şu anda hangi noktadalar ve bu konuyla ilgili ne düzeyde olmak istiyorlar.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Bu çalışmadan elde edilmiş sonuç, Yabancı dil öğretimi eğitim izlence ve programlarında özgün değerlendirmeye daha fazla önem verilmesinin eğitsel olarak yararlı olacaktır. Ayrıca, özellikle hedef belirleme, eğitsel planlama ve program geliştirme

konularında, özgün değerlendirme ile ilgili daha fazla bilimsel araştırma yürütülmesi önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özgün değerlendirme, geleneksel değerlendirme, dil öğretimi, ölçme ve değerlendirme.

**Sexism in Language: Do Fiction Writers Assign Agentive and Patient Roles
Equally to Male and Female Characters?**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Studies have shown that language is used discriminatorily to women and men. Hence, there have been movements against gender biased language—the movements which are reported so successful especially in the West.

Purpose of Study: This paper however argues that discrimination stems from speakers' minds; and hence performing gender neutral language alone does not confirm gender neutrality of the performer. The reliable way of judging gender neutrality would then be studying the speakers' minds.

Method: The study applied psychoanalytic literary criticism as a gateway to the unconscious minds of American authors—to find out how gender neutral they were at cognitive level. Through psychoanalytic literary criticism, authors' suppressed desires would find their way out onto their works in a distorted form. Along these lines, the study assessed the equality in assigning agentive and patient semantic roles between males and females in American fictions—to find out who between males and females were frequently assigned agentive and patient roles of the reciprocal verbs: *kiss*, *hug*, *marry*, and *divorce*.

Findings: The study found out that males were assigned more agentive roles in *kiss* and *hug*, and females in *divorce*. Moreover, both were assigned almost equal roles in *marry*.

Conclusion: The implication of the findings is that speakers' unconscious mind is basically gender biased along gender stereotypes.

Keywords: language and gender, language thought and society, linguistic relativity, psychoanalytic literary criticism, literary realism

Introduction

Studies (Coates, 1986; Lei, 2006; Woolf, 1990; Mills, 2008; Mills and Mullany, 2011) have shown that language is used discriminatorily in referring to women and men respectively. Mills and Mullany (2011, p. 145) say that women are portrayed negatively through language or are generalized through language based on men and women stereotypes. Examples given in English language are: the use of masculine generic nouns to refer to both men and women and not vice versa: for instance ‘*man is mortal*’; whereby ‘*man*’ in this case refers to both men and women. Similarly, the use of pronoun ‘*he*’; as a generic pronoun; for example ‘someone must be aware of what *he* is going to encounter’. The use of ‘*man*’ and ‘*he*’ in the both examples refers to both men and women; and thus they are generic in favour of male gender (as long as the equivalent terms for females namely: ‘*woman*’ and ‘*she*’ cannot be used to refer males consecutively). Secondly, the terms used to refer to females are routinely derived from the terms referring males; for instance, *manageress* from *manager*, *goddess* from *god*, *princess* from *prince*, *sailorette* from *sailor*; just to mention a few (See, Lei, 2006; Mills, 2008, p. 10). It is also observed that most of such terms referring to females derived from the males’ terms have different connotations from their parent terms. For instance, it is reported that the term *mistress* is derived from *mister*, yet the term *mistress* refers to a partner in extramarital affairs (which is actually negative compared to ‘*mister*’ that is simply means a male counterpart). Similarly, ‘*governor*’ refers to a person appointed to govern a province or state, meanwhile the word “*governess*” used for counterpart female simply refers to a ‘*nurse maid*’ (Lei, 2006, p. 89). Moreover, some titles are traditionally man oriented: implying that women were not thought of holding such titles. Examples of such titles are: *chairman*, *congressman*, *newsman*, *footballer*, *foreman*, *professor*, *engineer*, *lawyer*, *doctor* and so forth (Lei, 2006, p. 88). More exhibition of sexism in language at work is the tendency to associate female candidates with negative connotations in the circumstance where a common term is used to refer to both men and women. The case in point is the term *professional* –which is generic for both men and women. Nonetheless, the connotative meaning of the word *professional* is only used for women—to mean a prostitute. Sexism in language is also shown in the proverbs such as:

'seven women in their right senses are surpassed by a mad man; a woman has cheated even the devil, women have got long hair and short sense' and so forth (Lei, 2006, p. 90).

Additionally, it is reported that men also infringe women's right to speak in a conversation involving men and women. Coates (1986, p. 100-101) and Aksu (2005, p. 16) report that men interrupt women more and also do take considerably long time to encourage them to continue speaking through particle markers in the conversation. In their view, these men's techniques eventually turn off women from taking active part in the conversation: that is, women eventually choose to be listeners than speakers; possibly to avoid embarrassment they are likely to incur. Coates (ibid) adds that other characteristics of men's conversation such as the use of swear words and interruptive forms; all lead to the inequality between men and women in a conversation.

In literature (that this works focuses on), women are reported to be not represented in equal image as men (Newell, 1996, p. 186, 171). Woolf (1990) reports that women wrote little fictions for themselves between 15th century and 19th century due to the law and custom restrictions during the era—that did not permit women to produce their own literature. Consequently, men who wrote about women in that era would constantly portray them as insignificant beings compared to men. Woolf (1990, p. 34) reports that in the 19th century there was little improvement which saw the increase of women starting writing fiction for themselves. Nevertheless, it is reported that even the most of the 19th century literature by women themselves is focusing only on limited themes; probably because women did not engage in some activities and hence lacked experience to write about them. According to Kaplan (1990, p. 58), women are portrayed in the 19th century literature as people in subordinate positions—following the fact that most of the themes of literature they produced in this era are about right claiming.

Articulated Success of the Anti-Discriminatory Language Campaigns

Following women's historical backwardness, there have been movements among the feminists to reduce sexual discrimination and sex role stereotypes in among other things the use of gender biased language. In the Western countries this movement has been going on since 1970's (Lei, 2006, p. 90, Mills, 2008, p. 11; Mills & Mullany, 2011, p. 145, 146, Mills, 2012). Following these movements, scholars report that the

language has greatly changed in favour of females. Mills and Mullany (ibid) report a study of gender-related language change that was exhibited by comparing an article entitled ‘*The Good Wife’s Guide*’ published by *Housekeeping* in 1955; and its rewritten version in *Glamour Magazine* in 2009. Their observation is that the representation of woman and the style of language have changed a lot over this time: denoting that the campaigns against portrayal and sexism have been a success (at least at conscious level). Other reported successes in making language gender neutral in English language are: the use of *Ms.* instead of *Miss.* and *Mrs.*, substituting the use of man as a generic term with the expressions such as ‘*someone has to be careful, he or she should make sure that everything is right* and so forth. Moreover, there has also been the introduction of gender sensitive terms like saying: *person to person* instead of *man to man*, *police officer* instead of *policeman*, *business executive* instead of *businessman*, *chairperson* instead of *chairman*, *human resource* instead of *manpower*, *artificial* instead of *man-made*, *layperson* instead of *layman* and so forth (Lei, 2006, p. 91).

Nevertheless, challenges such as the acceptability of such terms have been reported. Mills and Mullany (2011; p. 146) hold that feminists have to work very hard to change the language or to get a new word accepted simply because the opposed sexist terms are well established and are readily available to speakers for use. That is, speakers sometimes think that the alternative terms are ‘forced’ onto them; and hence seems to protest by not using them or use them hesitantly—if needs be. Mills, (op. cit) reports of the use of items like *chairperson* with a tonal change when referring to a woman chair by some speakers who choose to use the term. Similarly, because the terms are not natural, some users find using them ridiculous, and hence normally hesitate using them. Mills (2008, p. 16) is also of the view that the newly innovated terms (supposed to be neutral) are sometimes used to refer to women only, not men. Her case in point is, ‘*chairperson*’ which she claims to be mostly used to refer to a woman chair, and that *chairman* is mostly used to refer to a man chair. Another observation is also made in reference to changing individual words. Mills and Mullany (2011, p. 160) are of the view that focusing on the word’s meanings is not necessarily a solution to a sexist language as long as the context may still be sexist.

Overall, despite such challenges, many scholars agree that an overt sexism (the usage of language that can be straightforwardly identified as sexist through the use of linguistic markers or through the analysis of the preposition of the expression) is at least

successfully contained—especially in the Western countries (Mills, *ibid*, p. 11). Mills and Mullany (2011) add that feminist language policies have made a great impact in such a way that it is now rare to find an overt sexism in a university or trade union documentation. Additionally, they claim that most publishing houses have developed policies ensuring that discriminatory language does not occur in the published materials.

Nonetheless, the studies have also reported that an indirect sexism (expressing sexism in a way that is not directly obvious and in a way that enables a speaker to deny a responsibility to the use) continues. Mills and Mullany (2011, p. 145) assert that feminist discriminatory language are such conventionalized thinking within society that suppressing the overt form is not a victory over the practice as the new forms will emerge. Mills (*ibid*, 12) gives the new form of indirect sexism as humour and irony; whereby women are stereotyped through expressions or fictions; which actors cannot be held responsible for: as long as they belong to the genre of humour or irony. This implies that the movement of political correctness is only partly successful.

In these lines of thinking, the study was interested to work out the success of a campaign against sexism at subconscious level by analyzing a corpus of fiction writings. This was done in line with Mills and Mullany (2011) who say:

With corpus linguistics, we can develop a form of analysis of sexism which can examine the way that emotive connotations accrue over time to words associated with women. We can also be aware of context in the development of these meanings, so that we can recognise that simply replacing words with more neutral terms will not solve the problem (p. 160, *the emphasis is mine*)

The quote implies that the restriction of the use of certain phrases alone is not enough to achieve the ‘political correctness’—because sexism is such institutionalized and crystallized in the thoughts of language users for quiet long time that those who are sexist will still find other ways to express sexism (Mills, 2008, p. 17). In this regard, it is worth finding out the success of the campaign in the minds of the language users (competence) – studying the minds of language users to find out whether they are gender neutral cognitively or not – rather than judging their gender neutrality by solely observing their language performance.

One avenue to get to know the thoughts of the users regarding this phenomenon is resorting to their unconscious production of language. This study considered the act of assigning semantic roles in fiction works an instance where a performer produces

language at subconscious level (without his conscious thought). Thus, the study was convinced that studying this process would reveal the real gender content in the minds of performers. In line with this, the study was interested to find out how authors of fictions assign semantic roles between men and women in their fiction works? That is, in reciprocal actions such as *hugging* or *kissing*, who is mostly assigned *active* role (agent) and who is mostly assigned *passive* role (patient)? That is, who mostly *kiss* and *hug* and who is regularly *hugged* and *kissed* between man and woman in such reciprocal actions? The principle which justified this test is because the reciprocal verbs involved in these actions equally allow both participants to assume any semantic role between male and female; hence there is no any justification for one gender to be assigned more roles; especially if the activity described is hypothetical as in fictions. A pattern in assigning more roles to one gender would therefore suggest gendered-thinking in the minds of the performers.

Fictitious Texts Analysis as a Window to the Underlying Thought of the Language Users

The analysis of fictitious texts to know the thought of the language users is accounted for by psychoanalytic literary criticism, founded by Sigmund Freud and advanced by other scholars like Carl Jung and Jacques Lacan. Psychoanalysis is an approach to getting to the minds of the authors or the readers via literary works. The analysis is based on Freud's argument that childhood experiences lead to the development of three divisions in the mind: *the ego*, *the id*, and *the superego*; whereby, the *ego* is the conscious part of the brain a person is aware of and the *id* is the unconscious or repressed desires a person has, (such as the Oedipus complex desires), while the *superego* is the conscience part of the brain that determines the person's judgement.

In literary criticism therefore, psychoanalytic criticism looks for the influences of all the three parts of the mind on literature (WiseGeek, 2012). This approach presupposes that there are a lot of unfulfilled desires that human have (*id*), but which they suppress when conscious (mostly because they are not desirable according to norms and laws of the society in question). However, when a human being is in unconscious state (like in dream/or in a literary writing or performance), it is reported that such suppressed contents (desires) in human mind find their way out in a distorted

form—because *superego* becomes a bit lax at this state (Freud, 2010). Fluck puts it that literature is a space containing fantasy and personal frustration where readers' anxieties are expressed and resolved symbolically (Fluck, 1987, as cited in Newell, 1996, p. 171). So, in line with this approach, a literary text (like dream) is produced or consumed when the mind is unconscious (like in dream). That is, authors or/and readers let what is filling their minds out without their advert. Department of English and Literature (2008) puts it that the hidden or disguised motives come out the way they could not come out when the person in question were rational. In this way, we can use a literary text as a window to clamorous instincts in the author's mind—that they would not let us know when they were conscious. That is, through literature, we can get to know the author's childhood trauma, family life, sexual conflicts, unresolved emotions, psychological conflicts, guilty, ambivalences and fixations among other things: that he has kept secret for himself throughout his life (Delahoyde, 2011). In other words, one can learn what the author did not intend to reveal as he happens to reveal them unconsciously when producing the work of art like fiction. WiseGeek (2012) states the goal of this technique as understanding the unconscious symbols and desires thorough the interpretation of the more obvious content.

Regarding this study, it is reported that the campaign against anti-discriminatory language against women is a success at conscious level (performance level in line with de Saussure) as proved by statistical findings and observations. The analysis of fiction works by this study was thus expected to evaluate if such people praised for using gender sensitive language at the conscious level are truly conscious cognitively as they appear to be at unconscious level.

Corpus Based Analysis of *Agentive* and *Patient* Roles Assignment to Male and Female Characters

This was a corpus based study set out to find if there is an advert bias in assigning *agentive* and *patient* roles to fictitious characters by the fiction authors. The study engaged reciprocal verbs: *kiss*, *hug*, *divorce* and *marry* simply because of their ability to either assign equal roles or biased roles to their arguments.

The Reciprocal Verbs

The reciprocal verbs are the verbs which denote eventuality that involves reciprocity between its participants (Siloni, 2008, p. 451). In a simple language, reciprocal verbs are capable of reversing actions to both participants. For instance, in the sentence, ‘Marwa and Achieng kissed’; the word (predicate) *kiss* is reciprocal as it shows that Marwa kissed Achieng and Achieng also kissed Marwa. That is, the action is reversible between the participants; as each of the participants can be *agent* and also *patient* of the action: *kissing* in this case. Biber, et al., (1999, p. 48) report that in some cases, reciprocity is marked by the reciprocal pronouns in English language: normally by the use of the pronoun *each other* or *one another*. Some of the verbs that shows reciprocity in English and of course in many other languages are verbs like: *love, write, kiss, understand, speak, know, argue, hate, meet, telephone, resemble, clung, hug* and so forth. As earlier stated, this study focused on only four English reciprocal verbs namely: *hug, kiss, divorce* and *marry*.

The Argument Structure of the Reciprocal Verbs

The notion of argument structure of reciprocal verbs is based on the notions of *valency* and *transitivity*. Valency refers to the number and nature of the dependents of the predicators (Lyons, 1981, p. 116). In other words, the numbers of gaps (places) needed to be filled for a construction with the *predicate* in question to be well formed. The *predicate* in this case might be a verb or a pronoun. This study focused on verbs because it is the category relevant to this study. For instance, the verb *put* has a valency of 3. That is to say, for a well formed construction with the verb *put*, three gaps have to be filled. One gap is *agent* (one who does the action), the second gap is *theme* (a thing to be put) and the other gap is *location* (where the object is to be put). On the other hand, *sleep* has a valency of 1 and *give* has *valency of 3*,—in the same fashion illustrated by *put* above. Furthermore, similar to valency is *transitivity* which refers to the association between the verb and the object. Verbs that do not need objects are said to be *intransitive* while those that needs objects are said to be *transitive*. That is, the phenomenon of *transitivity* strictly focuses on the NPs after the verb, not other gaps like location or goal. Nonetheless, despite this definite patterning of predicators in terms of the number of the valency as shown above, it is worth noting at this juncture that a good

number of verbs allow more than one patterning in constructions (Biber, et al., 1999, p. 141).

Reciprocal verbs are the case in point: as they are able to arrange their arguments in two patterns namely: transitively or intransitively. Consider the following patterns adopted from Biber, et al., (1999, p. 148).

- a) As intransitives**
 - i.** John and Marry *kissed*
 - ii.** Helen and Jack *met* yesterday
- b) As transitive**
 - i.** John *kissed* Marry
 - ii.** Jack *met* Helen

The patterning in category **a)** is obviously different from the patterning in category **b)**. That is, the patterning in category **a)** above shows the reciprocity of the action of *kissing* and *meeting* (bidirectional activity). Sentences shown in pattern **a)** can sometimes be reinforced by the reciprocal pronouns such as *each other* or *one another*. Conversely, the patterning in **b)** shows the transitivity of the action of kissing. In a simple language, in the category **b)**, the action is unidirectional; whereby the subject is the *agent* while the object is either *theme*, *recipient*, *patient*, *beneficiary* or *affected*.

The Reciprocal Verbs and the Semantic Roles

Semantic roles are the semantic labels that show how things and people participate in a particular action described by the predicate (Hurford and Heasley, 1983). That is, semantic relations describe a relationship that holds between the predicate and its arguments. For example, in the sentence, *Rashidi hit a dog with a stick*: there are three participants namely: *Rashidi*, *dog* and *stick* in the action of *beating*. Semantic roles show how these three participants participated in the action of beating. *Rashidi* participated as initiator of the action (*agent*), *dog* as the affected (*patient*) and *stick* as the instrument for accomplishing the action (*instrument*).

Reciprocal verbs used in this study '*kiss*', '*hug*', *divorce* and *marry* need at least two participants: *agent* on the one hand, and *patient* or *theme* or *affected* or *beneficiary* or *experiencer* on the other hand. *Agent* is the participant whose meaning is specified in the verb as doing the action described intentionally. It is the initiator of some action-capable of acting with volition (Hurford, et al. 2007; Saeed, 1997). Examples of *agents*

are the subjects of the predicates like “*kill*”, “*eat*”, “*hit*”, “*smash*”, “*kick*”, and “*watch*” e.g. *John* kicked the ball; or *John* hit Alex with a stone. Deliberation or intention is thus a key element that outlaws inanimate from being agent; and differentiates the role of *agent* from other roles such as *force* or *instrument*. For example, in the sentence: *Fire* burnt *the bush*. *Fire* in this case cannot be the *agent* simply because it has no volition that characterize *agent*. Furthermore, *experiencer* is a typically a person who is mentally aware of, or perceives or experiences the action or state described by the sentence, but who is not in control of the situation (Hurford, et al. 2007, p. 251); and *affected (patient)* is a person or a thing upon which the action is carried out (Hurford, et al. p. 246). Meanwhile, *beneficiary* is a person for whose benefit or whose detriment of the action described by the sentence is carried out.

However, to avoid confusion, this study will only consider two possible semantic roles namely: *agent* and *patient*. *Agent* in this case is the one who is in control of the action. This implies that assignment of *agentive* role to male or female is the assignment of the active role in the action. In this study therefore, assignment of more *agentive* roles to males would suggest prominence assignment to the candidate in question. That is, it implies giving them a control of a reciprocal action; which by its design is emancipatory to both participants. Conversely, *patient* refers to a passive participant acted upon by *agent*. Nevertheless, in a reciprocal action, the *agent* and *patient* are actually supposed to take part in the action. The assignment of more *patient* roles to females would thus suggest a diminution: as inactive objects acted upon by active male agents and vice versa.

Material and Methods

Source of Data

This was a corpus based study using Contemporary American Corpus (COCA) which is available online. The study used only the fiction component of the corpus— which consists of 85 million words from the novels and short stories published from 1990 to 2011.

This study focused on how the semantic roles are assigned to male and female respectively in the four reciprocal verbs namely: *hug*, *kiss*, *marry* and *divorce*. As it has been presented above; these reciprocal verbs can pattern their arguments in two distinct

ways: (a) as intransitive. E.g. *Mary and John* hugged, or *Peter and Mariam* kissed (b) as transitive e.g. *Mary* hugged *John* or *Peter* Kissed *Mariam*.

In regard to this study, occurrence of *intransitive pattern* involving male and female suggests gender equality and sensitivity—as both participants (male and female) are assigned equal roles—as allowed by the reciprocal verbs. On the other hand, the occurrence of *transitive patterns* suggests inequality in role assignments: because one participant is assigned the role of agentive (active role) while the other is assigned the role of patient (inactive role). In this regard, the study focused on whom between male and female is assigned more roles of *agentive* and *patient* than the other.

Research Procedure

1. The first step was to go to the Contemporary American Corpus (COCA)—which is available online at <http://corpus2.byu.edu/coca/>
2. The second step was to type a word or a phrase in the search engine and to retrieve the occurrences of the word or the phrase in question

Extract 1

The retrieved occurrences of “Kissed” as a keyword in context

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT				<input type="checkbox"/> [?]	SAVE LIST	CHOOSE LIST	CREATE NEW LIST	<input type="text"/>	[?]
1	2011	SPOK	CBS_Early	A	B	C	leaving for work that morning. JAMES-HENSLEE-1Hu: Had me coffee ready for work, kissed her good-bye and she waved good-bye out			
2	2011	SPOK	CNN_News	A	B	C	of my leg with me talking to him, telling him I loved him and kissed him. So he saved my life and gave his for it. And you			
3	2011	SPOK	Fox_Live	A	B	C	were so robbed of our beautiful princess. UNIDENTIFIED-MALE: We made breakfast and she kissed me good-bye and said I love you			
4	2011	SPOK	CNN_Showbiz	A	B	C	, Paris reportedly liked what Kim said in that article so much that the two kissed and made up. I actually think Kim is just fine witho			
5	2011	FIC	Analog	A	B	C	. " I am so glad you're here. " She leaned in and kissed him on the lips before he realized what she intended, then walked quickly to			
6	2011	FIC	FantasySciFi	A	B	C	happened on the march. To the lowing of oxen, I stroked her and kissed her and made much of her. After a time, she forgot in mid-s			
7	2011	FIC	FantasySciFi	A	B	C	"ll get chilled or the mosquitoes will find you. " He leaned over and kissed her cheek. " See you in the morning. " She remained there			
8	2011	FIC	FantasySciFi	A	B	C	collapsed onto the sheets beside her she didn't roll away. Instead, she kissed him gently on the forehead, hummed a soft refrain fro			

3. The next step was to sample the 100 occurrences out of long list of the retrieved occurrences and to save such sample either as *the basic search sample* or *the repeat search sample*

Extract 2

COCA's window showing how to sample the occurrences to a convenient number

SECTION: NO LIMITS PAGE: << < 1 / 66 > >>
SAMPLE: 100 200 500 1000

[\[Return to frequency list \]](#)

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT				<input type="checkbox"/> [?]	SAVE LIST	CHOOSE LIST	-----	CREATE NEW LIST	SAMPLE 1	[?]
1	2011	SPOK	CBS_Early	A	B	C	leaving for work that morning. JAMES-HENSLEE-1Hu: Had me coffee ready for work, kissed her good-bye and			
2	2011	SPOK	CNN_News	A	B	C	of my leg with me talking to him, telling him I loved him and kissed him. So he saved my life and gave his l			
3	2011	SPOK	Fox_Live	A	B	C	were so robbed of our beautiful princess. UNIDENTIFIED-MALE: We made breakfast and she kissed me good			

4. Then the researcher would read each list in the expanded context to trace the position of agent and patient in respect to the verb.
5. He would then judge each list along four dimensions: male and female kiss (m&fKISS); male kissing female (mKISSf); female kissing male (fKISSm) or (Non-applicable)(The nature of the names and the gender indicative personal pronouns helped in identify male and female participants of a reciprocal action in question. Where the gender of a participant in an action could not be ascertained in the context, the occurrence would be judged as Non-applicable). The illustration of the procedure is given in the extract three below.

Extract 3

The COCA's window illustrating how the occurrences were judged along the roles

The screenshot shows a search interface for the word 'kissed' in the COCA corpus. It lists 8 occurrences with their respective source texts and interpretations. The interpretations are: m KISS f, Not applicable, f KISS m, Not applicable, f KISS m, Not applicable, m KISS f, and m KISS f.

Occurrence	Source	Text Snippet	Interpretation
1	COCA:2004-FIC FantasySciFi	fished out a small package, about the size of a box of cold tablets, and passed it to Wilson, then walked away. Once he got into his apartment, Wilson found Ellen rocking Jason in the rocking chair by the front window. Jason was asleep. He bent over and kissed her and she held onto his arm. "Who was that man taking to you on the sidewalk?" she asked softly, nodding toward the window. "I do n't know," Wilson told her. "Some kind of woo-woo nut, I guess." Ellen looked at	m KISS f
2	COCA:2000-FIC Ploughshares	an inch of clean air above the water's surface, and I inhaled. And then I exhaled. # I woke with my head on the other shore where Wylie must have dragged me to keep me from drowning. My legs still hung in the water, and tiny minnows kissed, kissed away the charred pieces of skin, peeling like stubborn hangnails. My head was heavy when I tried to raise it. The sun's reflection on the surface or the sun itself churned around in a drying cycle. Or maybe it was the fire, still burning, still chasing us.	Not applicable
3	COCA:1998-FIC Ploughshares	soothe him before they crashed. "I love you," she murmured to him, her hand poised across his brow, as if to check for one last fever. "I love you, little Bobby, little dear one. You've had a beautiful life." Then she kissed him over and over until the end. She wasn't able to hold onto him when they struck the ground. He'd hurtled forward through time and space, a frail illustration of the laws of physics, the rest of his life condensed to a few brief seconds of fear.	f KISS m
4	COCA:1997-FIC HarpersMag	dearest... you have comforted me no end! "My soul was flooded with happiness, and I thanked Zoe again and again, and she thanked me. And both of us, overjoyed, thankful, kissed each other's hands, commending each other on our high-mindedness. I kissed her hands; she kissed my forehead, the stubble of my beard. It seems that forgetting all etiquette I even hugged her! And let me tell you, this declaration of non-love was sweeter than any declaration of love could be! Joyful, rosy, trembling all over, we rushed	Not applicable
5	COCA:2003-FIC Ploughshares	." Would you like to live forever? " # "I have done so already," he replied at once. "Each moment you are gone is an eternity to me." # Beatrice laughed then, delighted by the way all doors opened to new places. Impulsively she kissed Roberto, sliding her hand behind his neck and her tongue into his mouth, where it bloomed like a flower struck by light. # Summer grew rich and dense, and then, subtly, it began to wane. A few leaves drifted to the ground, and overnight the dogwoods turned	f KISS m
6	COCA:1996-FIC Bk:HerOwnRules	she was up to something, and all the time. Up to no good, my father always said. He was her firstborn and her favorite of her four children. I P93 recall that she had a good sense of humor and was a marvelous raconteur. I think she must have kissed the Blamey Stone. " "Was she Irish? " "She was. My grandfather met her in Dublin. At a ball. He had gone there to shoot Mathilde busted in from the bedroom with Vincent in her wake. " Would you like to have help with your	Not applicable
7	COCA:1992-FIC KansasQ	the kitchen for towels. He cleaned up the mess on the couch as well as he could, then took Carla's hand and helped her out of the chair. They walked into the bedroom, and as they passed the door to Arlene's room called out good night. # Lindsay kissed her and held her close. It's all right, he said, it can happen to anyone. But Carla had already seen a certain look in his patrician eyes. # She felt barely able to take off her clothes. She pulled her dress over her head slowly, rolled down	m KISS f
8	COCA:2010-FIC Bk:ThisIsWhereWeLive	forehead against hers. "You OK? " he asked, and ran his hands up and down her bare arms, checking for breaks or abrasions. "I'm fine," she said. "In fact, I'm kind of turned on. Is that weird? " Jeremy kissed her nose and then her upper lip and let his torso rest against hers. "Earthquakes are a known aphrodisiac," he said, his hand sliding toward the hem of her dress. She kicked a piece of broken glass away with the toe of her sandal and tugged at the waistband	m KISS f

6. Nextly, the findings for each of the occurrence was recorded in a form like this below:

Table 1

The model recording sheet for the data

E.g. Data Form for 'KISS'								
List No.	The basic search sample				The repeat search sample			
	m&fKISS	mKISSf	fKISSm	Non-App.	m&fKISS	mKISSf	fKISSm	Non-App.
1		√				√		
2	√							√
3				√			√	
4			√		√			
5				√				√
Tally	01	01	01	02	01	01	01	02
%	20%	20%	20%	40%	20%	20%	20%	40%

7. He then calculated the tallies into percentages
8. Sorting the Applicable columns from the Non-applicables and calculating the percentage of the former exclusively

Findings of the Study

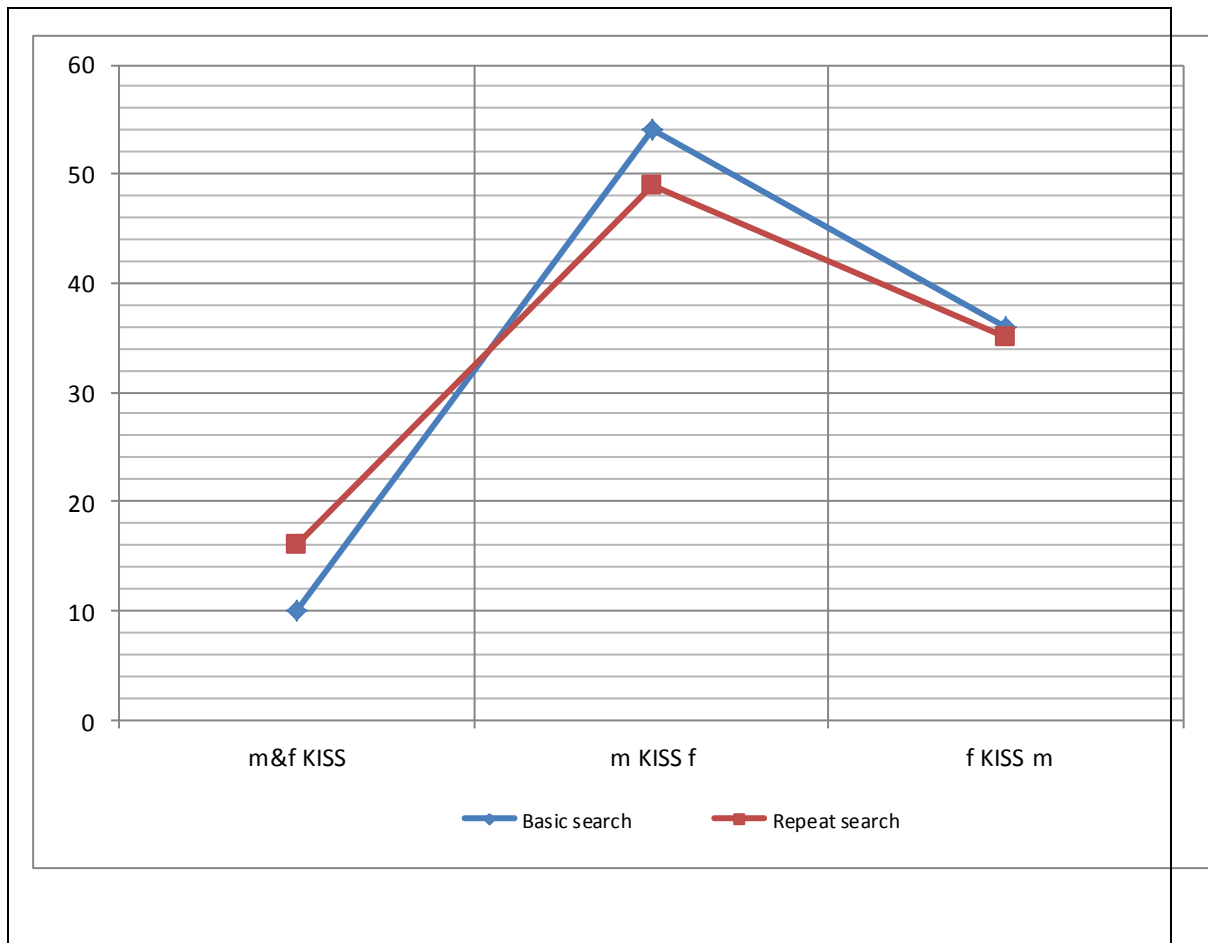
Keyword in Context Search for the Predicate ‘kiss’

The predicate ‘*kissed*’ was searched through the corpus of American fictions and 5071 hits were retrieved. The past tense form was used as a search word to enhance the retrieval of agentive and patient arguments—which are possible with the verb class, as opposed to the adjective or noun classes. The researcher sampled 100 out of these hits and saved the list as *the basic search sample*. The researcher then reran the search using the same word and retrieved the constant list of 5071 hits. He again randomly sampled 100 hits from the list and saved it as *the repeat search sample*. The next step was to read each *hit* in a broader context, identify the pattern involved, record it and calculate the percentage of occurrences.

Eventually in *the basic search sample*: *m&f KISS* occurrence was 10%; *mKISSf* was 54% and *fKISSm* was 36%. In *the repeat search sample*: *m&f KISS* occurrence was 16%; *mKISSf* was 49% and *fKISSm* was 35%. Findings in both *the basic search sample* and *repeat search sample* are represented by the following line graph.

Graph 1

The frequency of occurrence of the argument structure for the predicate kiss in the corpus



Key:

m&fKISS=male and female kiss

mKISSf=male kiss female

fKISSm=female kiss male

As the graph above shows, both the *basic search* and *repeat search* shows a definite trend. The occurrences of reciprocity in ‘*kissing*’ between males and females was very low; while the frequency of males kissing females in both searches was higher; as compared to the frequency of females kissing males.

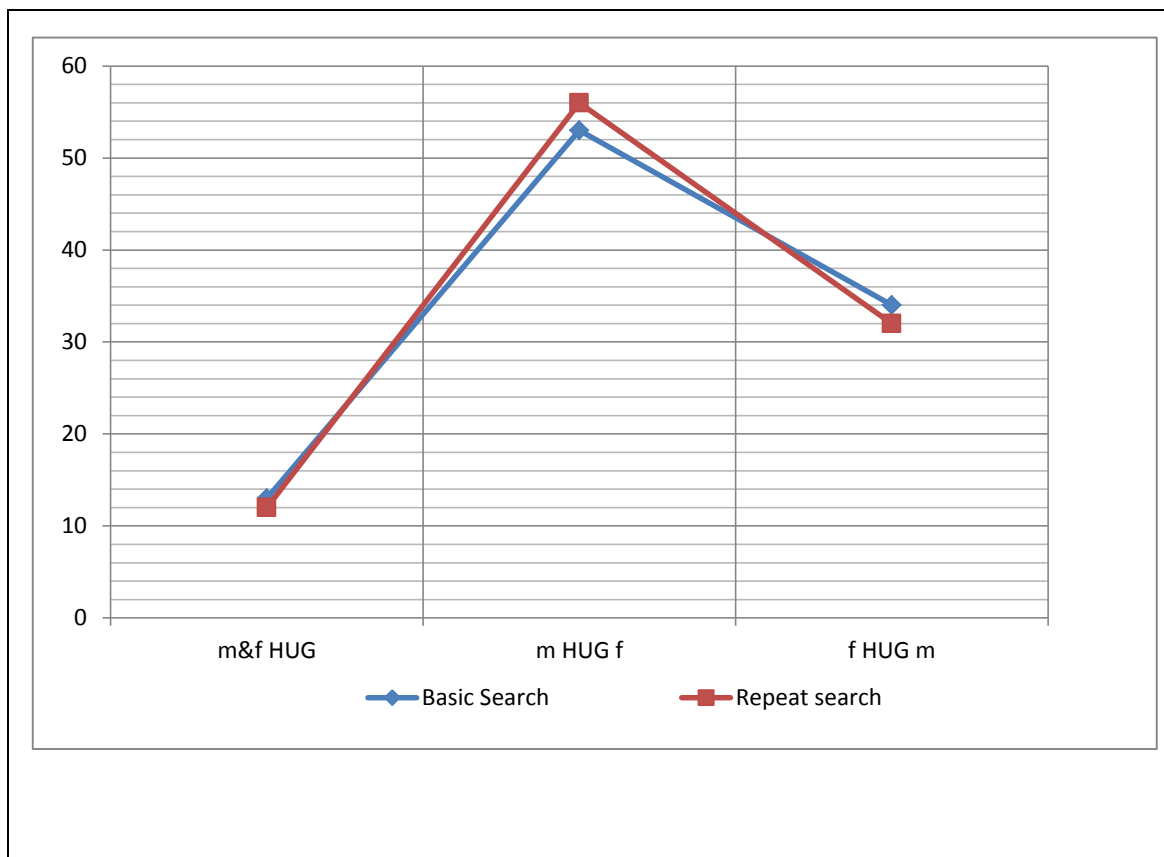
Keyword in Context Search for the Predicate ‘hug’

The predicate ‘*hugged*’ was searched through the corpus and 2073 hits were retrieved. The past tense form ‘*hugged*’ was used as a search word so as to eliminate the adjective class; which do not show agentive and patient arguments targeted by the study. The researcher then sampled 100 hits out of the list and saved it as *the basic search sample*. The researcher then re-launched a new search which retrieved the constant list of 2073 hits. He again randomly sampled 100 hits and saved it as *the repeat search sample*. The next step was to read each hit in the expanded context, locate the arguments along gender, tally the occurrences, calculate the percentage of occurrences and record the finding.

Eventually in *the basic search sample*: *m&f HUG* occurrence was 13%; *mHUGf* was 53% and *fHUGm* was 34%. In *the repeat search sample*: *m&f HUG* occurrence was 12%; *mHUGf* was 56% and *fHUGm* was 32%. Findings in both *the basic search sample* and *repeat search sample* are represented by the following line graph.

Graph 2

The frequency of occurrence of the argument pattern for the predicate hug in the corpus



Key:

m&fHUG=male and female hug

mHUGf=male hug female

fHUGm=female hug male

As the graph above shows, the occurrences of reciprocity in ‘*hugging*’ between males and females was very low; the frequent occurrences were of males hugging females as compared to females hugging males.

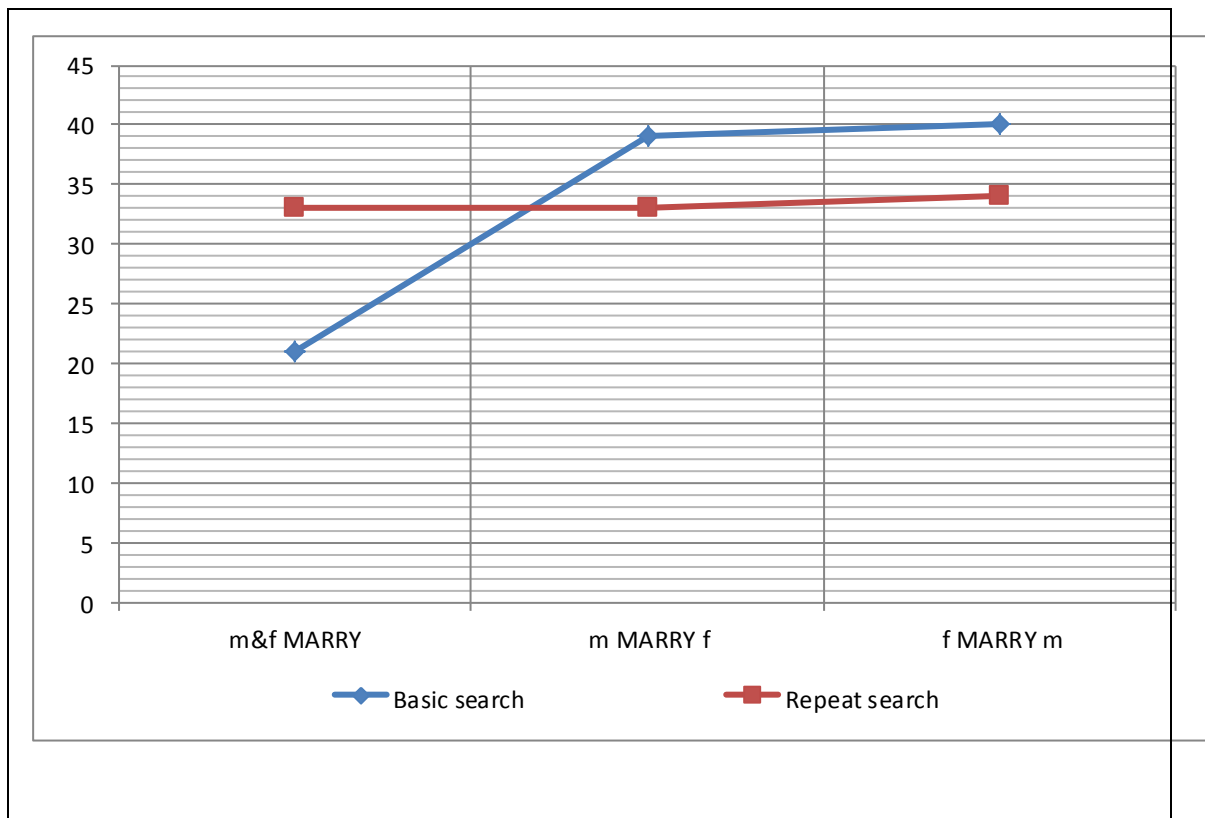
Keyword in Context Search for the Predicate ‘marry’

Moreover, the past tense word-form ‘*married*’ was searched through the corpus, and 12,312 hits were retrieved. The past tense word-form was used as a search word to retrieve the verb class; which would show agentive and patient roles focused by this study. The researcher sampled 100 out of these hits and saved the list as *the basic search sample*. The researcher then reran the search and retrieved the constant list of 12,312 hits. He again sampled the 100 hits randomly and saved it as *the repeat search sample*. The next step was to read each hit in the expanded context, tally the occurrences, calculate the percentage of occurrences and record the finding.

Eventually, in *the basic search sample*: *m&fMARRY* occurrence was 21%; *mMARRYf* was 39% and *fMARRYm* was 40%. In *the repeat search sample*: *m&fMARRY* occurrence was 33%; *mMARRYf* was 33% and *fMARRYm* was 34%. Findings in both *the basic search sample* and *repeat search sample* are represented by the following line graph.

Graph 3

The frequency of occurrence of the argument pattern for the predicate marry in the corpus



Key:

m&fMARRY=male and female marry

mMARRYf=male marry female

fMARRYm=female marry male

As the graph above shows, there were more occurrences of reciprocity in 'marrying' between male and female as compared to the occurrences in 'hugging' and 'kissing'. Moreover, there was almost equal distribution of the agentive roles in 'marrying' to both males and females.

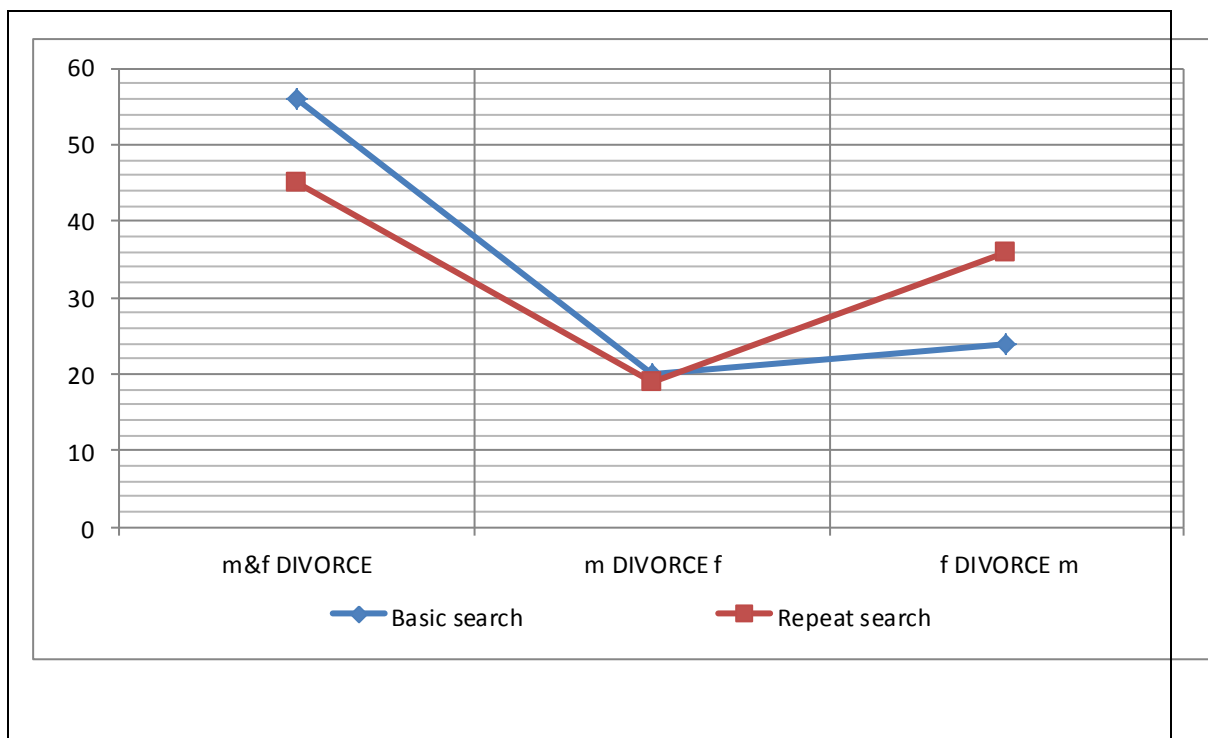
Keyword in Context Search for the Predicate 'divorce'

Moreover, the predicate 'divorced' was searched through the corpus and 1, 370 hits were retrieved. The past tense word-form was used as a search word to avoid the occurrences of nominal forms of the word; which do not show agentive and patient roles targeted by the study. The researcher sampled 100 out of these hits and saved the

list as *the basic search sample*. The researcher then reran the search which retrieved the constant list of 1,370 hits. He again randomly sampled 100 hits and saved it as *the repeat search sample*. The next step was to read each hit in the expanded context, identify the pattern in question, tally the occurrences, calculate the percentage of occurrences and record the finding. Eventually in *the basic search sample*: *m&fDIVORCE* occurrence was 56%; *mDIVORCEf* was 20% and *fDIVORCEm* was 24%. In *the repeat search sample*: *m&fDIVORCE* occurrence was 45%; *mDIVORCEf* was 19% and *fDIVORCEm* was 36%. Findings in both *the basic search sample* and *repeat search sample* are represented by the following line graph.

Graph 4

The frequency of occurrence of the argument patterns for the predicate divorce in the corpus



Key:

m&fDIVORCE=male and female divorce

mDIVORCEf=male divorce female

fDIVORCEm=female divorce male

As per the above line graph, the occurrences of reciprocity in *divorce* between males and females were higher than in other verbs involved in the study. However, comparatively females were assigned more agentive roles in *divorce* than males.

‘Phrase search: as opposed to keyword in context search

The study also searched the COCA using *phrase search* as opposed to *KWIC search*—this is a search whereby the whole phrase is typed in the search window to retrieve similar phrases in the corpus. The following are the findings:

❖ **Phrase search: *he kissed her* versus *she kissed him*.**

The phrase *he kissed her* retrieved 390 hits while *she kissed her* retrieved 209 hits. Therefore, this suggests that males were given more agentive roles in kissing by the variation of 181 hits.

❖ **Phrase search: *he divorced her* versus *she divorced him***

The phrase *she divorced him* retrieved 12 hits while *he divorced her* retrieved only 7 hits. The variation is 5 hits. Thus, the females were given more agentive roles in divorcing than male counterparts.

❖ **Phrase search: *he hugged her* versus *she hugged him***

The phrase *he hugged her* retrieved 65 hits while the phrase *she hugged him* retrieved only 55 hits. The variation was thus 10 hits. That is to say, men were given more agentive roles in hugging than females.

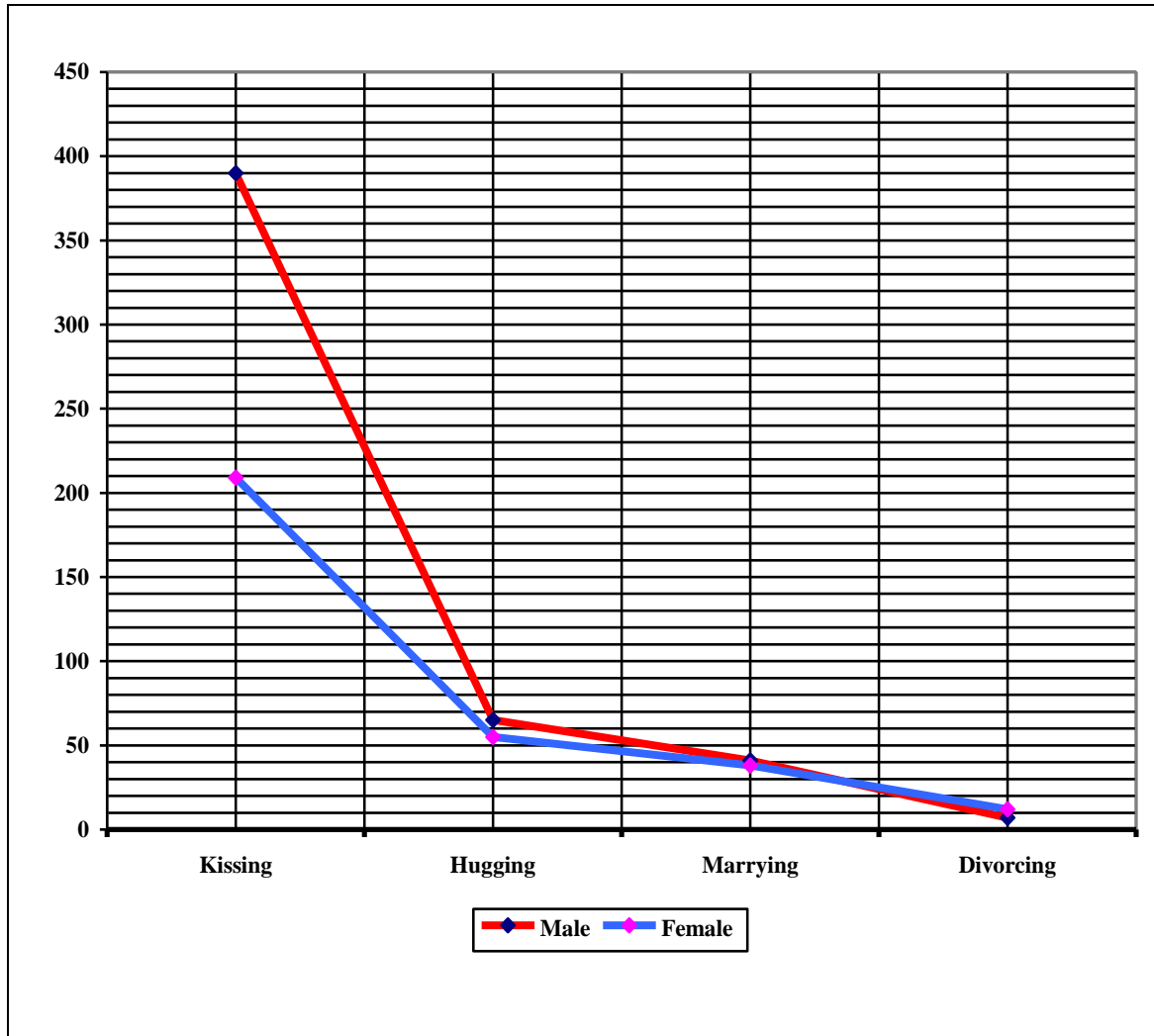
❖ **Phrase search: *he married her* versus *she married him***

The phrase *he married her* retrieved 41 hits, while *she married him* retrieved 38. In this regard, the variation was as minimal as 4 hits.

The general findings of phrase search are summarized through a line graph 5 below:

Graph 5

Variation in frequency of occurrence of agentive roles of the reciprocal predicates with sex



That is, the pattern of the findings from the phrase search corresponds to the pattern of finding from Keyword in Context Search (KWIC). Both shows that males were assigned more agentive roles in kissing and hugging; almost equal roles in marrying; and comparatively less agentive roles in divorcing. Conversely, females were assigned less agentive roles in all verbs; except in divorcing where they (females) were given a slight upper hand than males.

Summary of the Findings

Therefore, the study finds that reciprocity (reversing of the action to both participants) was only 25%. It (reciprocity) was lower with the predicates: kissing, hugging and marrying as neither males nor females were given an upper hand in these actions. Reciprocity was only higher in **divorcing** as both participants were portrayed acting reciprocally most of the times. On the other hand, males were given more agentive roles in **kissing** and **hugging** compared to females. Similarly, females were given more agentive roles in **divorcing** than males, and both males and females were given almost equal roles in **marrying**. In short, authors of fictions subconsciously think that males kiss, hug and then give in marriage more before they are divorced by their partners more than they. On the contrary, they think that females are kissed, hugged and accepted in marriage proposals more before they divorce their male spouses more readily than their male counterparts.

Hence, as long as semantic roles in fictions is done unconsciously by the authors of fictions, then the existence of these patterns matching the known gender realities (the prevailing social practice and stereotypes) is an exhibition that the thoughts of the authors are probably influenced by the societies in which they live. In this regard, the present study is of the view that the battle against gender discriminatory language has not been won at cognitive level. The unconscious mind of the social members (in this case American authors) is still filled with these gender stereotypes as it was discovered in this study. In this regard, the possibility that these authors might be performing gender neutral language in public does not mean that they are gender neutral cognitively. This therefore suggests that the movement against gender discriminatory language has not been won yet at cognitive level.

Discussion

Assignment of semantic roles of the reciprocal verbs in fiction works ought to be by probability; first because reciprocal verbs allow roles swapping between both participants and secondly because authors of the fictions do not report actual events (that would dictate the true assignment of the actual roles of the participants), but rather report the imaginary events with a possibility of assigning roles at will. It should be even more probable because authors have neither gender idea nor gender sensitivity

when assigning these roles. Nevertheless, the present study still found that American authors of the fictions studied consistently assigned more agentive roles to males and patient roles to females in three out of four reciprocal predicates focused by the study. This finding is very intriguing as it rules out the operation of probability which one would expect in this context. The finding indicates a cognitive bias because logically there is no reason for the males to be assigned more agentive roles of the reciprocal verbs compared to females in the hypothetical events in the fictions. Moreover, the fact that this mental bias corresponds to gender roles assignment in the real world, implies that even the unconscious minds of the members of speech community reacts along the social frameworks. It is similar to an observation by Aksu (2005, p. 16) that lecturers unconsciously tend to call on men to answer questions than women and react positively to men's responses compared to women in classroom context. This is another instance of cognitive bias which is likely taking place without the control of the performers. A similar explanation can be that the cognition of the lecturers is unconsciously shaped by the social contexts and environment.

In this regard, the problem of gender bias appears deep-rooted beyond language level. This finding therefore implies that the movements targeting the use of gender biased language cannot by themselves be successful without addressing other key elements such as thoughts and probably cultures of the users. In the view of this study, discriminatory language production turns out to be just the fruits of the problem rather than the roots.

Banning the use of discriminatory language is in line with the hotly debated Sapir-Whorf conception: 'that language influences thought' (Casacanto, 2008; Saeed, 1997, p. 42). Consonant with this view, language influences thought—hence stopping discriminatory language entails deterring negative gender perceptions at cognitive level. This study however observes a problem with this approach. The view that language influences thought in all its versions is strongly criticized by many scholars who have different views on the chain of influence between the two. Piaget for instance is of the view that thought develops from deeply intimate, personal autistic mental states (Piaget in Lucy, p. 45). That is, it is personal needs that become socialized and internalized in the mind. On the contrary, Vygotsky sees thinking developing from social to the individual (that, it is society that motivates person's thinking, not individual needs that

motivates the person's thinking) (p. 46). He concludes that thought derives from sociocultural experience of the child (p. 46).

In line with the findings of this study, this paper concurs with this last view: that the society might be playing an active role in shaping the thinking of its members. This study found that authors unconsciously assigned semantic roles along gender stereotypes; the fact that suggests that humans' cognition internalizes social stereotypes prevailing in their speech community.

The study furthermore finds that social stereotypes might form a program in the mind which runs automatically even without the authority of the bearer. Ekşi (2009, p. 40) puts it that gender stereotypes for example make women and men develop stereotypically conforming characteristics either consciously or unconsciously. The plausible explanation this study finds about this unconscious response along gender lines is that culture might be influencing thought which eventually influences language. This is consonant with Fairclough (1986, p. 23) who holds that linguistic phenomena are social in the sense that what people speak, listen, write or read are determined socially and have social effects. He is of the view that a particular language follows social conventions of a particular society and on the other hand, determines social conventions of that particular society.

This study would add that the tracing of this gender stereotype in the unconscious minds of the members of the society suggests that social context influences cognition. In this regard, social stereotypes such as gender bias inhabit the minds of the members of speech community even if they do not exhibit them verbally. Regarding this, Newell (1996, pp. 171-2) observes that masculinity is not necessarily conspiratorial and need not to be regarded as consciously thought out strategy by men to ensnare women in negative gender roles, instead it is more of an attitude, a conservative and entrenched way of thinking about gender relations that is passed automatically from parents to children. That is, members of a speech community learn gender stereotypes once they are born in a gender biased society and that their minds register this knowledge permanently in their '*hard disk*'. Hence, the gender bias exists in mind irrespective of conscious efforts by the individuals to avoid it. In similar thought Aksu (2005, p. 12) writes:

In this age of mass media, we are surrounded with images that promote certain gender roles. These hidden forces shape us and our world view, often without us

being aware that they are doing so. Gender stereotypes occur when generic attributes, opinions or roles have been applied towards either gender and the results are apparent everywhere in the society

This study embraces this observation by Aksu (*ibid*) that social contexts plays a great role in determining subconscious thought of its members. It only differs with Aksu (*ibid*) that the tendency started long even before the age of mass media.

Likewise, Hoijer considers language part of culture and that any cultural change automatically leads to a language change (Hoijer in Lucy, 1992, p. 75). He gives semantic change as a typical example of how culture changes language. In his view, semantic expansion, narrowing, shifts combination of old terms into new compounds, words becoming obsolete and the like: are motivated by cultural change in a speech community (p. 76). Therefore, he is of the view that the changes in the vocabulary imply the changes in other related phenomenon such as culture and thought. Hence, Hoijer's view on this matter implies that the movement against discriminatory language (political correctness movement) should also focus on the language related phenomena such as culture and thought—whose changes induce language change as well. He, however, interestingly observes that culture appears to change more rapidly than the language (p. 76). This suggests also that the use of discriminatory language alone does not entail gender bias if the user does not aim at discriminating through those words. This is to say, it is likely that some users use discriminatory words just because they are available to them and are not aware of their associated discriminating purpose. That is for example, the use of discriminatory language by a three years old child does not qualify him/her to be sexist. The explanation is that she/he might be using such words because he/she has found them in use but still does not share the connotative thoughts associated with them in the speech community in question.

So, in this regard, this study is of the view that the criterion for holding somebody responsible for gender discrimination should be their intention rather than words they use. It appears that language is not a default indicator of gender discrimination. The use of sayings and proverbs deemed gender biased for example does not tell that the user is gender biased on purpose.

Conclusion

The study therefore concludes that political correctness focusing on correcting language production cannot achieve its objectives without focusing on cultural change. The evidence suggests that the society influences thought of its members in a great deal and that the product of that effect is what is seen in language produced. The finding also points out that human beings only effortfully control their conscious performances—as stipulated by psychoanalysis theory, yet these conscious efforts are not enough to do away with the concepts deeply imbedded in minds by a complex relationship between language thought and culture. In this regard, the production (performance) of gender neutral language alone is an unreliable criterion for judging the success of a gender discrimination campaign—as the study finds that some conceptions are deeply rooted in members' mind and culture in such a way that they do not actually have control on them. The study also finds that using discriminatory language alone does not reliably indicate that the performer in question is actually discriminating along gender. It appears that many users use these phrases simply because they acquired them from their communities and they are available in their mental lexicon, not because they intend to discriminate anybody with their use.

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**A Study of Needs Analysis at Turkish Gendarmerie in Terms of English for
Specific Purposes**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: English learning and teaching activities are crucial for Turkish Gendarmerie personnel serving both at home and in various regions of the world. However, there is no sound basis determining the language needs of the gendarmerie organization and personnel to lead them to accomplishment in joint missions.

Purpose of Study: This paper aims to investigate the language needs of the Turkish Gendarmerie in terms of English for Specific Purposes. It is expected that determining the language needs of the organization on scientific basis helps to reshape the language curriculum of the gendarmerie and finally it will help the accomplishment of the joint missions in terms of language proficiency.

Method: Two questionnaires were administered to 70 gendarmerie personnel who had English learning experience to understand the language needs of the organization. Then the collected data was presented through tables.

Findings and Results: The data collected reveals that speaking and writing skills should be emphasized and taken into consideration in assessment. In addition, language materials need to be improved or be supplemented by auxiliary documents.

Conclusion and Recommendations: The present study suggests that some steps need to be taken to improve the language proficiency of the gendarmerie personnel to meet the language requirements especially for joint missions. A new language teaching program

should be prepared in terms of improving four language skills and topics should be introduced related to the gendarmerie jurisdiction.

Keywords: needs analysis, English for specific purposes, needs analysis of the gendarmerie.

Introduction

Turkey has been an active member of North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) since 1952 and Turkish Armed Forces including Turkish Gendarmerie has been participating in many international joint operations in various parts of the world. Some of these missions are administrative duties and some others are combating ones requiring communication and co-operation with the members of other armies. The need for effective communication is particularly acute in these missions and operations where linguistic misunderstanding risk leading to mistakes, which might result in casualties.

The NATO member countries deploying personnel to joint missions have been following the NATO Language standards for several decades. Some countries train their soldiers in Army/Navy/Air Force language schools and test the personnel in terms of Stanag 6001. Some other countries rent private organizations to fulfill these missions.

Although English and French are official languages at NATO, English is the operational language and the teaching, testing, and using the English language within the NATO community have become more important because of the addition of new countries and increasing number of joint tasks such as peace support operations. Due to the vitality of the language issues, the Bureau of International Language Coordination (BILC) was established within the NATO Training Group (NTG) / Joint Services Subgroup (JSSG) as a consultative and advisory body for language training matters in NATO.

Turkish Gendarmerie and Foreign Affairs

Gendarmerie is responsible for approximately 92% of the national territory, provides public order and security for nearly 40% of the total population, is a law enforcement agency having military status and making efforts to establish peace and to provide internal security throughout the country. Turkish Gendarmerie performs general security and public order duties by merging military with law enforcement agency

characteristics. In addition, it makes significant contributions to both regional and global peace. In this context, Gendarmerie has three main duties as judicial, administrative and military.

As of foreign affairs, Turkish Gendarmerie became the member of the Association of the European and Mediterranean Gendarmerie and Police Forces with Military Status (FIEP) established for the purpose of reinforcing the relations and strengthening solidarity reciprocally between the Law Enforcement Agencies of European Countries and the Countries having Mediterranean coastline.

Turkish Gendarmerie is also a member of European Network of Forensic Sciences Institutions (ENFSI) in order to follow the technological development changing quickly in the field of forensic sciences. Turkish Gendarmerie has been participating in all the meetings of these organizations. On-the-spot training and education have been carried out in The Gambia, Georgia and Azerbaijan by Gendarmerie Training Teams within the framework of the signed protocols. International joint duties pave the way for the establishment of mutual understanding for officers and non-commissioned officers (NCOs) by creating a working environment with personnel from European Union (EU) Member States.

In addition to these training and educations on-the-spot, guest military personnel from Albania, Azerbaijan, Pakistan, Turkmenistan, the Gambia, Georgia, France, Tunisia, Kyrgyzstan, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Ukraine and China have been trained at the training facilities of the Turkish Gendarmerie.

Within the framework of United Nations and European Union, Turkish Gendarmerie has been participating in Operations of Reinforcement and Protection for Peace in Georgia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Afghanistan, Kosovo, and Sudan. Moreover, there are lots of Gendarmerie officers and NCOs taking professional training and education both at home and in foreign countries and English is the medium of instruction in these activities.

English Language Teaching at Turkish Gendarmerie

Since great importance is attached to foreign relations in gendarmerie, foreign language education, especially English language teaching is primarily emphasized in educational settings.

At Gendarmerie Schools Command, English Language Teaching courses are given to the gendarmerie personnel for personal development and organizational needs. English Courses are divided as advanced and intermediate level and are held twice a year. In these courses American Language Course (ALC) series are used as course books. After finishing the course, trainees have to take Language Proficiency Exam for State Employees (KPDS) and English General Screening Exam (listening comprehension) in order to be deployed to joint missions.

Method

Hypotheses and Research Questions

The main focus of the study is to determine the language needs of the gendarmerie personnel in terms of English for specific purposes to help them reach the required language proficiency level to accomplish the mission both at home and in joint missions. In this study, the following research questions will be answered:

- What are the language needs of the officers and non-commissioned officers serving in the Gendarmerie?
- What are the needs and interests of the trainees of the English course to reach the goals defined in Stanag 6001 Level 3 which highlights the language requirements in joint missions?

Scope of the Study and Subjects

This study is conducted at Turkish Gendarmerie in Turkey and the subjects are officers and non-commissioned officers serving under the command of Turkish Gendarmerie and some of them attend English Courses at Gendarmerie Schools.

There are two groups of subjects in this study. The first group of subjects is officers and NCOs at various ranks graduated from English courses. Since they serve in various parts of Turkey, it is difficult to reach every graduate. Therefore 40 graduates participate in this study.

The second group of subjects is the 30 trainees attending English courses and trainee interest questionnaire is given to them to analyze their needs.

Instruments

The needs analysis questionnaire was modified from a survey used in a Masters Thesis which was prepared to analyze ELT at Turkish Air Force Academy Advanced English Course from Content-Based Instruction Perspective. The questionnaire involved 20 questions based on understanding graduates' ideas on the language needs of the gendarmerie personnel and the organization. The questionnaire was sent to nearly 160 subjects by means of emails. 40 of them replied the questionnaire. 34 of the subjects (85 %) were officers and 6 of them (15 %) were NCOs. This data collected was taken into consideration in evaluation. The data was displayed in tables prepared in excel program.

The Trainee Interest Questionnaire is administered to 30 trainees to specify their professional needs and interests.

Findings and Results

Table 1

Average scores of KPDS, ECL, TOEFL exams

Exams	The Number of Subjects	Average Scores
KPDS	33	63
ECL	28	80
TOEFL	2	215
TOTAL	63	

Among 40 subjects, 33 of them declared their highest scores from KPDS exams which were taken after their graduation from the language course. The average point of these KPDS exams was 63. Among 40 subjects, 28 of them declared their scores from English Comprehension Level Examinations (ECL) which were taken after their graduation from the language course. The average point taken in these ECL exams was 80. Only 2 subjects declared that they had TOEFL test and the average of their scores was 215. Since mainly KPDS exam was taken into consideration in many activities, especially for the deployment to international missions by the organization, the

personnel did not prefer taking a TOEFL exam, which was also more costly than the others.

Table 2

The school finally graduated

Items	Frequency	Percentage %
Military Academy	22	54
University	9	23
Master – Ph.D.	8	20
NCO Vocational School	1	3
Total	40	100

According to the schools that the participants finally graduated from, Military Academy occupied the rate of 54%. Secondly, 23% of the subjects graduated from universities. 20% of the participants had Master's or Ph Degree. Finally only 3% of the subjects graduated from Non-Commissioned Officer Vocational Higher School. In other words, the majority of the subjects were the Military Academy graduates.

Table 3

The place where English was learnt intensively

Item	Frequency	Percentage %
Gendarmerie Language Course	26	53
High School	14	29
Military Academy	3	6
University	4	8
Private Language Course	2	4
Total	49	100

According to the places where English language was intensively learned, the English Course at Gendarmerie Schools was marked at a rate of 53%. Next, 29% of the subjects stated that they learned English intensively at high schools. Then, universities

(8%), Military Academy (6%), and Language Courses (4%) were claimed by the subjects as the places where the English Language was intensively learned.

Table 4

Analyses of language skills

Items	Reading		Listening		Speaking		Writing		Grammar	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
The Frequency of Usage of Language Skills	12	29	10	24	7	18	6	15	5	14
The Skills that should be Improved for the Profession	13	16	24	30	36	46	6	8	-	-
The Language Skills that should be developed for International Missions	0	0	6	21	16	55	5	17	2	7

According to the language skills that were frequently used in their professions, reading was marked at a rate of 29%. Next, 24% of the subjects cited that they frequently used listening skill in their professions. While reading skill was the most frequently used one by the subjects, writing skill was the least used one. According to the two skills that were believed to be emphasized, speaking skill occupied 46%, while listening followed it with a rate of 30%. In other words, oral skills were believed to be improved the most. As for the subjects who had been abroad, more than half of the participants (55%) considered themselves insufficient in speaking. Listening was the second at a rate of 21%. In other words, oral skills were primarily believed to be insufficient in comparison with other skills.

Table 5

English levels in language skills

Language Skills	Excellent		Good		Not Bad		Insufficient		Bad/Poor	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Writing	0	0	15	39	11	28	11	28	2	5
Speaking	0	0	7	16	21	48	12	27	4	9
Grammar	0	0	17	49	12	34	2	6	4	11
Listening	2	5	13	33	22	54	3	8	0	0
Reading	8	21	24	61	6	15	1	3	0	0
* 5 point likert scale is used in measurement										

According to the level of writing skill that the subjects believed to have, 39% of the participants stated that they were good at writing. 28% of them considered themselves “not bad”, and “insufficient” in equal. It was understood that the majority of the subjects believed that they were “good” and “not bad” in writing. According to the level of speaking skill that the subjects believed to have, nearly half of the subjects (48%) stated that they were “not bad” in speaking skill. While 27% of them marked themselves as “insufficient”, 16 % had the idea that they were good at speaking. No subject claimed he was “excellent” at speaking. It was understood that the majority of the participants believed they were “not bad” and “insufficient” in speaking skill. According to the level of grammar that the subjects believed to have, nearly half of the subjects (49%) expressed that they were “good” at grammar. While 34% of the subjects had the idea that they were “not bad” at grammar, 11% stated that they were “insufficient”. It can be generalized that the majority of the subjects were “good” and “not bad” at grammar. As for the listening skill, more than half of the subjects (54%) considered themselves “not bad” in listening skill, while 33 % of them marked themselves as “good”. In other words, the majority of the participants expressed that they were “good” and “not bad” in listening. As for the reading skill, more than half of the subjects (61%) believed that they were “good” at reading, while 21 % of the participants stated they were “excellent or good”. On the other hand, only 3% of the subjects cited that they were “insufficient” and none of them believed to be “bad” in

reading. In other words, reading skill got the highest positive rates in comparison with others.

Table 6

The reasons for learning English

Items	Frequency	Percentage
To take part in int. missions which require foreign language knowledge	36	31
To be successful in KPDS and General Screening Examination	22	18
To communicate with the foreigners	24	20
To comprehend the texts written in English	20	17
To translate foreign texts	3	3
To do presentations at conferences in English	10	8
To prepare research reports and articles in English	4	3
Total	119	100

According to the objectives of the subjects in learning English in their professions, 31% of the subjects stated that they learned English to take part in international missions which required foreign language knowledge. 20% of the participants expressed they wanted to learn English to communicate with the foreigners. 18% of them cited that one of their objectives in learning English was to be successful in KPDS and General Screening Examination. 17% declared that they studied English to comprehend the texts written in English. 8% expressed they learned English to do presentations at conferences in English. 3% stated they learned English to prepare research reports and articles in English. Only 3% cited their objective was to translate foreign texts.

Table 7

Participants' ideas about the role of English Language

Items	Yes		No	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
The rate of those saying "English has Provided Advantages so far in my Profession"	16	40	24	60
The rate of those who believe "English will Provide Advantages in the Future"	31	77	9	23

40% of the subjects claimed that they had taken advantage of knowing English in their professions. However, 60% of them stated they had not. 77% of the subjects were positive that knowing English would provide some advantages in their professions in the future. Yet, 23% of them believed that it would not.

Table 8

The mean of some KPDS scores according to some categories

Categories	Mean of KPDS Scores
Subjects who had been abroad	71
Subjects who had not been abroad	56
I intensively learnt English at Gendarmerie Language Course	63
I intensively learnt English at Military Academy	59
I have taken advantage of knowing English so far	68
All subjects	63
Officers	66
NCO	49

Although the mean of KPDS Scores of the subjects who had been abroad was 71, the mean for the ones who had not been abroad was 56. The mean for the subjects who intensively learnt English at Gendarmerie Language Course was 63 and the mean for the ones who learnt English intensively at Military Academy was 59. The subjects who had taken advantage of knowing English so far had a mean of 68. All the subjects

who had participated in the questionnaire had a mean of 63 in KPDS exams. When we analyze the subjects as officers and NCOs, officers had a mean of 66 and NCOs had a mean of 49.

Trainees Interest Questionnaire

Trainees' interest questionnaire was surveyed to understand their professional needs in terms of personal and organizational objectives. 25 topics were specified as a result of interviews with the teachers and gendarmerie personnel. In addition, the duties and responsibilities given to the gendarmerie by laws and regulations were elaborated and relevant topics were added to the questionnaire as an item. Each item was scaled from 3 (very interesting) to 1 (not interesting). Each mark for very interesting was multiplied by 3 and the mark for not interesting was multiplied by one. Then the numbers were added and the result was obtained.

According to the results (Table 9), the most interesting 10 topics for the trainees were Terrorism and Counter-terrorism, Public order and security, career in the military, communication and language, multinational peace support operations, military briefings, sports and physical training, humanitarian assistance in joint missions, leaders and leadership, human psychology in military context. Most of these topics were the duties of the gendarmerie both inside and outside the country. On the other hand, military history, arms and communication, military engineering / sapper activities, military units and military signalling were among the topics that subjects avoided to mark as a high frequency because these topics were secondarily important for the gendarmerie personnel.

Table 9

The evaluation of trainee interest questionnaire

TOPICS	POINTS	TOPICS	POINTS
1. Terrorism and Counter-terrorism	83	14. Military exercises	66
2. Public order ad security	80	15. Women in the military	65
3. Career in the military	78	16. Health	65
4. Communication and language	77	17. Hostage rescue	64
5. Multinational peace support operations	77	18. NATO issues	63
6. Military briefings	76	19. Military intelligence	63
7. Sports and physical training	75	20. Science and technology in the military	63
8. Humanitarian assistance in joint missions	74	21. Military signalling	60
9. Leaders and leadership	63	22. Military units	60
10. Human psychology in military context	73	23. Military engineering / sapper activities	57
11. Crime and punishment	72	24. Arms and communication	55
12. Cultural differences in joint missions	70	25. Military history	51
13. Environment and natural diseases	68		

Conclusion

In accordance with the data collected, participants believe that reading skill is the most frequently used skill in the profession, because subjects spend much time preparing for KPDS exam based on reading skill. In addition, majority of them consider themselves excellent or good in reading skill. On the other hand, none of the participants think that reading skill should be developed for international missions.

In accordance with the data, listening is the second among four skills in the frequency of use of language skills. Since subjects take General Screening Exam, which is based on listening comprehension, to be deployed to international missions, they spend much time studying to improve this skill. With regard to English levels that participants believe to have they consider themselves good in listening skill.

Few subjects consider themselves “good ” in speaking skill. They believe that speaking skill should primarily be improved for the profession, because speaking is the outcome of communication especially for international missions.

Few subjects use writing skill in the profession. Therefore, very few believe that writing skill should be improved for the profession. The attitude of the subjects to the writing skill is commonly negative. Subjects consider themselves insufficient in writing skill. It can be concluded that the rates are lower in writing skill in comparison with other skills.

Since participants believe that they mainly learn English at school or language courses, the following principles should be included in the language teaching programs to reach the organizational goals.

In measurement and evaluation, each initiative of a learner should be taken into consideration as an indication of learner’s development within the framework of portfolio assessment. Speaking and writing skills should be included in the exams. In the new program, learners’ needs and interests are taken into consideration to put into practice the learner autonomy concept.

The main goal of the program should lead the personnel to the success in international missions in accordance with NATO standards. The program should create an atmosphere focusing on four language skills and select relevant topics in terms of military and police missions. The new program should be skills-based with primary focus on the communication skills, that is, speaking and listening skills. Other skills i.e.

reading and writing skills are also taken into consideration because these two skills are needed for the exams and accomplishment of the positions in joint missions.

As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) assert that the kind of changes in the language teaching materials previously adopted in an L2 teaching environment is directly related to the degree of match between the properties of the materials and the assessed needs and requirements. The degree of match may result not only in the acceptance, supplementation and modification but also in the removal or total replacement of the materials. Therefore, it is necessary to provide materials that will serve the goals based on institutional, individual and professional needs of the learners. In this context, the previously used course book American Language Course series should be supported with supplementary materials. The new program should utilize a topic-based syllabus based on selection of primary gendarmerie and military related texts gathered from a variety sources. Campaign 2-3 course books, internet sites, listening passages from Voice of America (VOA) and TOEFL CDs are the supplementary materials that can be used until the new material is prepared in accordance with NATO Stanag 6001 Level 3 objectives.

A learning environment equipped with modern educational technologies will facilitate and accelerate the learning process and create a motivating atmosphere for the learners.

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Özel Amaçlı İngilizce Kapsamında Türk Jandarmanında Bir İhtiyaçlar Analizi Çalışması

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: Hem ülke içerisinde hem de dünyanın çeşitli bölgelerinde görev yapan jandarma personeli için İngilizce öğrenme ve öğretme faaliyetleri hayati öneme sahiptir. Fakat, jandarma personeli ve teşkilatını müşterek görevlerde başarıya taşıyacak sağlam temellere dayanan bir ihtiyaçlar analizi yapılmamıştır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, özel amaçlı İngilizce kapsamında Türk Jandarmanının dil ihtiyaçlarını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Teşkilat için bilimsel temellere dayanan dil ihtiyaç analizinin yapılması, jandarmanın dil müfredatının yeniden şekillendirilmesine yardım edecek ve sonuç olarak müşterek görevlerde dil yeterliliği yönüyle başarıyı getirecektir.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Teşkilatın dil ihtiyaçlarını anlayabilmek için dil öğrenme tecrübesine sahip 70 jandarma personeline iki anket uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra toplanan veriler, tablolar halinde sunulmuştur.

Bulgular: Toplanan veriler, konuşma ve yazma becerilerinin vurgulanması ve değerlendirilmelerde dikkate alınması gerektiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Ayrıca, dil öğrenme materyalleri gözden geçirilmeli ve yardımcı malzemelerle desteklenmelidir. Dört dil becerisini geliştirmeyi hedefleyen yeni bir müfredat programı hazırlanmalı ve konular jandarmanın görev ve sorumluluk alanlarını ilgilendiren hususlardan seçilmelidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ihtiyaçlar analizi, Özel amaçlı İngilizce, jandarmada ihtiyaçlar analizi çalışması.

A Model of Instruction for Anxiety and Success in ELT

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Much research has revealed that high levels of anxiety acts as an inhibitor in foreign language learning and leads to decrease in success level.

Purpose of Study: In this paper, a model of instruction for anxiety and success in teaching grammar in ELT is proposed. The aim of the model is to decrease levels of anxiety while increasing success level in EFL contexts by presenting three basic components for study skills deficits, cognitive interference and information processing, based on the assumptions of different and complementing anxiety models.

Method: Examples of activities for the components as well as suggestions for further research are presented in this paper.

Findings: The cognitive interferences and deficits in study skills combine and effect different stage of human information processing system such as input, processing and output.

Conclusion and Recommendations: Although limited amount of anxiety is useful, known as Yerkes-Dodson Law (Morgan, 2006), excessive level of anxiety inhibits learning and success. The relationship between anxiety and success has been studied in a great body of research and models to explain the relationship between anxiety and success, some of which complement each other, have been proposed.

Key Words: Anxiety, success, teaching grammar, an instruction model.

Introduction

Success is the criteria for learning but it can easily be affected by other factors and inhibitors such as socio-economic factors, education quality, individual factors, etc... Apart from all these inhibitors, one of the most common underlying factors to affect success directly is anxiety and there has been a wide body of research showing the negative effects of anxiety on learning (see Zeidner, 1998 for a review).

Although anxiety helps individuals to stay alive in situations appraised as threat in ancient times, in modern world, the definition of “threat” has gained a new and more social meaning. Tests and exams have become new sources of threats. For example, when an individual is asked to take a test, one of the first responses seen is anxiety. In fact, even if one knows the answers to a test by heart, the same responses are seen in case of an exam or a test, signaling how deeply survival and anxiety is wired in the brain. Though exams are not survival situations in the literal sense, they trigger the same survival mechanisms controlled by anxiety and the “deeply coded survival mechanisms” (Zeidner and Matthews, 2005) cannot only be turned off, but also make things worse. For instance although the somatic reactions such as dilated pupils or increased heart rate are the mechanisms to help the body to deal with the “threat”, they do not help during tests or exams.

Referring to anxiety and test anxiety interchangeably, anxiety has found a strong place for itself especially in EFL contexts. For example in Turkey, where English is intensely taught with a special focus on grammar throughout the education system, learners still have problems in English grammar exams and they cannot achieve the level they are expected to. Even though there may be several reasons for such shortcomings in ELT, as mentioned above, the role of the relationship between anxiety and success cannot be underestimated.

Much research has proved that anxiety has a negative effect on learning (see Aydın, 2009 for a review). Since anxiety has a profound effect on learning and success, models to explain the relationship between test anxiety and success have been various. However, although these models are strong in their assumptions, when combined, these models present a better and clearer way why and how anxiety can affect learners and why does it act as an inhibitor in success in ELT. Therefore, among other models,

Cognitive Interference Model (Sarason, 1984), Study Skills Deficit Model by Culler and Holahan (1980) and Information Processing Model of Test Anxiety (Tobias, 1985) are the ones this paper focuses on since they can be thought to complement each other.

In this paper, first the anxiety models and their assumptions for the relationship between anxiety and success are summarized. Then, based on the combination and adaptation of the assumptions of the models mentioned above, a model of instruction for anxiety and success (hereafter MIAS) for ELT is presented. After that, three basic components of the model to affect both anxiety and success during teaching with some examples for MIAS are given. Implications of the model for future research are presented at the end of this paper.

Models for Anxiety and Success

Cognitive Interference Model

Anxiety is thought to have two components; worry and emotionality (Liebert and Morris, 1967). Worry refers to worrisome and self-related negative thoughts as well as negative expectancies while emotionality refers to bodily symptoms or reactions towards anxiety (Zeidner and Matthews, 2005). Cognitive interference can be resembled with looking at another car or something else on the other lane and being distracted while driving and having an accident in the end. According to the Cognitive Interference Model, during learning or testing situations, worry and emotionality interfere with the necessary cognitive processes related with the task at hand and lead to failure (Sarason, 1984). In other words, in an exam situation, an individual's negative self-centered thoughts as well as irrelevant environmental signs such as how fast other students are doing the exam or how fast one's heart beats interfere with the attention and this interference leads to failure in learning and exams (Lee, 1999; MacLeod, 1996; Richards et al., 2000; Sarason, 1984; Sarason et al., 1991, 1996; Spielberger and Vaag, 1995; Wine, 1971,1980; Zeidner and Matthews, 2005).

Study Skills Deficit Model

According to Study Skills Deficit Model, there are two basic reasons for high levels of anxiety and failure in exams. The first one is the weak study and exam skills. As it can be guessed, most successful learners employ a group of strategies consciously

or unconsciously (Oxford, 2002). Yet, students who do not take full advantage of the time spent in classes, do not take notes effectively or organize, elaborate or relate them to each other efficiently and have a tendency to procrastinate studying or exams usually face anxiety and failure (Carrier et al., 1984; Culler and Holahan, 1980; Covington, 1992,1998; Zeidner, 1991, 1998). The second reason is that although some students have good study skills, yet, they cannot utilize them in exams because of their high anxiety levels (Naveh-Benjamin et. al., 1981). It is plausible to state that anxiety can be both cause and effect and along with cognitive interference, lack of study skills may have another role resulting in anxiety, failure to learn and being unsuccessful.

Information Processing Model of Test Anxiety

As for the Information Processing Model of Test Anxiety, the cognitive interferences and deficits in study skills combine and effect different stages of human information processing system such as input, processing and output (Beck and Clark, 1997; Tobias, 1985, 1986). For example because of anxiety, individuals have a tendency to divert their attention towards anxiety provoking stimulus rather than the necessary information sources. Therefore, shadowing the required information leads to limited coding and processing. Another point related with anxiety is the handicaps in processing and output. According to Tobias (1985), as working memory has a limited capacity, using it to search for potential threats or anxiety provoking stimulus lead to misuse and waste of capacity and ending up inadequate capacity to work on the task at hand and producing an unsuccessful output. In other words, filling up the capacity of working memory with unrelated load because of anxiety can cause failure.

The Instruction Model

Learning depends on coding and connecting as well as making new connections and being successful depends on recalling the coded information efficiently. As mentioned in the anxiety literature, there is a negative relationship between anxiety and success in most cases of learning. The model of instruction for anxiety and success (MIAS) depends on the assumption that as a result of study skills deficits or worrisome, self-related negative thoughts as well as negative expectancies, anxiety leads to cognitive interference, which in turn leads to an overflow in the limited capacity of working memory and negative effects on learning as well as success in the end. For

example, a highly anxious learner can easily be distracted in an exam or a learning context by internal and external factors such as negative expectations from the exam or other learners' possible ideas about him/her. Another effect of anxiety can result in feeling insecure because of poor study habits or panicking and confusing everything during an exam. As a result, such cognitive interferences or deficits in study skills affect individuals' exam success by limiting the amount of cognitive capacity to be used for learning and being successful.

The model proposed in this paper focuses especially on teaching grammar and success evaluated by grammar tests. It aims to decrease learners' level of anxiety and increase level of success by proposing some components and activities for teaching based on the assumptions related with anxiety and success. The components proposed in the model are all interrelated and should be considered together as a whole although they can be grouped as separate components for study skills deficit, cognitive interference and information processing. The activities suggested in this paper are representative in terms of exemplifying the basic ideas of the components. However, as long as the basic ideas of the model and the components are reflected, such activities are only limited with the imagination and expertise of language teachers.

Components for study skills deficit

Raising awareness for differences in affective learning styles. As known, every learner has a different affective learner style. Although there are various types of learner styles, the most basic ones can be considered as visual, auditory or kinesthetic. By raising awareness of different styles, a learner can decide his/her dominant affective learning style and organize his/her studies accordingly. Therefore, learners should be informed about differences in affective learner styles, be helped to find out which one/ones would help them more. For instance, explaining the basics of the styles can help learners and then giving questionnaires to determine learning styles of students before the course can be helpful. Even leading students to Internet to check for such questionnaires and/or get some new study ideas can help learners to become more effective while learning a language. Explaining and giving examples about the learning styles are only limited with the expertise of the teacher. Yet, study skills for related affective learning styles by Frender (1990: 26) offer a concise list.

Teaching study strategies. After helping learners deciding about their learning style, teaching some general study strategies such as re-organizing, grouping, summarizing, guessing, detailing, elaborating etc. can be of great use. Activities including games to employ strategies which have just been taught can help learners to put some theory into practice. Even asking learners to talk about the strategies they use and asking them to combine with other strategies if possible is very helpful. This way, learners can adapt new strategies and overcome their anxiety in time. Such speaking activities can lead to another way to connect the affective learner styles with study strategies. For instance after speaking about the strategies such as grouping ideas by spider-graphs or highlighting important/new words and making summaries, forming a list of activities together with the class can connect learner styles and study strategies. Presenting a wider variety of strategies and elaborating on them to help learners to choose themselves is a good idea.

Teaching note taking strategies. Taking better notes leads to better coding and thus, learning and recalling as proposed by the depth of processing theory by Craik and Lockhart (1972). Therefore in order to code new information better, learners should also be taught some note taking strategies such as coming to class prepared, elaborating the relationship among subjects or paying attention to the points repeated. Showing some not taking strategies in action can also be helpful. For example first, teacher gives learners a reading text and asks them to focus on only the dates, subjects and verbs in sentences and write them on a separate piece of paper as they read. Later, students can be asked to summarize the text by their own words by looking at only the notes they have just created.

Components for cognitive interference

Desensitization for exams. Desensitization can be described as an individual's facing a stimulus of anxiety or fright in a safe and controlled environment to condition new behavior towards the stimulus (Morgan, 2006). So, in this way, desensitization can help learners to overcome their anxiety towards tests. There should be two different kinds of tests; tests for grading and tests for practice. Tests for grading refer to the "classic testing notion", which refers to testing only to grade or to see which learners pass or fail. Tests for practice should be considered similar to vaccines carrying weak

viruses for immunity. They are the tests given as a means of autonomy and preparation for the exam of grading while helping learners to overcome their anxiety for the presence of tests. However, they should be different from the “classical practice tests” given in the classrooms. First of all, like classical practice tests, their results should not be included in the grading and the answers should be given right after the test. Then the answers should be discussed by the whole class and students should be included in the evaluation of the results. For example they can be asked to grade their or their friends’ papers without revealing the final score. When the whole evaluation process is finished, then they can return the papers to their friends with discretion. Being exposed to such tests and exams as much as possible can help learners overcome their anxiety while re-teaching them.

Promoting a positive attitude. As known, affective filter-the “mental barrier”, may lead learners to leave out necessary information. Therefore, it is a better idea for teachers to promote a positive attitude towards the language, the class and learners’ themselves. As the name suggests, English is a “foreign language” in many countries, which signals that it has a quite different system of meaning. As the language itself creates an obscurity, learners’ ideas about the language’s being difficult or easy may define their attitude towards the language. Therefore, before teaching a new grammar topic, encouraging learners and making them feel more comfortable by saying and repeating that the new topic is quite easy and is similar to one of the topics they have learnt can be helpful. Such encouragement can help creating a friendly and “safe” atmosphere. This way, learners can avoid negative thoughts and ideas from the beginning and can have a more positive attitude towards the language. Otherwise, if learners believe that the new topic is difficult, they can turn off the filter in the beginning without letting the teacher reach them.

Friendly classroom environment is very important in promoting a positive attitude. When students feel tense, anxious or bored, they get distracted or create a negative impression of the teaching/learning setting. Music can be very helpful to create such settings. There are several different ways to promote a positive attitude by using music in the class. For instance students can listen to their favorite music when they are working on exercises or reading without disturbing anyone. Or, the teacher can play some music in the background during exercises. The teacher can even let students to

make a playlist or ask some random students to make a choice. Another factor which may help to create a fun and friendly classroom environment can be achieved by using sound effects. For example the teacher can use sound effects when s/he asks questions and/or s/he gets an answer. Similarly, code switching is also a very easy and clever way to promote a positive attitude. Both the teacher changing dialects or accents during teaching or asking a learner to switch between different accents or dialects does not only make classes fun but also helps learners to or re-adjust their attention and/or stay focused.

For most teenagers as well as other learners, classes are social environments where nobody wants to be embarrassed or humiliated by making mistakes. However, being laughed at in a social environment is a huge inhibitor for learning since learning cannot be separated from making mistakes. Therefore, a special care should be given to error correction. Learners should be told quite frequently that errors are bound to happen and they are also signs of progress because they signal a struggle to use the new language and information. Parallel with this, error correction should be done by asking students instead of teacher's giving the answers. For example teacher can write incorrect sentences along with correct sentences and ask students to identify and correct the error.

As mentioned above, when learners have negative thoughts about themselves, they have a tendency to generalize them and disengage from the task at hand. Helping learners to build higher self-esteem and confidence is important. As part of promoting a positive attitude and self-esteem, watching films or documentaries can help. For example the movie, *What the bleep do we know!?* is an interesting example of this kind. Although that movie/documentary is about quantum physics, it also tells about how positive feelings and attitude can help personal development. Watching or assigning such a movie and making a discussion afterwards can be a good step to help learners to create better views of themselves and discarding negative views. Another activity can be asking students to prepare tests for following weeks to be administered to the class. By this way, learners can create a positive attitude for themselves and form a model for the class as well as creating a test to be used for desensitization as mentioned above. Asking students to a volunteer to re-teach the topics to the class after the teacher can also help learners to build a higher self-esteem. However, especially before

administering the test prepared by the student and during re-teaching, the teacher should give feedback and monitor to avoid mistakes which can make the student to feel humiliated.

Breath and relaxation exercises. Research show focusing attention on single stimuli like breathing or doing breathing exercises help individuals to overcome the fluctuations in emotions as well as bodily symptoms which appear during exams because of anxiety (Semple et. al., 2005). Therefore teaching some breathing and relaxation exercises can help learners to benefit from a positive effect on both anxiety and success. For example like the exercises mentioned by Semple et. al. (2005), students can be asked to close their eyes, inhale for two seconds through their nose, hold for two seconds, exhale through their nose again in two seconds, hold still for another two seconds and start again. They can be told that doing simple breath and relaxation exercises to re-focus their attention during exams or when they feel distracted can be of great help. They can be advised to think of activities in respect with their learner styles which can help them relaxed. For example auditory learners can listen to smooth jazz or pieces of easy listening while kinesthetic learners can prefer going for a short walk in the sun.

Components for information processing

Transfer of syntactical structures between native and target language. In EFL contexts where the language is only taught at formal institutions, teaching grammar maintains an important place. Although communicative language teaching offers considerable development in speaking and listening skills, in EFL contexts, it lacks the need for native language and grammar teaching. As mentioned above, the system of meaning is different in all languages. It is even believed that anxiety in foreign language learning has deeper roots in the “loss of meaning” (Lazarus, 1991). Therefore, it may be a good idea to use native language during teaching grammar. This does not mean using native language all the time but especially pointing out to the similarities between native and target language can contribute a lot to the understanding of the new grammar topic. For example, in order to point out to the similarities, teachers should pay attention to the linguistic features of the target and native language. For instance, Turkish suffix “-ler” is the counterpart of plural suffix “-s” in English. Like “-s” changes into “-es” or “-ies”,

“-ler” changes into “-lar” depending on the pronunciation of the last syllable (e.g. ev-ler/araba-lar). Another example is simple past suffix “-ed”, which is similar to “-di” in Turkish. As both of these suffixes change according to the last syllabus, pointing to such similarities and helping learners to make positive transfers between languages can lead to better coding, less interference and better recalling clues.

Connecting new and old syntactic structures. Showing similarities and making positive transfers between target and native language may not always be possible or easy to point. While the previous component involved intra-relations between languages, this component involves inter-relations in the target language. As learning simply means making connections among what has been learnt and is being learnt, teachers should highlight similarities and connections in related topics. Taking advantage of the spiral design of most teaching English syllabuses, teachers should help learners to build a bridge between syntactic structures learnt before and structures newly introduced. For example during teaching past perfect continuous, when the parallelism between verb in present participle pointed, it may help learners to connect the “-ing” structure to a continuing action, meaning an action in progress in most cases. Similarly, as past participles generally refer to a finished action, this can also give a clue for learners about deducing the meaning by enabling learners to have stronger schemata and recalling clues.

Conclusion

Although limited amount of anxiety is useful, known as Yerkes-Dodson Law (Morgan, 2006), excessive level of anxiety inhibits learning and success. The relationship between anxiety and success has been studied in a great body of research and models to explain the relationship between anxiety and success, some of which complement each other, have been proposed. For example Sarason (1984) with Cognitive Interference Model focuses on the effects of negative thoughts on success and Culler and Holahan (1980) proposed Study Skills Deficit Model which focuses on the effects of poor study and exam skills as well as effects of anxiety on success (Naveh-Benjamin et. al., 1981). In addition to these models, Information Processing Model of Test Anxiety (Beck and Clark, 1997; Tobias, 1985, 1986) suggests some possible effects of anxiety on working memory leading to failure in exams. In fact, anxiety and

success is like a vicious circle; the more anxious one is the more failures s/he faces, leading to more anxiety and so on.

Especially in contexts of ELT, where English is taught as a foreign language, a special focus on teaching grammar and evaluating success with grammar tests are common. As a result, negative effects of anxiety are widely seen both during teaching, learning and test taking. MIAS proposed in this paper is a reflection of the models focusing on anxiety and success in ELT contexts like Turkey where the main focus is mostly on teaching grammar and success is decided by grammar tests. The components suggested in this paper can be the key factors to cope with anxiety as well as increasing success. Even though some activities related with the components are presented in this paper, as long as the components are kept in mind, new activities and strategies can be employed and are only limited with the imagination, expertise and needs of the teachers. With basic components, MIAS suggests some stepping stones to decrease anxiety and promote success in exams for teaching English.

MIAS has been designed for contexts of teaching English where English is taught only as a foreign language at schools, practice opportunities are rare and the focus is mostly on grammar, just like ELT in Turkey. However, although MIAS appears to be proposed for Turkey, it can be valid for other EFL contexts while teaching grammar. Also, some components can be adapted for teaching other language skills as well as tests. For example desensitization exercises can be changed into teaching reading or listening by exposing learners to a variety of tests. Therefore, in future research, teaching approaches based on reflections of MIAS can be developed, applied and tested to see the extent of the effects of MIAS. By this way, application and results of MIAS can reveal new data helping teachers share their experience, improve their teaching and help their learners.

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İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretiminde Kaygı ve Başarı için Bir Öğretim Modeli

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: Yapılan birçok araştırma yüksek sınav kaygısı seviyesinin yabancı dil öğreniminde bir engelleyici olarak etkinlik gösterdiğini ve başarı seviyesinde düşüşe neden olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmada yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretiminde dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik kaygı ve başarı için bir öğretim modeli ortaya atılmaktadır.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Modelin amacı çalışma becerileri eksikliğine, bilişsel karışıma ve bilgi işlemeye yönelik üç bileşen sunarak yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretiminde kaygı seviyesinde düşüş ve başarı düzeyinde artış sağlamaktır.

Bulgular: Bu bileşenler farklı ve birbirlerini tamamlayıcı kaygı modelleri temel alınarak ortaya atılmıştır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Bileşenler için örnek etkinlikler ile ileriki araştırmalar için öneriler çalışmanın sonunda sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kaygı, Başarı, Dilbilgisi öğretimi, Bir öğretim modeli

**Enhancing the Italian Learners' Comprehension Competence in Turkish
Proverbs and Idioms**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Foreign language learners who do not naturally come from the tradition of the language they are learning have naturally difficulties in comprehending Turkish proverbs and idioms. Comprehension problems of the Italian learners of Turkish can be various.

Purpose of Study: This study aims at presenting some suggested teaching methods for Turkish proverbs and idioms through some semantically identical Italian proverbs and idioms in order to solve the comprehension problems of Italian learners of Turkish arised from lack of grammatical, strategic, communicative and pragmatic competence.

Method: This study uses content analysis to explore whether proverbs have a significant effect on language learning. In order to do so, the author uses Turkish proverbs to find their equivalentents in Italian.

Findings: In light of the comparison between Turkish and Italian proverbs, one can easily see that the proverbs have a bearing effect on language learning and teaching.

Conclusion and Recommendations: This study will contribute to the understanding of the importance of the use of proverbs in foreign language teaching/learning. We should give importance to idioms and proverbs in foreign language teaching, since they are important part of the culture without which learning a foreign language is not

possible. However, the foreign language learners have difficulties in understanding idioms and proverbs.

Keywords: Turkish as a foreign language, Turkish proverbs, Turkish idioms, comprehension competence.

Introduction

Language is an identity of a nation. Knowing a language does not only mean knowing the rules of the language. As Wittgenstein points out “the limits of one’s language mean the limits of his language.” That is to say, through the philosophical study of language, we can identify the boundaries of philosophical thought”. The boundaries of language can be also enlarged by proverbs and idioms.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995:1136) defines the term ‘proverb’ as “a short well known statement that contains advice about life in general.” This dictionary also defines the term ‘idiom’ as “ a group a words with a meaning of its own that is different from the meanings of each separate word put together.” (1995:706).

Proverbs are created after years of experience and close observation of life and natural phenomena. Through metaphorical language, they warn, advice, or reprimand by drawing attention to the moral or ethical consequences of human behavior. Proverbs and idioms reflect emotions, thoughts, way of life, beliefs, customs and traditions of the nation to which they belong and generally appear in some routine formulas and prefabricated patterns.

There is a Turkish proverb which says “He who does not listen to proverbs remains screaming for help.” As is seen they are an important part of life and they must be taught in Turkish Language Teaching Programmes.

Foreign language learners who do not naturally come from the tradition of the language they are learning have naturally difficulties in comprehending Turkish proverbs and idioms. Comprehension problems of the Italian learners of Turkish can be listed as follows:

- Comprehension problems arise from the lack of semantic properties of figures of speech;

- The students' lack of competence in the relationship between sense and reference of an expression causes problems in comprehension of Turkish proverbs and idioms;
- Cases of homonymy and polysemy also create comprehension problems in Italian learners;
- Due to the lack of comprehension competence of Turkish proverbs and idioms, the language learners do not actually reflect them in their performative competence.

Therefore, teaching proverbs and idioms to foreign language learners needs a special importance with some functional teaching techniques.

In order to enhance the learners' linguistic competence, proverbs and idioms should be taught along with the grammar letting the foreign language learners use in meaningful contexts. They are said to be an important part of linguistic competence of speakers.

This study aims at presenting some suggested teaching techniques for Turkish proverbs and idioms through some semantically identical Italian proverbs and idioms in order to solve the comprehension problems of Italian learners of Turkish arising from a lack of grammatical competence (words and rules), sociolinguistic competence (appropriateness) and strategic competence (appropriate use of communication strategies).

By underlying the cultural similarities and differences between Turkish and Italian languages, Italian language learners of Turkish will communicate with native speakers of Turkish better. Besides, it aims at helping language teachers of Turkish with some task-based language teaching techniques.

Besides, this study takes the attention of readers to İSTANBUL, 2010 as a European Capital of Culture.

Methodology

This study aims at finding the answers of the following questions:

1. Why should we give importance to proverbs and idioms in foreign language teaching?

2. What are the plausible techniques to teach Turkish idioms and proverbs to the Italian University students?

In order to answer the above-mentioned questions, the third year Italian language learners in the Department of Turkish Language and Literature at the University of Salento have been given some Turkish proverbs and idioms based on four elements in order to detect their comprehension problems. Among the problematic ones, 40 have been selected totally. For each element 10 proverbs and idioms have been used. Then the Italian students have been given tasks to find the semantically identical Italian proverbs and idioms for the given Turkish proverbs and idioms. In order to accomplish the tasks, the students have scrutinized the proverbs and idioms with the guidance of the instructor in order to overcome inhibitions in both comprehension competence and performance competence.

This study is limited with 40 Turkish and Italian proverbs and idioms which are based on four elements of Aristoteles: fire, air, earth, and water, which forms the slogan of İstanbul 2010 as a European Capital of Culture.

Data Analysis and Discussion

The Turkish idioms and proverbs have been classified according to the four elements: air, earth, fire and water.

About Air

Idioms.

- 1) **Hava almak:** To go out to get fresh air; 2) To take in air; 3) To get nothing out of something
- 2) **Hava atmak (basmak):** Lord it over somebody; to put on airs. (To behave in a way that shows you think you are better or more important than other people.)
- 3) **Havada kalmak:** It's up in the air. (To engage in unproductive activity, see the efforts be futile and vain.)

The comprehension problem. The comprehension problem in the first three idioms arises from the figurative meaning of the word “hava” (air). This word is polysemous and pun creates the problem. The case of homonymy seems problematic, since it is not given in an appropriate context.

4) Havadan sudan konuşmak: Chinwag. (To make an informal conversation.)

The comprehension problem. The comprehension problem arises from two words, “hava” (air) and “su” (water). They are used as binary antonyms.

5) Havası olmak: To resemble someone (to look like, or be similar to, someone or something)

The comprehension problem. This idiom becomes also a problem in comprehension due to the collocation.

Proverbs.

6) Köpek havlamakla hava bulanmaz: A dog’s bark dirties not the the air. (A man who is annoyed cannot solve the problem by shouting.) It is used for defamation.

The comprehension problem. The comprehension problem arises from zoomorphsim. Because in its Italian version, an animal is not used. It is directly related with human being.

7) Rüzgara karşı tüküren kendi yüzüne tükürür: He who spits against the wind spits on his own face. (If you oppose someone or something that’s far more powerful than you are, you are bound to wind up the loser.) It is used for conformity.

The comprehension problem. The word “rüzgar” (wind) is used as a metaphor. Therefore it creates a problem in comprehension. It represents a more powerful person. “Tükürmek” is repeated twice. Through hermeneia, vain effort is indicated. This indirect suggestion also creates a problem in understanding the danger of the struggle with more powerful person.

8) Havaya göre yelken kullan: Use your sails according to the weather. (One should behave according to the situation in which he is.) It is used for conformity.

The comprehension problem. The words “hava” (air) and “yelken” (sail) are metaphors. “Hava” indicates the sitaution in which there is a person; “yelken” represents the way how he should behave.

9) Kışın geleceğini yazdan düşünmek gerek: It is important to think of winter in summer (A person who works in summer will have something to eat in winter.)

The comprehension problem. The word “gelecek” has two meanings, such as “future” and “coming”. Besides, the verb “düşünmek” (to think) here means “to do something for winter or make preparations for winter”.

10) Yazın başı pişenin, kışın aşı pişer: He whose head boils in the summer heat will have his pot boiling in the winter cold. (A person who works when he’s young will enjoy a comfortable old age.) It is used for diligence.

The comprehension problem. The semantic properties of the words “kış” (winter) and “yaz” (summer) related with the cultural values are different for the Italian students. Because in Turkish culture, field work is tiring because of the working conditions, whereas in Italy working conditions are better. Besides, the word “pişmek” (boil) is repeated twice, due to epanalepsis. Foregrounding of the word “pişmek” also causes problems, since it violates the sense of the word related with only “liquid” not with the solid. The word “Baş” is used just for the internal rhyme with the word “aş”. Consonance is also seen with the repetition of the consonant [ş].

11) Güneş girmeyen eve doktor girer: Where the sun doesn’t go, the doctor will. (The house without sun always sees illness. Sunlight is essential for good health.) It is about health.

The comprehension problem. In this proverb the comprehension problem arises from the semantic component of the word “güneş” (sun). It is because in Turkish, it subsumes “health”. The words “doktor” (doktor) and “güneş” (sun) are used as synonyms. The advice is given with two parallel clauses, one is positive, the other is negative.

About Earth

Idioms.

- 1) **Toprak olmak:** To die, to pass away
- 2) **Yerin dibine girmek:** To be embarrassed (ashamed, nervous, or uncomfortable in a social situation after an unexpected event.)
- 3) **Dünyada kalmak/olmak:** To survive

4) Dünyadan haberi olmamak/Dünyanın kaç bucak olduğunu bilmemek: To be unaware of the happenings around oneself.

5) Dünyaya getirmek: To give birth to

The comprehension problem. The comprehension problem of the above-given idioms arises from the figurative meaning of the collocated words.

Proverbs.

6) Aç kal, topal kal, kör kal, fakat topraksız kalma: Be hungry, be lame, be blind, but never be without land. It is about agriculture.

The comprehension problem. Through enumeratio where the subject “you” indirectly is divided into detailing parts, and later a consequence to make a point more forcibly, the learners are unable to understand the given opposition by “fakat” (but). The priorities of human life are listed with their antonyms in imperative structures: “aç” (hungry), “topal” (lame) and “kör” (blind). The polysemous word “toprak”(earth) creates ambiguity for the foreign learners when they miss the suggestion created by the opposition.

7) Toprak avuçlayan altın bulur: He who grasps soil, finds gold. It is about agriculture.

The comprehension problem. The ambiguity in the meaning of “toprak avuçlamak” (to grasp soil) creates the problem in the comprehension skills of the foreign language learning. Grasping soil is used in its figurative meaning. It signifies “growing crops on the land”. Besides, “altın” (gold) is the polysemous word. Gold “a valuable soft yellow metal and “money” “what we earn by working and what we spend in order to spend. The concept of the both senses indicates “cash”. Due to the lack of the concept of the sense “gold”, the learners’ comprehension skills fail.

8) Toprağı işleyen, ekmeği dişler: He who tills his field will bite bread. (He who works is the one who reaps the benefits of his labor.) It is about agriculture.

The comprehension problem. In order to create internal rhyme with “işlemek” (to till the field), dişlemek” (to bite) is used. The comprehension problem arises from the words “işlemek” and “dişlemek” which are polysemous.

9) Bir avuç altının olacağına bir avuç toprağın olsun: Instead of having a handful of gold, it is beter to have a handful of earth. (i.e. a piece of land.) It is about agriculture.

The comprehension problem. The sense of “toprak” (earth) here is used with its extra concept which signifies “real estate bringing money forever.” The lack of understanding the distinctive feature “+/- real estate” causes comprehension problems in students.

10) Düşenin dostu olmaz: Those who fall will have no friends; you just fall and see what happens. (People in trouble are deserted by their friends.) It is about adversity.

The comprehension problem. “Düşmek” (to fall down) is used in figurative meaning with the sense “to be in trouble.”

About Fire

Idioms.

1) Ateşe körükle gitmek: To add fuel to the fire/flames. (To make a situation a lot worse than it was already)

2) Ateşe atmak (kendini, birini): (To put somebody in a difficult situation)

3) Ateş basmak: (Increasing the temperature of the body with blood pressure because of boredom or difficulty.)

4) Çapraz ateş altında olmak: To be caught in the crossfire. (To be involved in a situation in which other people are arguing, when one does not want to be.)

5) Ateş hattı: Firing line/ To be in the firing line. (To be in a situation or position in which one can be attacked or blamed for something, often unfairly.)

The comprehension problem. The comprehension problems arise from the different uses of the sense of ateş” (fire) belonging to different part of speech created by collocations. “ateş” (fire): a simple noun; 2. “ateş” (fire): a simple noun; 3. “ateş basmak” (to increase the temperature of the body): a verb; 4. “çaprazateş” (crossfire). A compound noun; 5. “ateş hattı” (firing line): a compound noun. In all idioms, the sense of “fire” is used with the concept of “difficulty”. However, different uses of parts of speech may inhibit the foreign language learners’ communicative competence.

Proverbs.

6) Ateş kış gününün meyvesidir: Fire is the fruit of a winter day. It is about similarity.

The comprehension problem. The problem first arises from the figurative use of “meyve” (fruit) as a thing possessed by “kış günü” (winter). Besides, “kış günü” (winter day) is also problematic with the concept of “being too cold”.

7) Kadını hamarat eden ateştir: What makes a woman industrious is the fireplace. It is about woman.

The comprehension problem. This proverb is related with Turkish cultural sensitivity. Culinary skills generally are related with female people. The lack of the students’ schemata about “fire” with the concept of “cooking” causes a comprehension problem.

8) Ateş ateşle söndürülmez: Fire cannot be extinguished with fire. (Anger does not solve the problem.) It is about revenge.

The comprehension problem. Apophasis creates a problem here. It is because invoking the extinguishing fire is denied by its invocation with the same concept “anger”. When the students miss the concept of the sense “fire”, they are unable to comprehend the proverb.

9) Altın ateşte, insan mihnette belli olur: As gold is tested by fire, so man is tested by suffering. It is about trying.

The comprehension problem. Ellipsis of “belli olur” with the concept of “being tried” creates a problem in comprehension.

10) Ateşten korkan tütünden sakınır/kaçar: He who fears fire flinches from tobacco. It is about fear.

The comprehension problem. The sense of “tütün” (tobacco) contains the concept of flammable. The lack of this concept in the schemata of the learners creates a problem in their comprehension competence.

About Water

Idioms.

1) **Su koyvermek:** Not to keep promises, to leave something unfinished.

The comprehension problem. The figurative meaning of “su” (water) is nothing to do with the literal meaning “water”. Besides, the verb “koymak” appears in “koyvermek with the omission of vowel in blending. (koymak+vermek).

2) **Su yüzü görmemiş:** One who is very dirty, one who has not taken a shower for a long time.

The comprehension problem. The concept of “water” subsumes “cleanliness”. The figurative meaning is directly related with the lack of this concept in somebody. The compound of “su yüzü” standing for “su” (water) seems misleading for the learners, since they are apt to understand the compound noun word by word.

3) **Su yüzüne çıkmak:** To become apparent.

The comprehension problem. The concept of “being apparent” with the figurative use of “su yüzü” (the surface of the water) cannot be understood by the learners.

4) **Sucuk gibi ıslanmak:** To be soaked to the skin, heavily.

The comprehension problem. The students are unable to relate the concept “being soaked” to “sucuk” due to the lack of its production process. Therefore, the use of simile with the construction “like sucuk (sweetmeat made of grape juice and nuts)” has a problem for the learners.

5) **Sulu göz:** One who is always ready to cry.

The comprehension problem. The attribute “sulu” (watery) used for the head “göz” (eye) misleads the learner in understanding the figurative meaning with the concept “being always ready to cry”.

Proverbs.

6) Su akarken testiği doldurmalıdır: The pitcher should be filled while the water is flowing. (We should use the opportunities appropriately.) It is about opportunity

The comprehension problem. The concept of “testi” (the pitcher) is used with its figurative meaning of “making use of”. The flowing water also signifies “opportunity. Since this suggestion cannot be clear in the learners’ comprehension competence, they are unable to use in their performative competence appropriately.

7) Suyun yavaş akanından, insanın yere bakanından kork: Beware water that flows slowly and a man who looks down when speaking. (A person who is silent and is not reflective enough resembles water running slowly, which is deep and dangerous.) It is about appearance and trust.

The comprehension problem. The suggestion is given two parallel structures with the omission of the imperative form of the verb “kork” (beware). A comparison between a silent person and a slowly running water with an indirect simile causes a comprehension problem in the imperative sentence.

8) Akan su yosun tutmaz. Akan su pislik tutmaz: Running water gathers no moss. (An active person gets even more effective.) It is about diligence.

The comprehension problem. The concept “diligence” is given by “running water”; and the concept “effectiveness” is reflected by “not gathering moss”. The comprehension of these concepts are problematic for the learners, since they are unable to relate the concepts to a diligent, studious person.

9) Rüzgarın ardı yağış, sevincin ardı dögüş: The end of wind is rain and the end of joy is fight. It is about weather.

The comprehension problem. The parallelism is created by the word “ardı” (after). The learners are unable to understand the sense of “ardı”, which is the synonym of “sonra” (after).

10) Eşegi düğüne çağırılmışlar, “Ya su lazımdır ya odun” demiş: When the ass was invited to a wedding, he said “They must need someone to carry either water or wood.

(A reference to the least important man, the low man on the totem pole, who is unexpectedly treated kindly because his service is necessary.) It is about guests.

The comprehension problem. Personification creates a comprehension problem, since the speech ability of the human being is applied to an “ass” and also is presented in a narration. Besides, as a concept of “su” (water) and “odun” (wood), “the load” of the ass is indicated for its service. This concept is not clearly understood by the learners.

Some Suggested Task-Based Teaching Techniques

The comprehension competence of the Italian learners can be enhanced through common Italian idioms and proverbs. In order to teach idioms and proverbs better, communicative tasks play an important role. As Nunan (1989) points out “ A communicative task is ‘a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.’”The learners may be asked to make a list of them as a task. Below some tasks related with the problematic idioms and proverbs are presented. The first task is an example for listing, sorting, and classifying to improve both grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, whereas the second one is an information gap activity for developing strategic competence of the learners.

A List of the Common Italian Idioms and Proverbs about Four Elements of Aristoteles

The university students have been asked to scrutinize semantically identical Italian idioms and proverbs based on four elements with the problematic Turkish idioms and proverbs. Then in groups of five, they have listed, sorted, and classified as follows:

About Air

Idioms.

- 1) Prendere una boccata d'aria
- 2) Darsi delle arie
- 3) Seminare al vento

- 4) Parlare di aria fritta
- 5) Novità nell'aria

Proverbs.

- 6) Chi troppo abbaia si riempie il corpo di vento.
- 7) Chi sputa in cielo se l'aspetti in faccia.
- 8) Marinaio guarda in aria.
- 9) Chi canta d'estate, piange d'inverno.
- 10) Un'arietta di fuoco fa bene anche d'estate. Val più una boccata d'aria la mattina che una medicina.

About Earth

Idioms.

- 1) Andare a far terra per ceci
- 2) Fare terra bruciata
- 3) Essere al mondo
- 4) Essere fuori dal mondo
- 5) Mettere al mondo

Proverbs.

- 6) La terra, o bene o male, è un capitale.
- 7) La zappa ha la bocca d'oro.
- 8) Dalla terra viene il pane. Terra, zappa e contadino danno pane e danno vino.
- 9) I soldi son di carta ma la terra è d'oro.
- 10) Quando sei per terra non ti resta che tirarti su.

About Fire

Idioms.

- 1) Mettere fuoco
Mettere benzina sul fuoco

2) Buttarsi nel fuoco

Gettarsi nel fuoco

3) Diventare di fuoco

Farsi di fuoco

4) Essere sotto un fuoco incrociato

Essere sotto tiro incrociato

5) Fuoco di fila

Proverbs.

6) L'inverno al fuoco, l'estate al sole.

7) Chi non è buono a fare il fuoco, non è buono a far l'amore.

8) Non bisogna aggiungere fuoco a fuoco.

9) Con il fuoco si prova l'oro, con l'oro la donna e con la donna l'uomo.

10) Chi attizza il fuoco fa uscire le scintille.

About Water

Idioms.

1) Fare promesse da marinaio

2) Non aver mai visto l'acqua

3) Venire a galla

4) Essere bagnato come un pulcino

5) Avere le lacrime in tasca

Proverbs.

6) Raccogli l'acqua quando piove.

Riempi l'anfora quando hai l'acqua.

7) L'acqua cheta fa crollare i ponti.

L'acqua cheta rovina i ponti.

8) Acqua che cammina non imputridisce.

Acqua che cammina non si riscalda.

Acqua che non si muove puzza.

9) Dopo il vento viene l'acqua.

10) L'asino porta il vino ma beve acqua.

The above given list prepared by the university learners is supposed to enhance their comprehension competence, since they have scrutinized and listed the common Italian idioms and proverbs by comparing and sorting.

Another Suggested Task-Based Activity

Below a dialogue has been given with some missing parts. In order to fill in the information gap, the University students of Turkish have been asked to write in missing idioms or proverbs which are related with four elements.

Dialogue

Can : Merhaba.

Canan: Merhaba.

Can : Bugün uygunsan bana tarla almaya gidebilir miyiz?

Canan : Çok başım ağrıyor.

Can : Geçmiş olsun! Neden?

Canan : Dün çok yağmur yağıyordu. Şemsiyemi yanıma almayı unutmuştum.

.....

Aklıma gelmişken sormadan edemeyeceğim. Neden tarla almak istiyorsun?

Can : Atalarımızı dinliyorum. Ne diyor atasözü

“.....”

Canan : Evet doğru.

Can : Ancak biraz paraya da gereksinimim olacak. Babamdan istedim. Ama borç vermeye yanaşmadı ve kızdı. Ben de kızdım.

Canan:

Can : Haklısın.

Canan: Peki sonunda ne dedi? Parayı verecek mi?

Can : Bilmiyorum.

In the above dialogue, in order not to violate the coherence and cohesion, the learners have to find out appropriate idioms and proverbs. This task helps them to use them appropriately in real communicative event with native speakers of Turkish, as well.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we should give importance to idioms and proverbs in foreign language teaching, since they are important part of the culture without which learning a foreign language is not possible. However, the foreign language learners have difficulties in understanding idioms and proverbs.

In order to enhance the comprehension competence of the Italian language learners of Turkish, the learners have been asked to scrutinize and classify semantically identical Turkish and Italian idioms and proverbs based on four elements. Therefore, their enhanced comprehension competence seems to have triggered their performance competence, as well. In teaching idioms and proverbs, it has been seen that the concept of the “sense” plays an important role instead of the individual “word study”. It is because ambiguity is always created by homonymy and polysemy. Thus, the learners should be taught figures of speech in meaningful contexts, which will help them to overcome comprehension problems and improve their performance competence.

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İtalyan Öğrencilerin Türkçe Atasözleri ve Deyimler Üzerine Anlama Yeterliklerinin Geliştirilmesi

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: Bu çalışma, Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen İtalyan Üniversite öğrencilerinin Türkçe'deki deyim ve atasözlerini öğrenirken, dilbilgisel, iletişimsel ve kullanım yetilerininin yetersizliğinden kaynaklanan sorunlarının İtalyanca'da anlamsal benzerlik taşıyan atasözleri ve deyimler yoluyla öğretilerek çözümlenebileceği önerisi getirilmektedir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Çalışmanın amacı, yabancı dil öğretiminde ve öğreniminde, atasözleri ve deyimleri kullanmanın önemini kavramaya katkıda bulunmaktır.

Araştırma Yöntemi: Bu çalışmada Türkçe ve İtalyanca'da etkin olarak kullanılan atasözleri incelenerek "içerik analizi" yöntemi uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular: Elde edilen bulgular, her iki dildeki atasözlerin birbirleriyle benzerik gösterdiğini ve dil öğrencilerinin bu atasözlerini kullanmada son derece yatkın oldukları sonucunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Dilin yaşayan bir unsur olduğundan hareketle, yabancı dil öğreniminde atasözlerini vurgulamak ve atasözlerin öğrenciler tarafından kullanılmasına yardımcı olmak dil öğrencilerinin hedef dili etkin bir şekilde kullanması noktasında son derece yararlı olacaktır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretimi, Türk atasözleri Türkçe deyimler, kavrama yetisi.

EFL Learners' Use of ICT for Self-Regulated Learning

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Abstract

Problem Statement: The notions of autonomy and independence possess an increasingly important role in language pedagogy by raising issues such as learners' responsibility for their own learning, and their right to determine the direction of their own learning, the skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning and capacity for independent learning and the extents to which this can be suppressed by institutional education.

Purpose of Study: This study attempted to enrich our understanding of language learners' self-initiated use of information and communication technologies (ICT) from the language learning perspective.

Methods: The participants were 399 language learners who were attending the intensive English language preparatory program at the Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus. The study was based on a survey which consisted of demographic and language learning backgrounds of the participants, and likert-scale questions on participants' self-initiated use of ICT for language learning. The data collected were validated through factor analyses. Beside descriptive analyses, chi-square and t-test were also used to

reveal the associations between demographic variables and different dimensions of ICT use in self-regulated language learning.

Findings and Results: An obvious finding to emerge from this study is that there are no statistically significant differences regarding the male and female participants' use of ICT for self-regulated learning, and between language levels of the learners. Considering the responses, the learners mostly use ICT to practice listening, vocabulary and writing skills.

Conclusions and Recommendations: The overall outcome of the study points to the need for learner training, teacher support and guidance for an effective use of ICT for self regulation of language learning.

Keywords: EFL, ICT, technology enhanced language pedagogy, self-regulated learning

Introduction

The concepts of learner autonomy, learner independence, self-access learning, self-paced learning and self-regulated learning underscore a transition of attention to the learner-oriented approach to language pedagogy. Furthermore, these learning contexts, varying in the degree of learner autonomy afforded to learners, are regarded as the core concepts of contemporary pedagogical perspectives under the effect of lifelong and individualized learning (Bandura, 1997; Benson, 2006). Dickinson (1987, p. 11) explains such self-instruction contexts as 'situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher'. Correspondingly, Little (2000, p.69) posits that *autonomy* refers to 'assuming responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of [one's] learning'.

The prominent traits of learner autonomy can be best described as moving the focus from teaching to learning (Lacey, 2007), implementing self/peer assessment, and self-regulated learning. In addition, autonomy for the language learners has been described as 'a process that enables learners to recognize and assess their own needs, to choose and apply their own learning strategies or styles eventually leading to the effective management of learning' (Penaflorida, 2002, p. 346). Hence, the topics of autonomy and independence play an increasingly important role in language education by raising issues such as learners' responsibility for their own learning, and their right to determine the direction of their own learning, the skills which can be learned and

applied in self-directed learning and capacity for independent learning and the extents to which this can be suppressed by institutional education (Finch, 2001). Previous studies have established that self-regulated skills can foster learning from/considering any instructional method (see Ertmer, Newby, & MacDougall, 1996; Lindner & Harris, 1998; Weinstein, 1989; Zimmerman, 2000).

Self-Regulated Learning

A couple of decades ago, the attention of research in the field of language education turned to individual differences among learners (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003). The attempts under identifying the characteristics of “good language learners” aimed to define some behaviors and techniques that could be imposed to the rest of the learning community. The context of individualized instruction promoted the idea that learners should regulate their own learning processes. Thus, self-regulated learning (SRL) has emerged as an important construct in education (Boekaerts, 1999) and is now seen as an important aspect of students’ academic performance and achievement in the classroom (Hofer, Yu, & Pintrich, 1998). The definitions of the SRL in the literature generally focuses on notions such as ‘constructive and self-directed process’ (Winne, 1995), ‘an individual’s ability and motivation to implement learning strategies (Ertmer et al., 1996), and a motivation triggering mental aspect (Chang & Wu, 2003). While Bandura (2001) perceives self-regulation as the process by which individuals exercise their agency, Leaver, Ehrman and Shekhtman (2005) defines it as the process by which learners both exercise and develop learner autonomy. The self-regulated learning strategies such as monitoring, controlling and regulating one’s cognitive activities and behaviors (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994) have all been used to help students develop a sense of personal control, which is believed to be a major source of intrinsic motivation to continue learning on their own (Zimmerman, 1995).

Self-regulation of learning, which is a process by which learners direct and coordinate their efforts, thoughts, and feelings in order to achieve their learning goals (Zimmerman, 2000), is also considered as a goal by language teachers (Healey, 2002). Relatively, the outcomes of the language research on the motivating effect of technology demonstrated that learners become selfdirective and very active in technology supported environments (Gale, 1991; Watts & Lloyd, 2001).

Out of class learning is perceived as an important predictor of self-regulated learning (Lai & Gu, 2011). Existing studies of out-of-class language learning have indicated that second language learners involve in a variety of learning activities outside the classroom (Freeman, 1999; Zimmerman, 2000). Lai and Gu (2011) point out that out-of-class language learning activities such as TV, radio, and movies have been found to serve a variety of functions in shaping a positive learner identity, maintaining motivation for learning (Lamb, 2007), providing learners with a supportive learning community, offering learners a place for self-expression, and enhancing their self-perception (Gao, 2009). However, the research in out-of-class language learning is still lack of providing the landscape of learners' self-initiated use of technology for language learning purposes.

Out of Class Language Learning via Technology

The reason for focusing on the technological venues and resources for out-of-class language learning is that technology holds great educational potentials for language learning (Thorne et al., 2009; Zhao & Lai, 2007). As a result of the advancements in the media combining learning and entertainment, imbedding language learning endeavour in out-of-class time becomes a preference for many students. Out-of-class language learning activities are basically the acts of the learners for improving their language skills outside of the classroom. Benson (2001) focuses on self-instruction as a prominent part of out-of-class learning. She describes self-instruction as an environment where learners locate 'resources' to help them improve the target language. Information Communication Technologies (ICT) may be seen as the main referent of the term 'resources' mentioned above.

Technology is an ill-defined concept that encompasses a wide range of tools, artifacts, and practices though (Zhao, 2003); the role of ICT in fostering autonomy has been vaunted over the years, with a number of claims made in favor of technology-enhanced language learning (Healey, 2002). Those claims include that ICT, especially multimedia, supports different learning styles; that computers and the Internet provide a wealth of resources to independent learners; and that certain software packages can offer a complete curriculum for language learning. Correspondingly, previous studies have established an association between home ICT use and learning outcomes (Beltran, Das, & Fairlie, 2006; Lam, 2000; 2004). However, some of the research previously

conducted suggest that contemporary students are not using technology or perceiving the value of emerging technology (especially the communication and Web 2.0 media) for language learning outside school (Winke & Goertler, 2008; Zhang, 2010). Self-regulated learning enhanced through ICT may help learners realize that their contribution to the teaching-learning process is crucial and also encourages them to take an active role in their own learning (Healey, 2002).

The existing literature has a lot to offer in terms of the educational power of individual technologies, efficacy of pedagogical uses of individual technologies, design of technology-enhanced learning environments, and users' reactions to technology-enhanced teaching and learning experiences (Lai & Gu, 2011). Considering the large amount and variety of technological resources available to enable learners to engage with the language on their own, it is important to understand how language learners are using technology to regulate their language learning experience. However, there is still lack of research considering learners' autonomous use of technology for language learning in the current literature.

Surveying 911 beginner-level foreign language students at an American university on their use and perceptions of technology for language learning, Winke and Goertler (2008) found that the students' use of technology for language learning was restrained. Furthermore, students were generally found to lack the appropriate literacy to use technologies for language learning purposes, and few students in their study (less than 25%) realized the language learning potentials of the various technologies they used frequently in their daily lives. Zhang (2010) found that the university EFL learners in China did use technology to support their language learning (an average of 13.23 hours per week). However, similar to Winke and Goertler's (2008) findings, the students' use of technology was very limited. Gai and Liu (2011) argue that the limited research in out-of-class language learning via ICT is not satisfying in terms of purporting the complex nature of technology use.

Among other factors, the concept of self-efficacy, as proposed by Bandura (1977), is argued to be a determining dynamic in computer self-efficacy. Referring to the literature, including several studies conducted in Turkey, Topkaya (2010) highlights the findings supporting this argument. The findings in Topkaya's study were largely consistent with those of previous research in that the participants' perceptions of

computer self-efficacy were closely related to how they perceived their general self-efficacy.

Investigating university level Turkish EFL learners' readiness for learner autonomy, Yildirim (2008), examined 103 learners' perceptions of their abilities to act autonomously. The study found that the majority of the participants engage in outside class learning activities, including those using ICT tools, which can be considered as the signs of autonomous behavior. The study also revealed that students who have a positive approach to their abilities to behave autonomously reported to have been performing more autonomous behavior in their self-regulated learning.

Considering the situation in North Cyprus, Serin (2012) analyzed ICT (mobile learning technologies in particular) perceptions and levels of university students, with specific focus on the factors of major of study and gender. The study found that the participants' mobile learning perception levels were low and there was no significant difference according to the department and gender variables. In another study, Hussein (2010) looked at the attitudes and behaviours of undergraduate students towards motivation and technology in a foreign language learning classroom. According to the results of the study, although the participants reported technological facilities have a positive effect on their classroom performance and learning, some stated they struggle to accept technology due to the insufficient use of technology tools in their classroom and self-learning practices.

This study attempted to enrich our understanding of language learners' self-initiated use of technology from language learning perspective. Examining the nature of language learners' selective use of technology on their own to regulate the various aspects of their language learning experience, this study utilized the following research questions to collect data:

- (1) Is there any difference between male and female students regarding ICT use to regulate their language learning experience outside the classroom?
- (2) Is there any difference between elementary/preintermediate and intermediate/advanced level students regarding ICT use to regulate their language learning experience outside the classroom?
- (3) Which language skills are mostly practiced through ICT at out-of-class time?
- (4) What are common ICT environments used by the participants for SRL purposes?

- (5) How do the language learners use technology to regulate their language learning experience outside the classroom?

Method

Participants

The participants were 399 language learners who were attending intensive English language preparatory program at the Eastern Mediterranean University. All the participants were young adults studying intensive English at the Prep School prior to starting their major at their academic departments. Fifty-three percent of the participants were female and forty-seven percent were male. The participants fell into two distinct groups regarding their levels of English: elementary and intermediate. Intermediate is the exit level and the students have to complete this level in order to go to their departments.

Of the 399 participants, 362 (91%) filled in the Turkish version of the questionnaire (see Appendix 1), while 37 (9%) filled in the English version (see Appendix 2). Of those who chose to respond to the English version stated the following languages as their mother tongue: Arabic, Azeri, Kurdish, Persian, Tajik, Kyrgyz, Georgian, Kazakh, and Russian. The average age of the participants was 19.3 years. The participants were from diverse disciplinary backgrounds, with only 6% from a language and culture study background.

Materials

The study was based on a survey, adapted from Lai and Gu (2009) with a written consent, consisted of two sections: (1) demographic and language learning backgrounds (e.g. age, gender, language level, ICT competency, language skills for which ICT used, preferred use of ICT for language studies, etc.) (2) 28 Likert-scale questions on students' self-initiated use of technology for language learning. These items were all on a scale from one, strongly disagree, to five, strongly agree. The instrument was pilot tested on six foreign language learners at this university for their understanding of each item in the survey, and then in on 12 foreign language learners to determine the time needed to complete the survey and for additional issues concerning the survey. Rephrasing of survey items and reformatting of the survey was done based on the pilot tests.

Procedure

Prior to the actual use, adapted survey was translated into Turkish and re-translated into the English for validation issues. Two language experts checked the consistency of the translations. After revising the forms, the surveys in English and Turkish were administered in the spring of 2012. The survey was delivered to the students in a face to face mode. As a result, 399 students completed the survey. The students were purposively sampled from the high-user, medium-user, and low-user groups based on their survey responses so as to obtain a comprehensive view of the reasons behind their selective use or non-use of technologies for language learning.

Data analyses

The data collected on students' self-reported use of technology in self-regulating their language learning were validated through exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis is used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors. (Büyüköztürk, 2002). However factor analysis may not be appropriate for all data sets. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient is a key to decide on the applicability of the factor analysis. Relatively, *Bartlett's test of sphericity* tests whether the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that the factor model is inappropriate. A KMO value over than .60 and the significance of the Barlett test meet the assumptions of factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2002).

Results (KMO=0.94; $X^2 = 4075,627$; $sd=378$; $p= 0.00$) indicated that data set is legible to undergo a factor analysis. Veriler üzerinde temel bileşenler analizi yapılmıştır. Principal Component analysis conducted on the data revealed that the scale includes 1 factor with a 45.53 value of explained variance. After removing the items with low communality (9, 11, 15, 19, 21), a further factor analysis was conducted. The final version of the scale is observed as having one factor and 23 items. Briefly, factor analysis results pointed out that the adopted scale is valid to measure the ICT use of tertiary level students to self-regulate their language learning. The overall Cronbach's Alpha value for the likert-scale items was found out as .97 which means a high inner consistency of the gathered data. Beside descriptives, chi-square and t-test were used to

reveal the associations between demographic variables and different dimensions of technology use in selfregulating language learning.

Findings

This section elaborates on the findings of the current study as a result of the statistical procedures followed. Addressing the first and second research questions, independent samples t-test analyses were conducted to compare the mean scores for the gender and language level within each group. Table 1 depicts groups' responses toward the scale.

Table 1

Participant t-test results in terms of gender and language level

	Mean	Sd	t	p
Male Participants	107.04	19.57	1.55	.194
Female Participants	104.04	16.94		
Low level participants	99.76	18.21	-1.49	.948
Upper level participants	105.36	17.80		

The results indicated that there are no statistically significant differences regarding the male and female participants' use of ICT for self-regulated learning, and between low and upper levels of learners ($p < .05$).

The participants were also inquired on their self-efficacy on using ICTs for general and language learning purposes. The results indicated that while respondents perceive themselves able in using ICTs for leisure purposes, they do have some concerns on their ICT related skills for improving their foreign language learning abilities. The following table depicts students' perceptions on the language skills practiced using ICTs for regulating their language learning experience.

Table 2

The skills practiced using ICT for self-regulated language learning

Skill	%
Listening	70.7
Vocabulary	59.1
Writing	58.1
Speaking	54.9
Reading	41.1
Grammar	38.3

Regarding the language skills, the participants reported they used the ICT and benefited from it to practice listening, vocabulary and writing the most. Speaking, reading and grammar were reported to be practiced the least. In addition to the language skills practice, the participants were also given a list of uses of ICT and were asked to tick the ones they practiced. They were told they could tick more than one use. The following table portrays the respondents' use of ICT for regulating their language learning process.

Table 3

Students' use of various ICT media for self-regulated language learning

Items	f	%
Surfing the websites on Internet	181	45.4
Using audio and video sharing websites, like YouTube	187	46.9
Watching DVD movies (with subtitles in the foreign language)	232	58.1
Watching DVD movies (with subtitles in your mother language)	198	49.6
Watching TV programs in the foreign language	182	45.6
Listening to music in the foreign language on music players, like iPod and mp3	203	50.9
Communicating with people in the foreign language on social network sites, like Facebook and MySpace	235	58.9
Communicating with people in the foreign language by using chat programs, like MSN and Skype	121	30.3
Reading books, magazines, newspapers, etc. in the foreign language	226	56.6

The top uses were *communicating with people in the foreign language on social network sites, like Facebook and MySpace*, and *watching DVD movies (with subtitles in the foreign language)*; the use reported to be employed the least was *communicating with people in the foreign language by using chat programs, like MSN and Skype*. Considering that the top uses entail writing and listening skills, and the least reported use requiring speaking, it can be concluded that the responses supported the ones given for the common uses of ICT for practicing particular language skills the most, i.e., listening and writing; while reading and speaking was among the ones practiced the least.

Use of ICT for Self-Regulated Learning Experience

The effect of the six factors identified by Lai and Gu (2011) for self-regulated learning was the major focus of investigation in this study. These six factors included using technology for goal commitment regulation, metacognitive regulation, resource regulation, cultural learning regulation, social regulation and affection regulation.

Looking at the participants' responses to the items under these six categories, it was observed that all the factors seem to have been perceived positively. Table 4 below lists the factors as they are perceived by the participants, from the most positive to the least.

Table 4

How do students make use of ICT for self regulated learning?

Type of regulation	Mean	Sd
Goal commitment	3.89	0.90
Affective	3.72	1.02
Social connection	3.71	1.02
Resource	3.70	1.18
Metacognitive	3.69	1.01
Culture learning	3.16	1.01

Note: Mean values are based on a 5-item Likert scale (5-strongly agree; 4-agree; 3-not sure; 2-disagree; 1-strongly disagree)

Looking at these six factors, the participants reported positive perception of and engagement with the use of technology for goal commitment and affective regulation. Following that, social connection regulation, and resource regulation were reported to be less positive. And finally, the participants' response to the use of technology to monitor their learning and to enhance their cultural learning was the least positive (see Table 5 below for details of the responses).

Table 5

Responses of the students toward the ICT use for self-regulated language learning scale

Items	SA + A	Not Sure	DA + SD	P
Goal Commitment Regulation				
1. ICTs are important sources and tools to maintain my interest in achieving my language learning goal.	301	74	28	.001
2. I believe ICTs can help me continue in reaching my ultimate goal in learning the language.	299	110	40	.001
3. I believe ICTs can help me achieve my language learning goals more quickly and efficiently.	292	83	23	.001
Affective Regulation				
4. When I feel bored with learning the language, I use ICTs to decrease the boredom and increase the enjoyment.	270	90	49	.001
5. I use ICTs to make the task of language learning more attractive to me.	243	107	49	.001
6. I feel ICTs effectively maintain my interest and enthusiasm in learning the language.	227	115	55	.001
7. When I start to resist learning the language, I use ICTs to help myself regain the interest and enthusiasm.	212	127	60	.001
Social Connection Regulation				
8. ICTs help to make my language learning a relaxing process.	248	105	45	.001
9. ICTs make me enjoy learning the language more.	246	104	39	.001
10. I use ICTs to increase the time I spend on learning the language.	251	102	46	.001
11. I use ICTs to connect with native speakers of the language.	255	103	41	.001
12. I use ICTs to connect with other learners all over the world.	251	101	46	.001
13. I use ICTs to search for encouragement and support from other learners of the language.	269	80	50	.001
Resource Regulation				
14. When I feel I need more learning resources in the language, I use ICTs to expand my resources.	289	87	23	.001
15. I use ICTs to increase my learning experience outside the language classroom.	320	56	23	.001
16. I use ICTs to create and increase opportunities to learn and use the language.	284	90	35	.001
17. I use ICTs to search for learning resources and opportunities to help achieve my goals.	274	80	44	.001
18. I search for attractive language learning materials and experience delivered by ICTs.	271	91	37	.001
Metacognitive Regulation				
19. I know how to use ICTs to effectively monitor myself to achieve the learning goals at	222	130	47	.001

each stage.				
20. I plan learning tasks to do outside of school that involve the use of ICTs.	217	124	55	.001
21. I plan relevant materials to do outside of school that involve the use of ICTs.	231	126	50	.001
22. I adjust my language learning goals using ICTs.	239	119	37	.001
23. I am satisfied with the way I use ICTs to help myself continue in reaching my learning goals.	236	114	49	.001
24. I set sub-goals for the next stage of learning in the light of how much I can understand and produce when using ICTs to acquire information or communicate with others.	236	122	40	.001
25. For the areas that I am weak in, I know how to select and use appropriate ICTs to improve the areas.	243	110	45	.001
Culture Learning Regulation				
26. I use ICTs to help myself to increase my ability to interact with the target culture.	245	110	42	.001
27. I use ICTs to help myself understand and appreciate the target culture better.	246	105	47	.001
28. I use ICTs to search for answers to my questions about the language and culture.	248	97	53	.001

All the chi-square goodness of fit test results showed significance which means a rejection of the possibility that no association exists between the independent and dependent variables. Thus we can conclude that the sample data are consistent. The items related to regulating learning for committing goals indicate that majority of the students perceive ICTs as important sources and tools to achieve their language learning goals. A notable outcome in this category is that nearly one fourth of the respondents declared their indecisiveness on the importance of the technology related media on their language learning process. The results portrayed above also point out that comparing to the rates in goal commitment regulation, students responded less positively toward the use of ICT for affective regulation of their language learning. In terms of exploiting ICT for enhancing social connection within language learning perspective, many of the students declared their positive efforts to regulate their social learning through ICTs. Students also indicated a highly positive attitude on their use of ICT for regulating their language learning resources which corresponds to one of the leading roles of ICT in language learning pedagogy. Exemplifying the respondents' perceptions in favour of the resource regulation, a vast majority (320 students) of them agreed that they use ICTs to increase their learning experience outside the language classroom. The metacognitive regulation category, which is the most crowded one, includes seven statements on the use of ICTs in self-regulated learning. Comparatively, the rates clearly point out that students perceive the role of ICTs for self monitoring their learning not as important as the previously mentioned categories such as goal commitment and resource regulation. It is also apparent that the rates of those who checked the *not sure* option is higher than

the other item categories. As the last group of the statements in the scale, using ICTs for self-regulating culture learning through language learning was not considered as solidly important from the perspectives of the participants. The following section will elaborate on the findings of the current study in comparison with the existing research in the field.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study was set out to determine university level language learners' use of information and communication technologies for self-regulated learning (SRL) which is the theoretical framework to conduct the current research due to the close association between SRL and technology-enhanced learning underlined throughout the literature (Bernacki, Aguilar, & Byrnes, 2011; Lai & Gu, 2009; Steffens, 2006). As a motive in attempting to explore EFL learners' use of ICTs for self-initiated language learning, Hannafin and Hannafin (2010) claims that technology-supported learning environments are well used by learners with self-regulated learning abilities, and SRL promotes learning outcomes.

This study has found that generally the technological profiles of the participants in the current study are in accordance with those reported in previous studies (Lai & Gu, 2009; Winke & Goertler, 2008; Zhang, 2010). The results showed that although participants do have some limitations about the use of technology for language learning, they perceive themselves competent in general technological proficiency. The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that there are no statistically significant differences regarding the male and female participants' use of ICT for self-regulated learning, and between elementary and intermediate levels of learners.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study. First of all, the results reveal that learners do use ICT in their out-of-class learning activities, employing it to regulate different aspects of their language learning experience. This shows that ICT has its role as an engaging tool in supplementing language learning process. Thus, the findings of this study are in line with the findings Lai and Gu (2009) report. Considering the responses, it seems that the learners in this study use ICT to practice listening, vocabulary and writing skills the most. Speaking, on the other hand, along with reading and grammar, was reported to be practiced the least. This might indicate either learners' unwillingness to practice speaking (as it seems to be the least developed

skill among most Turkish learners) or lack of access to the sources available to practice speaking (e.g., recording and playing back, communicating with other users via synchronous/ asynchronous communication tools).

The second major finding was that in this study, it has been found that the participating students benefit from ICTs to regulate different aspects of their language learning experience, using ICTs especially to help reach their language learning goals and to motivate themselves by making language learning and enjoyable process with the help of ICT tools. The learners in this study also seem to be employing ICTs as a resource to supplement their learning process, as well as using them to connect with other learners to practice and improve their language skills.

The results in this study also reveal the learners' selective use of ICT. Considering the least practiced skills, such as speaking, and the least employed regulation of ICT, i.e., metacognitive regulation and culture learning, it can be argued that the learners seem to avoid certain uses of ICT. While there may be possible factors explaining learners' tendency to employ ICT to practice certain skills and avoid some others, the situation points to the need for learner training and teacher support and guidance.

As in the study conducted by Lai and Gu (2009), the evidence from this study suggests that instructors do have a critical role in supporting their students in use of ICTs outside the classroom to regulate their language learning. The role of language teacher includes providing information on current technologies and resources to the language learners. Correspondingly, Lai and Gu (2009) maintain that the crucial thing is to encourage and support the learners as an important part of their language curriculum so as to help them reap the advantages of ICTs to promote their language learning. In effect, various researchers have argued for the importance of such preparation and support in effective technology use (Blake, 2008; Hoven, 2006; Winke & Goertler, 2008), and some studies have already yielded positive evidence for the efficacy of learner training in the effective use of online resources and enhanced learning outcomes (O'Bryan, 2008; Romeo & Hubbard, 2008).

These outcomes of the current study also suggest that learner training, not only in language learning beliefs (Ellis, 2008; Ewald, 2004), but also in metacognitive knowledge about technology-enhanced language learning, is much needed to encourage

students to use technology actively to support their language learning. More research efforts are needed to determine what sort of training is needed and how it should be carried out. More research is needed to look at whether the same pattern holds for different cultural contexts and different student populations. The main limitation of this study is the lack of qualitative data elaborating on participants' thoughts and experiences on the pros and cons of utilizing ICT for out of class learning. The further research is encouraged to triangulate the data with the language teachers and parents for various levels of language learners including K12 for whom there are plenty of ICT resources to be used in language learning.

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Yabancı Dil olarak İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Öz-düzenleyici Öğrenme Amaçlı Bilgi ve İletişim Teknolojileri Kullanımları

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: Bu çalışma öğrencilerin bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini öz-düzenleyici öğrenme amaçlı kullanım boyutlarını ele almaktadır.

Araştırmanın Amacı: öğrencilerin bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini öz-düzenleyici öğrenme amaçlı kullanım unsurlarını dil öğretimi açısından incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır

Araştırma Yöntemi: Çalışmanın katılımcıları Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyetinde (KKTC) bulunan Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi hazırlık sınıflarında yoğunlaştırılmış yabancı dil eğitimi alan 399 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Çalışmada veriler, öğrencilerin demografik özelliklerini, dil öğrenim deneyimlerini ve öz-düzenleyici öğrenme amaçlı bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini kullanımlarını sorgulayan Likert tipi sorulardan oluşan bir anket formu ile elde edilmiştir. Verilerin çözümlenme sürecinde tanımlayıcı istatistiklerden, ki-kare ve t-testlerinden yararlanılmıştır.

Bulgular: Çalışmanın sonuçları öz-düzenleyici öğrenme amaçlı bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini kullanmada öğrencilerin cinsiyet ve dil öğrenim düzeylerinin herhangi bir farklılaşmaya neden olmadığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Sonuçlar, yabancı dil öğrencilerinin öz-düzenleyici öğrenme sağlamak için bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinden en fazla yararlandıkları dil becerilerinin dinleme, sözcük bilgisi ve yazma olduğunu göstermektedir. Çalışmanın bir diğer önemli çıkarımı ise, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin yabancı dil eğitiminde öz-düzenleyici öğrenme fırsatı oluşturmak için kullanımı ile ilgili öğrenci ve öğretmenlere eğitim verilmesi gerekliliğidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimi, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri, teknolojiyle destekli dil öğretimi, öz düzenleyici öğrenme.

**Investigating the Written Assessment Practices of Turkish Teachers of English at
Primary Education**

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Since the late 1990s, Turkey has witnessed two major curriculum reforms in English language teaching at the primary level education. However, the situation of the assessment practices of the teachers has been unclear due to lack of relevant research, particularly in Turkish context.

Purpose of Study: This study aims to investigate the written assessment practices of young English language learners in Grades 4-5 in state Turkish primary schools with a focus on comparing the question types posed by the teachers prior to and following the 2005 curriculum innovation in English language teaching (ELT) in primary education in Turkey.

Method: In order to identify the teachers' written assessment practices, 100 written examination papers were collected from 25 teachers who had been teaching in grades 4 and 5 since 1997, the papers were analyzed with regard to the question types based on the categorization suggested by Brown and Hudson (1998), and descriptive statistics was used in comparing the question types.

Findings: As a result, no major differences were found between the types of questions directed to 4th and 5th graders prior to and following the 2005 curriculum innovation.

Conclusion and Recommendations: Additionally, constructed response question types grew noticeably in number, particularly when the examination papers prepared for 4th and 5th graders were compared prior to and after the 2005 curriculum innovation.

Keywords: Primary teachers of English in Turkey; Grade 4 and Grade 5, Language assessment practices, Question types

Introduction

Young learners are children in the early stages of their schooling between the ages of seven and twelve (Slattery and Willis, 2001). As for young language learners (YLLs), they are those who are learning a foreign or second language (EFL/ESL) during the first six or seven years of formal schooling between the ages of five and twelve (McKay, 2006).

The need for assessment and documentation of the language ability of YLLs has been increasing in the wake of the growth in interest for teaching English to young learners in many countries. But, how are the written assessment needs of YLLs really being catered for? Are we attending to the special assessment needs of our YLLs? In order to address such critical questions, an investigation into the written assessment practices of teachers engaged in teaching EFL/ESL to YLLs becomes inevitable.

The Process of Assessment and Student Responses

Assessment can be done at various times during a teaching and learning process for *formative* and *summative* purposes.

Formative assessment is a procedure that regulates teaching to ensure the active student participation (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996). By actively involving the students in this process, the teachers gain an opportunity to meet individual students' needs (Brown, 2004) by trying alternative assessment procedures, e.g., portfolio, self-assessment, and performance assessment.

Summative assessment is used to see how well learners have achieved at a particular time, focusing on the product or outcomes of learning. Sit-down examinations, conventional 'pencil and paper tests', end-of-unit tests constitute examples.

Regarding responses required in classroom assessment, Brown and Hudson (1998) propose three categories '*selected response*', '*constructed response*' and '*personal response*'. *Selected response* requires examinees to choose from a number of

options provided to them. True-false, matching and multiple choice items can be posed to examinees in assessment of such kind. In *constructed-response*, examinees are not provided options; instead, they are expected to fill in blanks, to write an essay, and to provide short and long answers to yes-no questions and question word questions, respectively. Finally, *personal-response* requires self-and/or peer assessment or portfolio assessment.

Assessment of Young Language Learners

Palomba and Banta (1999) define assessment as the systematic collection, review and, use of information about education programmes undertaken for the purpose of improving learning and development. Similarly, to Rixon (2012), assessment is “any systematic way of finding out about people’s levels of knowledge or skills, in our case the people are Young Language Learners” (p.1). Assessment serves several functions: it acts as a diagnostic tool that provides feedback to the teacher about student progress and their attainment of curriculum objectives; it helps the teachers determine students’ strengths and weaknesses to guide the teacher in making educational improvements, and it helps teachers and educational authorities judge the effectiveness of teaching and learning (Rea-Dickens, 2000).

The characteristics of YLLs and the implications of these for the assessment of their language ability are discussed widely in the ‘young learner’ literature (see Halliwell, 1992; Cameron, 2001). On the basis of this discussion, there appears to be consensus that assessment procedures for YLLs should, at least, meet the following requirements:

- Tasks should be appealing and interesting to the age group, including elements of fun.
- Many types of assessment should be used with YLLs.
- The activities used in assessment should be good learning activities in themselves.

The main implication of this for the teaching and assessment of the YLLs is that there should be connection between the learning and assessment processes. Moreover, as argued by McKay (2006), a special approach to the assessment of YLLs is needed because of the special characteristics of growth and literacy that they bring to language learning and assessment.

Several studies have been conducted in the area of YLLs assessment. Altay (2007) investigated test types with the aim of addressing the question of what makes a

test pragmatic and how pragmatic tests can be formed. Schulz (2009) examined instructional writing strategies and assessments for English language learners in elementary classroom. Doğandere (2006) looked at YLLs' perspectives towards assessment. Fisher and Frey (2007) studied formative assessment techniques for YLLs. Malakolunthu and Vasudevan (2012) identified teacher evaluation practices in Malaysian primary schools.

Besides these studies, few studies have been conducted to investigate the development of various test types for YLLs. Fleuquin (2003) provided a detailed account of the development of the classroom-based achievement EFL test for YLLs in Uruguay. Included in the question types were multiple choice and cloze test items and some writing tasks. In another study, Hasselgreen (2000) focused on the assessment of the YLLs English ability in the context of Europe and by reference to the Council of Europe's recommendations and its material in the Common European Framework of Reference and the European Language Portfolio. In this particular study, questions are raised as to how far the special needs of YLLs are being catered for by assessment practices in European schools with a special focus on Norwegian schools.

Despite the afore-mentioned studies, the assessment practices of the English language teachers, particularly one that investigates the types of questions posed to YLLs in written examinations remains an under-researched area. For this very reason, the present study sets out to investigate the types of questions and their distribution over the written examinations administered to 4th and 5th graders prior to and following the curriculum innovation in 2005 at state primary schools in Turkey.

Assessment in Turkish Primary Education

Since the late 1990s, Turkey has witnessed two major curriculum reforms in English language teaching (ELT) at the primary level education; the former of which was introduced in 1997 and the latter in 2005. In 1997, the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MNE) conducted a major reform, which primarily required the implementation of innovative approaches, namely the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in foreign language instruction in primary and secondary education. The starting age to learn English was lowered from twelve to nine, and the English language started to be taught in primary schools in grades 4 and 5 to YLLs.

Assessment has remained as an integral part of the Communicative Oriented Curriculum (COC). After 1997, 4th and 5th graders are required to have two written tests each term, as recommended by the MNE. The passing grade is 2 out of 5 (top grade). According to COC guidelines, general goals for assessment offered by MNE are as follows:

- Assessment should be performed in an indirect manner, particularly at lower grades; and
- Tests and written examinations should evaluate curriculum objectives (Kırkgöz, 2007a:180).

In addition, the teacher is expected to develop a detailed assessment sheet on which to record each pupil's performance on various tests. It is stated that students should be graded on their performance on written, spoken, and practical examinations, homework assignments, and projects by the teacher, the only assessor.

After the second curriculum innovation in 2005, MNE suggested alternative assessment techniques such as portfolio, peer and self-assessment to complement the formal assessment practices with less quantitative ways in assessing language-learning outcome of YLLs (Kırkgöz, 2007b). Despite the MNE's recommendation of alternative assessment techniques, written 'paper and a pen' examinations have sustained their popularity in the Turkish education system, as in many other countries.

Research Objectives

The present study investigates whether the written examinations designed for 4th and 5th graders prior to and after 2005 differ with respect to question types. It primarily seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. Do examination papers designed for 4th graders between 1997–2005 differ significantly from those designed after 2005 with regard to question types?
2. Do examination papers designed for 5th graders between 1997–2005 differ significantly from those designed after 2005 with regard to question types?

Method

A total number of 100 written examination papers were collected from 25 primary schools to determine the question types used by the teachers in their assessment of YLLs of English in Grades 4-5 in Turkish state primary schools.

Participants

The participants were 25 EFL teachers working at 22 state primary schools in Adana. They were selected among those who had taught English as EFL since 1997, at the earliest. The reason why the researchers set such a criterion for participant selection is that the study mainly intends to reveal whether there is a significant difference between the EFL examination papers prepared before 2005, and those prepared after 2005 with respect to question types administered to 4th and 5th graders. As a consequence, the least experienced teacher taking part in this study had taught EFL for 9 years. Each participant provided four examination papers.

Data Analysis

Based on the categorization suggested by Brown and Hudson (1998), the researchers analyzed questions on the English examination papers into two main categories: *Selected-response items* and *constructed-response items*. Personal-response items were not included in this study since the study focused merely on sit-down examinations administered to 4th and 5th graders. A few types of questions were added to the constructed-response category proposed by Brown and Hudson (1998), which were unscrambling, question-word-question, antonym/synonym, labeling and yes-no question. Descriptive statistics was used in comparing the question types.

A total of 14 question types were identified, in the present study, as reported below:

Constructed Response Items

Constructed response items (CRI) encountered in papers is illustrated below:

Yes/No (Y/N) Questions

These types of questions mainly require examinees to provide a positive or negative answer. Only 10% of the questions in this category were contextualized by means of an illustration as in the example:



E.g. Are these birds? (Posed to 5th graders, 2006)

Question Word Question (QWQ)

These questions types are intended to assess learners' knowledge about a certain subject-matter.

E.g. How old are you? (Posed to 4th graders, 2006)



E.g. What is the weather like today? (Posed to 5th graders, 2007)

Comprehension Question


These types of questions are designed to see whether learners understand and analyze the information given in a passage.


e.g. "Her name is Aylin. She is 11 years old. She has got a brother and a sister."

Q: Has Aylin got a sister? _____ (Posed to 5th graders, 2008)

Completion

In these question types, a sentence is given with some missing words, and/or grammatical items or a dialogue is posed with a missing part, and the students are expected to complete it appropriately. Such questions are mainly used to assess learners' competence at morphological, semantic and pragmatic level.

E.g. There are flowers _____ the vase.  (Posed to 5th graders, 2007)

E.g. A donkey has got four _____.  (Posed to 5th graders, 2008)

Transformation

In this group, three types of questions were identified: The first group asked the learners 'to transform an affirmative statement into a negative or an interrogative statement'. The second group involved 'transforming singular nouns into plural and vice-versa'. The third type required learners to 'transform a given tense into another'.

E.g. Make questions. "Engin is a student". (Posed to 5th graders, 2003)

Unscrambling

In these types of questions, the learners are given scrambled words, and are asked to write appropriate sentences using the words given.

E.g. Put the words into correct order

“Goes-father-fishing-weekend-my-every”

Translation

Translation questions mainly ask YLLs to translate a particular word or a short expression from English into Turkish.

E.g. *çanta* _____ strawberry _____

Labeling

These types of questions are usually intended to assess YLLs’ knowledge at the word level, and they are usually expected to provide labels for a given object or a case.

E.g. Write the name of the animals. (Posed to 5th graders, 2004)



.....



.....



.....

Antonym/Synonym (Ant/Syn)

Learners are required to supply antonym or synonym of a given word.

E.g. Write the antonyms for the words. (Posed to 5th graders, 2004)

cold x old x

tall x poor x

Selected Response Items

Selected Response Items (SRI) encountered in papers is illustrated below:

Multiple-choice (MC)

These questions involve identifying the correct answer among a number of choices. It has been found that the teachers preferred this question type to find out whether the learners can distinguish between specific words, auxiliaries or pronouns.

E.g. Jeremy is ____ actor. a) a b) an c) the d) much (Posed to 5th graders, 2005)

Matching

These question types ask the learners to match questions with appropriate answers and/or words with their synonyms, etc.

E.g. Match items in Column A with those in Column B. (Posed to 5th graders, 2007)

<u>Column A</u>	<u>Column B</u>
A bar of	milk
A bottle of	jam
A jar of	chocolate

True false (T/F)

These questions are generally accompanied by a picture.



E.g. It is a table. (Posed to 4th graders, 2008)

Choose from

Examinees are expected to choose from two given options.

E.g. Circle the correct form of the verb. (Posed to 5th graders, 2006)

E.g. He doesn't **like** / **likes** ice-cream.

Circle the odd/correct word out

Learners are asked to circle a particular word among several options.

E.g. cars mice legs books footballs (Posed to 5th graders, 2004)

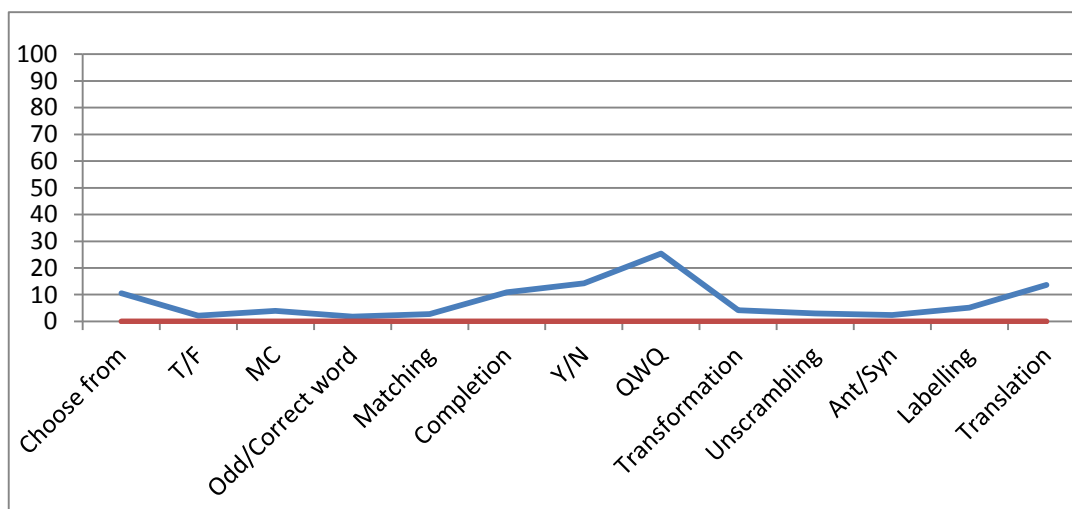
Findings

Findings from Grade 4 Examination Papers

Initially, the 52 papers prepared for 4th graders were examined regarding the question types. Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of questions posed to 4th graders prior to 2005.

Figure 1

Distribution of question types posed to 4th graders before 2005



As seen in Figure 1, CRI overrode SRI items in the examination papers used prior to 2005. Namely, 21% of the items directed to 4th graders before 2005 were SRI items while approximately 79% of the items belonged to the CRI group. In other words, items requiring sentence completion, Y/N answers, labeling, transformation and translation appeared more frequently than the ones which involved 4th graders to choose among a particular number of options presented to them. Constituting over 25% of the items, QWQs were the most frequently used items while T/F items appeared to be the second (14.2%) and translation items (13.6%) the third in distribution. 10.88% of the items required examinees to supply missing part/s of a statement or a dialogue while 10.57% asked YLLs to choose from two options. Labeling constituted over 5%, transformation 4.23%, MC 3.93% and unscrambling 3.02% of the items. Finally, Ant/Syn, T/F and Odd/Correct word out were the least frequently posed items to 4th graders prior to 2005.

Figure 2

Distribution of question types posed to 4th graders after 2005

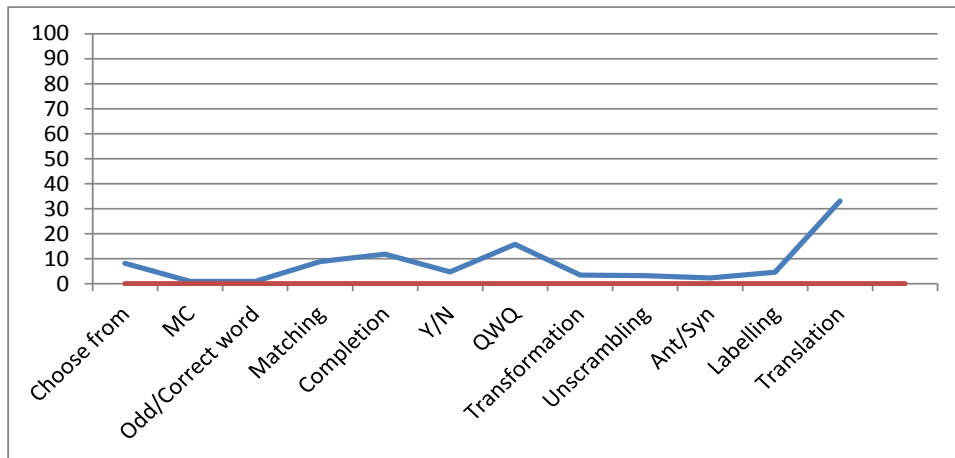


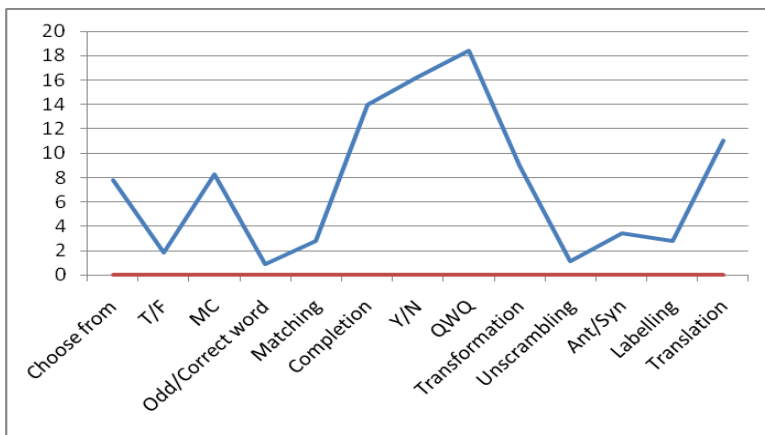
Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of questions posed to 4th graders after 2005. As depicted in the figure, CRIs significantly outnumbered SRIs on the examination papers prepared for 4th graders after 2005. More specifically, over 81% of the items on the papers were those involving students to complete sentences (11.84%), to transform given phrases (3.49%), to find antonym/synonym of a given word (2.28%), to label objects (4.55%), to translate between L1 to L2, or vice versa (33.08%), to provide answers to Y/N or QWQ (15.78%). Approximately 19% of the items required YLLs to choose among possible answers.

Findings from Grade 5 examination papers

Figure 3 displays distribution of question types over EFL examination papers prepared for 5th graders before 2005.

Figure 3

Distribution of question types posed to 5th graders before 2005

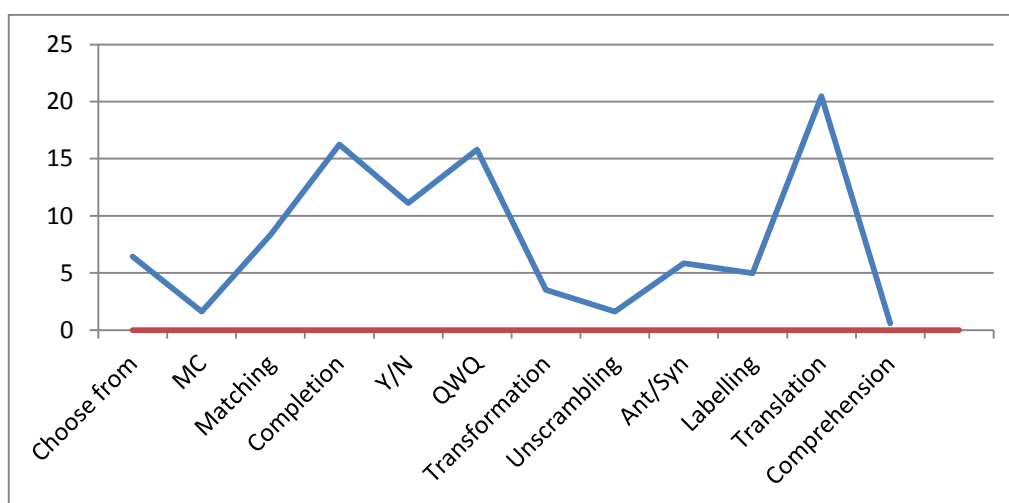


As seen in Figure 3, QWQs were the most frequently asked questions (18.39%) while Y/N questions were the second (16.32) and completion items (14.02) occupied the third in distribution. 11.03% of the items required examinees to translate between L1 and L2 whereas approximately 9% of the items involved transformation of statements. MC (8.28%) and Choose From items (7.82%) constituted similar percentages posed to 5th graders in papers prepared before 2005. Approximately, 3.45% of the questions asked examinees to provide antonym/synonym of a given item while 2.76% required labeling and 2.76% matching. Occupying less than 2% of the items, T/F (1.84%), unscrambling (1.15%) and Odd/Correct word out (0.92%) appeared to be the least frequently posed question items.

Figure 4, below, presents the results obtained from analyzing EFL examination papers prepared after 2005 for 5th graders.

Figure 4

Distribution of question types posed to 5th graders after 2005



It was found that CRIs noticeably grew in number particularly when the papers were compared with those prepared before 2005. As illustrated in Figure 4, CRIs constitute approximately 84% of the items asked to 5th graders after 2005 while SRIs comprise slightly more than 16%. Comprising over 20% of the items, translation was the most frequently employed question type. Completion items (16.23%), and QWQs (15.79%), appeared to be the second and third most frequently asked questions. Over 11% of the items required examinees to provide a positive/negative response while 8.33% involved matching. Choose from, Ant/Syn and labeling constituted 6.43%, 5.85% and 4.97%, respectively while those requiring transformation made up 3.51% of

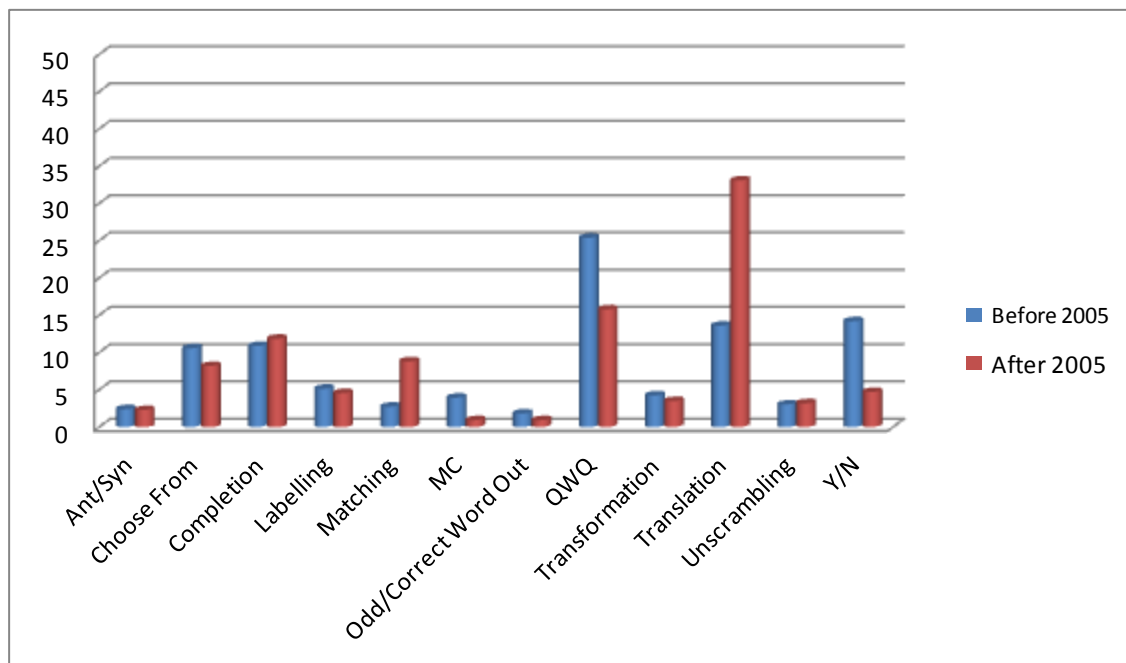
the items. MC and unscrambling items occurred at approximate frequencies on the papers (1.61%). Finally, comprehension items were the least frequently posed items to 5th graders after 2005.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the written assessment practices of 25 primary school teachers of English in Turkey in order to compare the question types posed by the teachers teaching EFL in grades 4 and grades 5 prior to and following the 2005 curriculum reform. One hundred written examination papers were analyzed regarding the question types based on the categorization suggested by Brown and Hudson (1998). No major differences were found between the types of question directed to 4th and 5th graders before 2005 and 2005 onwards.

Figure 5

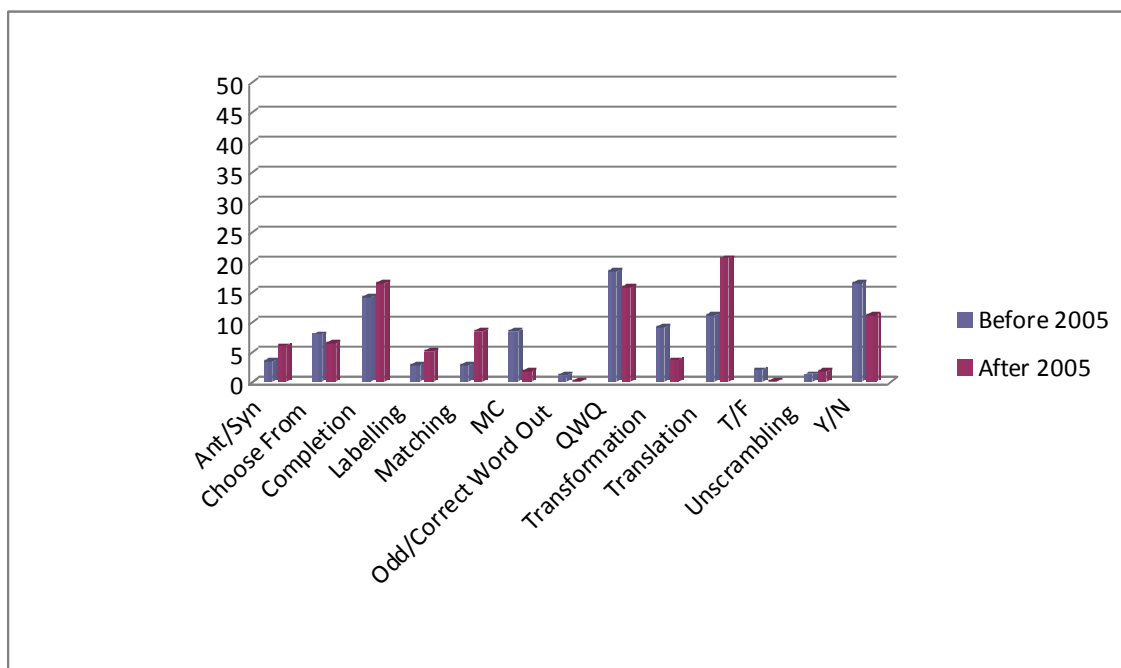
4th Graders before and after 2005



As Figure 5 shows, overall, CRIs significantly outnumbered SRIs after 2005 compared with examination papers prepared for 4th graders prior to 2005.

Figure 6

5th Graders before and after 2005



A similar finding is obtained for 5th graders. As Figure 6 demonstrates, CRIs exceeded SRIs on the examination papers prepared for 5th graders after 2005. Namely, at the primary level, items requiring Turkish YLLs in grades 4 and 5 to do transformation, sentence completion, translation and respond to questions appeared more after 2005.

Another significant finding of the study is that the questions posed to learners after 2005 accompanied more pictures and illustrations to provide YLLs with more contextualized information, compatible with CLT.

As acknowledged by McKay (2006) assessment of young learners is still young and needs to be attended immediately. Given the critical shortage of research in this area, the present study is an effort to contribute to the literature on examining the written question types posed by the ELT teachers in Turkish primary schools.

Limitations and Recommendations

The study reported in the paper was conducted to gain an understanding of the written assessment practices of a group of ELT teachers in Turkish primary education. The results of the study give insights into the question types posed by the ELT teachers in Turkish primary schools. However, owing to the small number of teachers involved

in the study, the results need to be interpreted with caution; thus, for a more comprehensive picture of the written assessment practices of foreign language teachers, further studies conducted with a larger number of teachers are recommended to triangulate the conclusions drawn from the present study.

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İlköğretim Okullarında Çalışan Türk İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Yazılı Değerlendirme Uygulamaları Üzerine Bir Çalışma

Özet

Araştırma Konusu: 1990'ların sonlarından itibaren, Türkiye'de ilköğretim okullarındaki İngilizce öğretiminde iki önemli reform gerçekleşmiştir. Ancak, alanda bu konuyla ilgili çalışma yapılmamış olması sebebiyle değerlendirmelerin öğretmenler tarafından ne şekilde uygulandığı belirsizdir.

Araştırmanın Amacı: Bu çalışmada, Türkiye'de devlet okullarında okuyan 4. ve 5. sınıf öğrencilerine 2005 yılı İngilizce öğretimi müfredat değişikliği öncesi ve sonrasında uygulanan yazılı değerlendirme sınavlarının bu sınavlarda yöneltilen soru türleri bakımından incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Araştırma Yöntemi: 1997 yılı itibariyle 4. ve 5. sınıflarda İngilizce derslerine giren 25 öğretmen tarafından yazılı değerlendirme aşamasında kullanılan 100 sınav kağıdı toplanmış ve söz konusu kağıtlar, Brown ve Hudson (1998) tarafından soru türlerine yönelik geliştirilen kategoriler esas alınarak incelenmiştir. Soru türlerinin karşılaştırılmasında betimsel istatistikler kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular: 4 ve 5. sınıf öğrencilerine 2005 yılı müfredat değişikliği öncesi ve sonrasında yönlendirilen sorular arasında tür bakımından önemli bir farklılığa rastlanmamıştır.

Sonuç ve Öneriler: Söz konusu öğrencilere yöneltilen kurgu-yanıt soru türlerinin ilgili değişikliği takip eden yıllarda önemli oranda arttığı sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Türkiye'deki ilköğretim İngilizce öğretmenleri, 4. sınıf ve 5. sınıf, dil değerlendirme uygulamaları, soru türleri.

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