An investigation on prospective German language teachers' autonomous learning level[*]

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Abstract

Developments in the last decades necessitated the acquirement of diverse skills that enables to keep up with the changing conditions of todays' world. In this context teachers as learners are in need of a continuous renewal. The acquirement of autonomous learning skills promoted at the teacher education might be contributory for the development of a lifelong learning ability. The aim of this study is to analyze the factors affecting the autonomous learning behaviors of prospective German language teachers to determine their actual state. Thus the purpose of the study is to identify students' autonomous learning behaviors in view of different variables and to discuss the results with respect of learner autonomy and foreign language teacher education. For data collection Autonomous Learning Scale was developed and used. Nonparametric Kruskal - Wallis and Mann - Whitney U tests were used to identify whether there is a significant difference between students autonomous learning behaviors according to class, age, gender and educational background. The results of the study showed that there is no statistical significant difference among class level and educational background in terms of autonomous learning, but there were statistical significant differences with regards of age and gender. Further the subscales 'planning' and 'performing' had on average a higher score as the subscale 'evaluating'. The findings of the study indicated that teachers as learners have to be promoted with regard to their actual state. Further studies regarding learner autonomy in teacher education are recommended for the promotion of teacher competences.

Keywords: Teacher education; learner autonomy; teacher autonomy; autonomous learning; Autonomous Learning Scale

1. Introduction

As a consequence of social, economic and technological developments educational expectations have changed over the last decades. It is necessitated to be equipped with diverse skills to be able to respond immediately to actual requirements. Thus educational institutions have to provide their

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learners opportunities allowing them to find out how to acquire such skills (Christ, 2002; Krumm, 1996). Yet it seems to be a challenging issue as individual and social needs are of changing nature. Furthermore "Learning is a life-long process. No school or university can provide its pupils or students with all the knowledge and the skills they will need in their active adult life. Adult life, in its personal as well as its vocational aspects, is far too diverse and too subject to change for any educational curriculum to attempt to provide a detailed preparation" (Trebbi, 1990, p.4). In this context the concept of learner autonomy may be contributory.

1.1. Literature Review

First used by Holec (1981) for adult education and lifelong learning means "learner's ability to take responsibility for their own learning" (Holec, 1981, p.3). It later became more popular in foreign language education and many debates take place about the term and concept of autonomy. While glancing at the pertinent literature on autonomy it is evident that it has been debated under various aspects. These may be subsumed in a broad sense under "political, ideological and philosophical outlooks" (Benson, 2008, p.15), in a narrow sense "for situations in which learners study entirely on their own; for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning; for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education; for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning; for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning" (Benson & Voller, 1997, p.2). On the other hand, it is assumed to be "(…) acquiring learning strategies for language education and the ways of using these strategies" (Mutlu & Eröz-Tuga, 2013, p.109). Hence it seems to be no general agreement about the meaning of this term, but the concept itself received considerable attention as it is regarded to be a "vital part of learning process" (Tanyeli & Kuter, 2013, p.29). Nevertheless, a renewed interest in recent years indicated its importance especially for developing lifelong learning abilities highly valued by society.

Thus it is questioned how to involve learners in the learning process that allows them to develop such qualities. In this regard Holec's (2009) concept of learner autonomy seems to reply as it describes learners' role in the learning process. Learners' behaviors in an autonomous learning concept are described as "to determine the objectives, to define the contents and progressions, to select methods and techniques to be used, to monitor the procedures of acquisition and to evaluate what has been acquired" (Holec, 2009, p.36). Regarding this definition, it is evident that autonomous learning consists of three stages: Planning, performing and evaluating. Learners have to take responsibility in these stages to have acted autonomously. With this active participation the learning process turns out to be a dynamic process (Tassinari, 2010; Oxford, 2015).

However not just learners are determinants of this process, but also teachers. Hence for the promotion of learner autonomy it is crucial to take teachers' perspective into consideration. In literature there seems to be a wide range of studies about learner autonomy, yet the teacher perspective is ignored widely (Sert, 2007, p.182). Such studies would contribute not just to learners', but also to teachers' individual and professional development (Shen, 2011; Smith, 2003). Furthermore, it has to be considered that with changing conditions also teachers' competences have to be adapted to new requirements. Such an adaption is necessitated especially as new educational conceptions are put into practice by teachers (Hatipoğlu, 2005). On the other hand, "teacher grab hold of methods in their own lessons that they themselves had experienced either at the training college or in classes as school children" (Dam, 2007, p.1). Thus it can be concluded that teachers' professional development may have impact on teaching practices and hence on learners' achievement. Nevertheless, teachers are regarded to be lifelong learners as they have to keep themselves up-to-date continuously. Therefore, it is of great importance that autonomy studies consider also teacher dimensions. "(…) to be more aware

of what kind of progress they have made and what else they need to improve next" (Balçıkanlı, 2010, p.96) teachers as learners have to be aware of their own learning.

1.2. Research questions

In this context the aim of this study is to investigate prospective German language teachers' autonomous learning level.

The study will address the following questions to reach the predetermined aim:

- To what degree are prospective German language teachers learning autonomously?
- What are the 'Autonomous Learning Scale' scores?
- Is there a statistically significant difference of these scores in view of the variables gender, age, class level and education?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The population of this study consists of prospective German language teachers studying at Istanbul University in Turkey. The sampling of the study consisted of all undergraduate students (288 students) during the academic year 2013-2014. The entire research group was targeted; 166 students were reached. Of these students, there were 28.3% freshmen, 28.9% juniors, 20.5% sophomores, and 22.3% seniors; there were 74.1% females and 25.9% males. 78.3% of these students were under the age of 29, 21.7% above the age of 29. Of these students, 29.5% have studied in Germany, 21.1% in Turkey, 44.0% in Germany and Turkey, 5.4% in other countries. Further of these students, 70.5% graduated from a Turkish high school, 29.5% haven't attended a Turkish high school. Of the students without a graduation from a Turkish high school, 19.3% graduated from the German "Hauptschule", 19.3% graduated from the German "Realschule", 9.6% graduated from the German "Gymnasium", 8.4% graduated from the German "Gesamtschule" and 4.8% graduated from a high school from an another country. As other countries were mentioned Switzerland, Austria and Netherlands.

2.2. Instrument(s)

A survey was developed consisting of 21 items aiming to determine autonomous learning behaviors of the students in view of the stages planning, performing and evaluating. The items of the survey were developed by examining autonomous learning descriptions in literature (Holec 2009, Martinez 2008, Tassinari 2010). 'Autonomous Learning Scale' (ALS) was developed by the researcher (Deregözü, 2014). The 'Autonomous Learning Scale' was finalized and used as data collection means. In the scale formed of Likert-type 14 statement points, the participants have to grade the items with 'never', 'rarely', 'occasionally', 'frequently' and 'always'. Validity of the scale was identified by using Exploratory Factor Analysis. The total variance explained by the three factor scale is %50.7. Factors' load values have been found above .30. Scale's Cronbach' Alpha coefficient concerning interior coherence has been found to be .78. The reliability of the sub scales is for planning .62, performing .68 and evaluating .77.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

The study is a descriptive - quantitative research. Teachers' autonomy level is determined by examining their autonomous learning level. Autonomous learning has been examined as dependent

variable whereas class, gender, age and education which are considered to have effect on autonomous learning level have been examined as independent variables. While data are evaluated, 'never' has been calculated by giving 1 point, 'rarely' 2 points,' occasionally' 3 points, 'frequently' 4 points and 'always' 5 points. Point averages for each group forming independent variables have been calculated. These points were used for further analyses. These analyses were performed by using the PASW 18.00 statistical package program. Kolmogorov Smirnov Normality Analyses revealed a non-normal distribution of the data. Thus nonparametric statistical analyses were used for determining statistical significant differences between the groups. Accordingly, groups' average points were examined   by using Mann - Whitney U analyses for two groups and Kruskal - Wallis analyses for more than two groups. The points obtained in scale were subdivided into .8 intervals. Accordingly, 5.00 - 4.21 was considered as very high, 4.20 - 3.41 high and 3.40 - 2.61 medium. Under the score of 2.61 autonomous learning was defined as poor and insufficient.

3. Results

3.1. Results regarding autonomous learning average scores

Table 1 illustrates average scores of the scale items. As it is evident on average the participants had a higher autonomous learning score at the stages planning and performing stage as at the evaluating stage.

Table 1. Results of the ALS

		n	$\overline{\mathrm{x}}$	*ss*	$\mathrm{Sh}_{\overline{\mathrm{x}}}$
Planning	1. I identify my learning needs.	160	3.98	.90	.04
	2. I decide on the order of my learning.	159	4.34	.78	.05
	3. I decide on my own what to learn.	161	4.08	.93	.07
	4. I arrange my learning environment according to my learning.	161	3.82	1.08	.08
Performing	5. I use sources that support my learning.	160	4.40	.84	.04
	6. I find out appropriate material for my learning.	162	3.77	1.05	.05
	7. I use various sources, when my learning isn't as desired.	160	4.14	.89	.06
Evaluating	8. I prepare a list of my learning objectives.	161	3.37	1.23	.04
	9. I use different methods during my learning process.	160	3.23	1.07	.05
	10. I evaluate what and how I learn during my learning process.	162	3.94	1.00	.06
	11. I evaluate the time of my learning.	161	2.99	1.20	.09
	12. I evaluate my own learning.	162	3.59	1.01	.08
	13. I evaluate to what extent I've reached my learning objectives.	162	3.70	.99	.08
	14. I evaluate to what extent my learning materials have supported my learning.	162	3.69	.99	.08

3.2. Results regarding the variables gender, age, class and education

Mann-Whitney U test was applied to define the difference between the point averages of the students' autonomous learning level in terms of gender variable.

Table 2. Results of the Mann-Whitney U test according to ALS scores and gender

	Gender	n	$\bar{X}$	$\sum$	U	z	p
Autonomous Learning	Female	121	88.34	10689.00	1653.000	-3,192	.001*
	Male	41	61.32	2514.00			
Planning	Female	121	88.01	10649.00	1693.000	-3,058	.002*
	Male	41	61.29	2554.00			
Performing	Female	121	82.55	9988.50	2353.500	-,495	.621
	Male	41	78.40	2514.00			
Evaluating	Female	121	87.33	10567.50	1653.000	-2,727	.006*
	Male	41	64.28	2635.50			

*p < 0.05

Table 2 displays the results of the ALS scores according to gender. As indicated in the table there is a significant difference in view of gender (p= 0.001 < 0.05 Mann - Whitney U test). This difference is also evident at the stages planning (p= 0.002 < 0.05 Mann - Whitney U test) and evaluating (p= 0.006 < 0.05 Mann - Whitney U test). Whereas at the performing stage there is no significant difference in view of autonomous learning and age (p= 0.621 >0.05 Mann - Whitney U test).

Mann - Whitney U test was applied to define the differences between the ALS scores in terms of the variable age.

Table 3. Results of Mann – Whitney U test according to ALS scores and age

	Age	n	$\bar{X}$	$\sum$	U	z	p
Autonomous Learning	Under 29	126	76.33	9618.00	1617.000	-2,626	.009*
	Above 29	36	99.58	3585.00			
Planning	Under 29	126	78.56	9898.50	1897.500	-1,505	.132
	Above 29	36	91.79	3304.50			
Performing	Under 29	126	77.46	9760.00	1759.000	-2,074	.038*
	Above 29	36	95.64	3443.00			
Evaluating	Under 29	126	77.04	9706.50	1705.500	-2,272	.023*
	Above 29	36	97.13	3496.50			

*p < 0.05

As Table 3 illustrates there is a significant difference in terms of age (p= 0.009 < 0.05 Mann - Whitney U test). This difference is also obvious at the stages performing (p= 0.038 < 0.05 Mann-Whitney U test) and evaluating (p= 0.023 < 0.05 Mann - Whitney U test). Whereas at the planning stage there is no significant difference in view of autonomous learning and age (p= 0.132 >0.05 Mann-Whitney U test).

Kruskal -Wallis test was applied to define the difference between ALS scores according to class and education variable.

Table 4. Results of the Kruskal - Wallis test of ALS scores according to class

	Class	n	$\overline{X}$	x^2	sd	p
Autonomous Learning	Freshmen	46	83.18			
	Juniors	47	73.52	2.581	3	.461
	Sophomores	33	81.35			
	Seniors	36	89.90			
Total		162				

p > 0.05

As Table 4 displays, there was no significant difference between the autonomous learning scores and class level (p= 0.461 > 0.05 Kruskal - Wallis test), which signifies that the degree of autonomy in view of class was at the same level.

Table 5. Results of the Kruskal - Wallis test ALS scores according to the country of education

	Country	n	$\overline{X}$	x^2	sd	p
Autonomous Learning	Turkey	48	84.61			
	Germany	35	82.80	3.267	3	.352
	Turkey and Germany	70	75.86			
	Others	9	103.67			
	Total	162				

p > 0.05

Table 5 illustrates the results of ALS in view of country of education. As it is displayed, there is no significant difference regarding this variable (p= 0.352 >0.05 Kruskal - Wallis test). It concludes that the degree of autonomy was at the same level in view of country of education.

Table 6. Results of the Kruskal -Wallis test ALS scores according to high school graduation from Germany

	High School	n	$\overline{X}$	x^2	sd	p
Autonomous Learning	Hauptschule	30	51.32			
	Realschule	32	42.95	1.851	3	.604
	Gymnasium	15	43.27			
	Gesamtschule	14	44.50			
	Total	91				

p > 0.05

As Table 6 shows, there is no significant difference between students graduated from high schools from Germany (p= 0.604 >0.05 Kruskal - Wallis test), which signifies that all of these students had the same degree of autonomy.

4. Discussion

Prior studies have emphasized the importance of learner autonomy as a key competence for lifelong learning. In addition, "More learner-centered modes of learning which have been encouraged among learners have necessitated the introduction of autonomy in learning as a central component in the teaching/ learning process "(Sert, Adamson & Büyüköztürk, 2012, p.129). As mentioned before very little was found in literature on learner autonomy with the focus on teacher perspective (Sert, 2007, p.182). Therefore, the research attempted to contribute to this issue by providing empirical evidences. For this purpose, prospective German language teachers' autonomous learning behaviors were analyzed in terms of some variables. On the question of 'To what degree are prospective German language teachers' learning autonomously?', this study found that on average autonomous learning is on a sufficient level (Table 1). Yet there were significant differences between the stages planning, performing and evaluating. Autonomous learning average scores at the evaluating stage were lower compared with the other stages (Table 1). On the question of 'Is there a statistically significant difference of the scores in view of the variables gender, age, class level and education?' the study revealed that autonomous learning scores have shown significant differences in terms of gender in favor of female students (Table 2). This finding confirms that autonomous learning behavior differ with regard to gender (Sakai, Takagi & Cu, 2011). In view of gender the differences in the learning process is especially significant at the planning and evaluating stage, whereas at the performing stage there is no significant difference between female and male students (Table 2). Furthermore, there are significant differences in terms of age. Students above the age of 29 are learning more autonomously as students below this age. It is evident that students above the age of 29 are acting more autonomously at the performing and evaluating stage, whereas at the planning stage there is no significant difference (Table 3). The results of this study did not show any significant differences in terms of class level and education (Table 4 & Table 6). Average scores of students educated in Germany were as same as of students educated in Turkey. However, with regard to the sample size related to educational background, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be generalized to the scores of students educated in other countries like Austria, Netherlands and Swiss (Table 5).

5. Conclusions

The findings will doubtless be much scrutinized, but there are some immediately dependable conclusions for learner autonomy. It can be concluded that autonomous learning behaviors are linked to gender. In general, it seems that female students are acting more autonomously as male students. It can thus be suggested that male students have to be supported especially at the planning and evaluating stage. With other words methods and techniques allowing learners' involvement in the learning process have to be used at the planning and evaluating stage especially with a focus on male students. Further there is a link between age and autonomous learning behavior. The findings show that older learners tend to learn more autonomously as the younger ones. "When learning is a matter of adding information to an existing construct (…)" (Benson, 2001, p.37) it might be possible that learning and life experience shape autonomous learning behaviors. As at the tertiary level of education mixed age classes are mostly common, it is crucial to consider learning needs of different ages. Thus it is suggested to implement various techniques and methods able to respond to the interests of these learners.

As mentioned before educational institutions need to find adequate ways to deal with diverse expectations. Traditional influenced teachers assume learners to be homogenous as classroom instructions are applied to the whole class in the same way while ignoring diversities. However, in an

autonomous sense classes are on the basis heterogeneous with regard to their various needs and interests (Haerens, Aelterman, Vansteenkiste, Soenens & Van Petegem, 2015, p.27). Therefore, further studies with more focus on autonomous learning considering diversities are recommended. Hence methods and techniques allowing an intensified learner participation in the learning process is needed while respecting individual differences.

Further in teacher education it is of great importance to provide learning opportunities as "In initial teacher education the main concern lies on the development of qualities which might be applied to teaching practices in future" (Neuner, 1994, p.14). Therefore, it is recommended to implement various methods and techniques that can be used by teachers in their future classes. Furthermore, for the development of teachers' life-long learning ability it is crucial to promote autonomous learning especially by "learners who have just commenced their academic education since it will lead them to become competent enough to take the responsibility for their own learning" (Balçıkanlı, 2008, p.283). Out of the findings it can be concluded that learners possess to an extent autonomous learning abilities that might be unconsciously. On the other hand, "In the promotion of learner autonomy the main concern lies on the development of diverse competences allowing learners to be aware of their actual state" (Hatipoğlu & Deregözü, 2014, p.144). Thus it is suggested to give learners opportunities that allow determining their own state." It is more important for a young person to have an understanding of himself or herself, an awareness of the environment and its workings, and to have learned how to think and how to learn" (Trebbi, 1990, p.4). Such an understanding is just to that extent possible as learners are encouraged to take responsibility in their own learning. Hence opportunities should be given allowing learners to act independently. Furthermore, raising awareness for this kind of learning is crucial as a shift is needed from a teacher predetermined lesson to a learner determined one. As traditional influenced teachers may tend to teach in a traditional way it is recommended that initial teacher education is improved for learner autonomy and with possible 'models' and 'underlying principles' for in-service teacher education that might make teachers change their practice towards learner autonomy (Dam, 2007, p.3). The concept of learner autonomy seems to be an important issue for future researches and educational practices based on empirical evidences may be contributory for the development of abilities and qualities required by society.

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Almanca öğretmeni adaylarının özerk öğrenme düzeylerine ilişkin bir inceleme

Öz

Günümüz dünyasında yaşanan gelişmeler farklı bilgi ve becerilerin edinilmesini zorunlu kılmıştır. Bu bağlamda birer öğrenen olarak öğretmenlerin de bilgi ve becerilerini günün gerektirdiği düzeye getirmeleri gerekmektedir. Özerk öğrenme becerisi ise bu konuda yardımcı olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışma, aday Almanca öğretmenlerinin özerk öğrenme düzeylerini çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Veriler, Alman Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında eğitim gören öğrencilerden toplanmıştır. Bu çalışma, aday Almanca öğretmenlerinin özerk öğrenme düzeyleri ile yaş ve cinsiyet arasında bir farklılığın olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğrenmenin planlama, uygulama ve değerlendirme aşamalarında da yaş ve cinsiyet açısından farklılıkların olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: öğretmen eğitimi; özerk öğrenme; özerk öğrenme ölçeği.

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Refusal strategies and perceptions of social factors for refusing: Empirical insights from Turkish learners of English

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Abstract

This study aims to examine refusal strategies of Turkish learners of English and explore their perceptions of social factors that are influential in their strategy use. The study was conducted at a private university in the west of Turkey, and eighty Turkish L2 learners enrolled at an English language preparatory program participated in the study. The data were obtained through an enhanced DCT, retrospective verbal reports, and interviews. The enhanced DCT included four situations where refusals were elicited through email invitations and requests. The results demonstrated that explanation/reason/excuse was the most frequently used semantic formula. The results also showed that the distribution of refusals to email invitations and requests differ in quantity, and that Turkish learners of English employed a lot more strategies when the initiating act was invitation. Additionally, Turkish learners of English were found to use indirect strategies more than direct strategies and adjuncts. Finally, the perception data revealed four general themes regarding the social factors that affect Turkish learners of English' refusal responses, and these are namely type and degree of relationship, content and purpose of the situation, emotions and expectations, and finally sociocultural understanding and practices.

Keywords: Pragmatic competence; interlanguage pragmatics; refusals; social factors; Turkish learners of English

1. Introduction

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), the study of second language (L2) learners' use and acquisition of linguistic action in context (Kasper, 1992), has been one of the most investigated fields within pragmatics since pragmatic competence in a second language has a crucial role for becoming effective communicators in L2. As Taguchi (2011) puts it, the acquisition of pragmatic competence has become a crucial component of L2 learning because it has provided a clear distinction between mastery of the language code (verbal and nonverbal) with linguistic features and rules, and ability to understand and interpret the function of meaning of these forms. As a component of pragmatic competence, speech act realization of both native speakers and L2 learners has been prevalently studied in different languages and contexts. Even though research on ILP has accumulated and obviously contributed to the

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understanding of the ways L2 learners use language and speech acts for the last three decades, it is still necessary to scrutinize how L2 learners understand and consider pragmatic elements. More specifically, it is of great importance to discover more about ILP and thus understand pragmatic competence of L2 learners since L2 speakers negotiate their meaning by also drawing on L1 and cultural background while interacting in English. One such important aspect of pragmatic competence is the use of speech acts by L2 learners from different L1 and sociocultural backgrounds and their perceptions of social factors affecting their language use.

Refusals, the focus of this study, is particularly an interesting area of research to study because it is more complicated than the other speech acts in the sense that respondents tend to use more indirect strategies in order to minimize the offence and negotiate rather than directly saying no. That is, it is a face-threatening act for both speakers and hearers. Refusals have been called "a major cross-cultural 'sticking point' for many nonnative speakers" (Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz, 1990, p. 56). Social variables such as gender, age, level of education, occupation, power and social distance, make refusing even more complicated (Fraser, 1990). Moreover, how speakers make refusals also depends on the elicitation speech act. For instance, respondents might prefer to use different refusal strategies while responding negatively to a suggestion than they do while responding to a request. Therefore, refusals could be regarded as a complicated issue that needs to be further discussed and analyzed in different social contexts. In doing so, it could be possible to examine the strategies L2 learners employ, and find out sociocultural factors that affect learners' language use in various situations.

Speech act of refusals might also be rather problematic and complicated in L2 learners' own first language and home culture. As mentioned earlier, social variables such as gender, age, level of education, occupation, power and social distance, make refusing even more complicated for L2 learners (Fraser, 1990). For example, it may not be common to simply say "no" in many of the cultures, and people might tend to be indirect when they refuse depending on the social variables. Moreover, the act of refusing may lead to misunderstandings or offend the interlocutors if they lack pragmatic knowledge of other cultures, because what is considered appropriate in one culture may not be appropriate, or even be offensive in another culture. Thus, socially and culturally situated beliefs and assumptions of the interlocutors do have an effect on performing or not performing a refusal in certain cases depending on such sociocultural factors. People tend to be indirect not to be offensive, soften their refusals with politeness strategies, and negotiate in certain cases because it is in their culture to do so. Drawing on the discussion of refusals above, it can be concluded that refusals are culturally sensitive and complicated speech acts as well as being face-threatening.

1.1. Literature review

Research on the speech act of refusals can be roughly divided into three. In the first group, studies aim to compare and contrast the refusals produced across different languages and cultures. For example, one oft-cited study by Beebe et al. (1990) compared refusal production of native speakers of English and Japanese in their study with a DCT that included requests, invitations, suggestions and offers. Data was collected from 60 learners (20 Japanese, 20 L2 learners of Japanese, 20 Americans) in an attempt to see the pragmatic transfer in refusals to equal and unequal interlocutors. In the end, they found out that there are differences between native speakers and Japanese speakers of English in terms of the frequency and order of the formulas, and the content. The findings in their study also showed that the status difference played an important role in the choice of strategies.

Similarly, Liao and Breshnahan (1996) conducted a contrastive quantitative study on Mandarin Chinese and American English refusals. The data were collected through the six scenarios of requests. The analysis showed that the frequency of the politeness markers used by Americans and Taiwanese

are similar. In addition, the Americans utilize multiple techniques highlighting different reasons, but the Taiwanese use fewer techniques. The study also indicated that 27.9% of the Americans and 2.7% of the Taiwanese could not refuse the requests, and the contents of the requests they did not refuse differed in many ways. This study is significant in that the authors of the study proposed a politeness hypothesis of 'marginally touching the point' and suggested that the politeness strategies used while refusing depend on the modest nature of the Oriental countries and the non-self-designative nature of the Western countries.

Al-Issa (2003) also did a contrastive research on refusals with Jordanian L2 learners, Jordanian and American native speakers. He collected the data through written DCT that included invitations, suggestions, requests and offers, and follow-up interviews. He found out some evidence of pragmatic transfer. In addition, Jordanian refusals were found to be lengthy and elaborate with vague excuses with reference to God. His data indicated that the Jordanians employed more indirect strategies than the Americans. Finally, both the American and Egyptian Arabic speakers utilized similar indirect strategies with similar frequency.

More recently, Çiftçi (2016) studied the use of refusal strategies by Turkish learners of English in comparison with native speakers of Turkish and English. The semantic formulas were explored through a DCT with six different situations. The findings indicated that all groups utilized a variety of strategies; and explanations/reasons were the most frequent semantic formulas. However, the use of refusal strategies differed when the data was analyzed in terms of the status of the interlocutors, the content of the semantic formulas, and the directness and indirectness.

The second group of refusal research aims to investigate refusal production of L2 learners in order to find out the strategy use, and pragmatic or cultural transfer in their L2 responses. For instance, Félix-Brasdefer (2006) investigated refusal strategies of male speakers of Mexican Spanish in formal and informal interactions from the politeness perspective. He focused on the degree of formality, politeness systems and strategy use, politeness and the notion of face particularly. He collected the data through four role-play interactions and verbal reports. The findings indicated that social factors such as power and distance play an important role determining appropriate degrees of politeness. In addition, the negotiation of face was achieved indirectly in a polite manner when there was insistence.

The third group of refusal studies aims to focus mainly on the perceptions and processes involved in the production of refusals in a foreign language. For example, Félix-Brasdefer (2008) analyzed the cognitive processes involved in the production of refusals to invitations from a person of equal and higher status, and perceptions of 20 male native speakers of US English who were advanced learners of Spanish as a foreign language in his study. He elicited data through role-plays and retrospective verbal reports (RVRs). As a result, he shed a light on language-learning and language-use strategies that were employed by learners of Spanish to communicate pragmatic intent. Refusals, whether direct or indirect, are employed with varying levels of complexity due to the necessity of picking correct form of communication to reduce the negative effects. That is why, he suggests researchers to take societal variables like age, gender, power distance, education level, and social distance into consideration. He also emphasizes that RVRs are instrumental in collecting supplemental information about perceptions of sociocultural information. It is important to note that this is one of the few interlanguage refusal studies that focus mainly on the perceptions of L2 learners and explore the minds of foreign language learners.

Similarly, Lee (2008) compared Chinese high and low proficiency level L2 learners' refusal production with native speakers of Chinese and American English, and investigated the perceptions of Chinese L2s' social values in her study. The data were elicited using DCTs and perception interviews, and the DCTs were analyzed using Beebe et al.'s (1990). The notion of face was found to be the main

concern for speakers of the both cultures while refusing, and some cross-cultural differences were observed. Thus, Lee's (2008) study is similar to Félix-Brasdefer (2008) in the sense that both studies examined the perception and production of interlanguage refusals. Both of the researchers suggest that data triangulation and replication of similar perception studies for better understanding of interlanguage are important in terms of speech act of refusals.

Another recent study on refusal perceptions of EFL learners was conducted by Huwari and Al-Shboul (2015). The study investigated the perception of Jordanian EFL learners' pragmatic transfer of refusal strategies in terms of cultural and contextual factors. He collected production data through a DCT and perception data using a scaled-response questionnaire. The researcher detected negative pragmatic transfer of Jordanian EFLs and the effect of cultural values. It is important to note that this study showed refusal speech acts reflect cultural values and norms of each group of learners. People from different cultural backgrounds are likely to perceive refusals differently, and this might cause misunderstandings or communication problems.

A review of literature precisely indicates that the major focus has been on the production of refusals in different languages in terms of strategy choice and frequency. In this strand of research, pragmatic transfer also seems to be a favorable aspect of interlanguage pragmatics. However, our main assumption in this study is that more in-depth insights into how L2 learners make refusals and what social factors are influential in their refusals are needed to understand the role of social and cultural context. Even though studies on perceptions specifically in the last decade have started to indicate the effect of cultural norms, values, social and power distance, it is still important to understand what contextual motives are considered by L2 learners in their refusals. Additionally, collecting refusal data in L2 where learners are almost completely surrounded by their L1 and cultural background could reveal important details about socio-cultural factors of refusing as the learners learn and use a language in such context rather than target language or culture. It is even more interesting to collect refusal data in Turkish context because the refusal utterances of Turkish native speakers of English to an undesired situation seem much more culture-bound, complex and open to comments. Thus, the strategy choice of Turkish learners of English when they refuse and the reasons why they particularly choose those strategies may shed a light on their cognition and pragmatic knowledge of refusals, cultural understanding of social factors in the use of English by Turkish learners. Finally, most of the studies on interlanguage refusals focused on Chinese, Arabic and Japanese, suggesting that pragmatic competence of Turkish speakers of English is still an understudied group. Arguing that the studies involving Turkish learners of English' refusal performances are limited, we assume that our study provides not only an overview of refusal strategy use but also insights into their perceptions of social factors that are context-dependent.

1.2. Research questions

This study was conducted to find out answers to the following questions:

1. What refusal strategies do Turkish learners of English use in different social situations?

2. What are the perceptions of Turkish learners of English on their own refusal strategy use and social factors?

2. Method

2.1. Sample / Participants

In the present study, the participants were 80 Turkish learners of English (40 male and 40 female) studying at a foundation university preparatory school. They are aged between 18 and 22 and had been studying English 1 to 12 years at the time of the data collection. This study was conducted in the English Language Preparatory School of a private university in the west of Turkey. The preparatory program aims to provide learners with an intensive English course and prepare learners for their studies at their faculties. The modules in the program are designed in accordance with Common European Framework (CEF) as A1, A2, B1 and B2. These levels refer to beginner, elementary, intermediate and upper intermediate language proficiency respectively. A student who completes these four modules within a year can study at his faculty the next year.

2.2. Instrument(s)

The current study relies on the tenets of qualitative research, and utilizes various data sources, such as an enhanced DCT, retrospective verbal reports, and interviews for data triangulation purposes. First, eighty B1 level learners (40 male and 40 female), who agreed to go through data collection process, were asked to respond to the situations given in the format of emails in the enhanced DCT. Thus, the situations were created more real for the learners since it is more likely to get such email in their daily lives. This written task was also enhanced in order to get longer and more elaborated responses. Invitations and requests were specifically chosen as elicitation acts with the assumption that learners are more likely to get invitation and request emails than the other initiating acts. The situations created for the task were the ones that learners are likely to encounter in their school life (e.g. graduation ceremony, asking lecture notes, a close friend's birthday party, and a request from the boss in your new job). In doing so, the learners responded to invitations and requests from interlocutors with varying degrees of social distance and power.

In the second step of the study, eight learners (4 male and 4 female), who were willing to go through the further processes, responded to the questions for RVRs and in the interview right after they completed the written DCT. The main purpose of using RVRs is to reveal in detail what information learners attend to while performing a task (Cohen, 1998). Therefore, the purpose of using RVRs in the current study is to examine the learners' sociopragmatic understanding of refusals in particular. The questions in the RVRs aimed at elaborating on each situation in detail. To do this, a number of open-ended questions were asked to eight randomly selected learners immediately after they completed the written DCT. Following the verbal reports, the learners were interviewed in order to have a deeper understanding of their perceptions of social factors while refusing. The questions addressed to the learners in the interview were related to sociocultural differences with respect to refusals, cross-cultural comparisons, and situations when they refuse. Both RVRs and interviews were conducted in Turkish so that they could express themselves easily while elaborating on each situation and their feelings. They were also audio-taped and transcribed for analysis purposes. Table 1 below shows the refusal situations in the written DCT that Turkish learners of English responded to:

Table 1. Refusal situations that Turkish learners of English responded to

Speech Act	Power	Distance	Initiating Act
Invitation I	-	-	A birthday party
Invitation II	+	+	A graduation party
Request I	-	+	Asking for lecture notes
Request II	+	+	A request from the boss

2.3. Data collection and analysis procedures

In response to the first research question, the data were collected through an enhanced DCT designed as invitation and request emails. As presented earlier, eighty (40 male and 40 female) Turkish learners of English were asked to respond to the situations in the written DCT, which were specifically designed to elicit refusals. Their replies were coded according to the taxonomy of refusals developed by Beebe et al. (1990). The Turkish learners of English mostly used multiple strategies when they refused the situations in the DCT. For instance, if a participant refused an invitation saying *I would love to come to your party but I am busy on that that so I can't come. How about meeting tomorrow?,* it was coded in the following way: [statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement] + [excuse, reason or explanation] + [negative ability] + [statement of offer or alternative] using Beebe et al.'s (1990) coding scheme. After the strategy coding process, the semantic formulas in each situation were calculated in order to get an overview of refusal strategy use. Next, a comparison of semantic formulas for each initiating act was made, and the most frequently used six semantic formulas for each initiating act were presented.

In order to address the second question, eight randomly selected learners among volunteers were asked to give verbal reports right after the emails were replied. The questions aimed to reveal how the Turkish learners of English perceive their refusals. Their retrospective reports were analyzed with respect to perception and pragmatic knowledge through pattern coding. The same Turkish learners of English were later interviewed in order to have a deeper understanding on how and why they refuse. The questions in the interview were related to certain anticipated sociocultural aspects with respect to refusals and the act of refusing. The responses to the interview questions were analyzed through coding in order to generate themes and patterns.

Throughout the data collection and analysis, researchers need to ensure that their findings and interpretations are accurate. Many researchers have addressed the idea of validating findings through strategies such as member check and triangulation in qualitative research (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to ensure trustworthiness of this study, the researchers utilized a well-known coding scheme for refusals. The entire coding of all data sources was completed by the first researcher but member check with the second researcher was conducted throughout the data analysis process. Finally, the data triangulation was maintained through by utilizing various data sources as mentioned previously.

3. Results

3.1. Overall refusal strategy use

To answer the first research question, the production data in the enhanced DCT was analyzed. Below, Table 2 presents the overall results related to the use of refusal strategies by Turkish learners of English in this study employed in each initiating act, namely invitations and requests.

Table 2. Overall results related to the use of refusal strategies

Initiating Acts	Direct (n)	Indirect (n)	Adjunct (n)	Total (n)
Refusals to invitations	85	317	48	450
Refusals to requests	41	224	6	271
Total	126	541	54	721

As can be seen in Table 2, the results of the study indicated that the total number of the refusal strategies employed by 80 Turkish learners of English was 721. As for the initiating acts, invitations yielded a lot more refusals (N=450) when compared to requests (N=271). Therefore, it can be stated that the distribution of the refusal strategies for invitations and requests differ in amount. With regard to the directness/indirectness, a large number of the strategies were found to be indirect refusal strategies. Thus, the total number of refusal strategies in the study included 541 indirect strategies, 126 direct strategies, and 54 adjuncts to refusals. In addition, similar to overall use of refusals, direct, indirect strategies as well as adjuncts to refusals were higher in responses to invitations than they were in responses to requests. The number of direct refusal strategies to invitations was actually twice as many refusals as the number of direct refusal strategies to requests (N=85, N=41). Similarly, the learners employed 317 indirect refusal strategies when they responded to invitations, and this number was 224 in response to requests. Finally, the number of the adjunct to refusals in response to invitations was 48 whereas this number was only 6 in response to requests. All in all, Turkish learners of English in this study utilized more refusals while responding to invitations rather than requests, and these were mostly indirect.

3.2. Semantic formulas of refusals

As presented before, Beebe et al.'s (1990) category was used in order to classify the refusal strategies in the present study. The Turkish learners of English in the study employed 18 out of 32 different semantic formulas in the coding scheme. In response to requests, 17 different strategies out of 32 were employed whereas the number of refusal categories was only 10 with invitations as elicitation acts. Table 3 below demonstrates the most frequent 6 strategies employed by Turkish learners of English for each situation.

The findings below indicated that the semantic formulas used in response to requests and invitations considerably differ in amount and variety. For instance, the top three strategies were statement of explanation/reason/excuse (ERE), statement of regret, and negative willingness/ability (N=234, N=171, and N=116 respectively), and similar to overall refusal strategy use, the refusal strategies were more when the elicitation act was invitations (N=144 in invitations and N=90 in requests as for statement of ERE; N=103 in invitations and N=68 in requests as for statement of regret; N=77 in invitations and N=39 in requests as for negative willingness/ability).

Table 3. The most frequent 6 strategies employed by Turkish learners of English for
each situation

Strategy type		Situation 1 (Invitation)	Situation 2 (Invitation)	Situation 3 (Request)	Situation 4 (Request)
1.	Statement of ERE	73 (31%)	71 (33%)	34 (26%)	56 (38.6%)
2.	Statement of Regret	58 (25%)	45 (21%)	32 (25%)	36 (24.8%)
3.	Negative Willingness/ Ability	36 (15%)	41 (19%)	26 (20%)	13 (8.9%)
4.	Promise of Future Acceptance	28 (12%)	9 (4.1%)	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.06%)
5.	Wish	12 (5%)	13 (6%)	1 (0.7%)	4 (2.7%)
6.	Positive Opinion	14 (6%)	17 (8%)	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.6%)

Although the learners in this study chose to employ the same three strategies both in requests and invitations, the other strategies they used differ greatly in variety and frequency. For example, they used the strategy of setting condition for future or past acceptance for 16 times (e.g. *"...if you told me before, I would help him. Thank you for your understanding"* in Situation 4, a request from the boss), statement of alternative for 14 times (e.g. *"...but I could give you my English teacher friend's phone number..."* in Situation 4, a request from your boss), self-defense for 12 times (e.g. *"...I can give you the titles only..... and this is all I can do"* in Situation 3, a request from a classmate), and criticizing the request/requestor for 10 times (e.g. *"Of course I won't. You never talk to me in the class and ask for the notes. I think this is a bad idea..."* in Situation 3, a request from a classmate) while responding to requests. As for the invitations though, the findings demonstrated that totally different strategies like promise of future acceptance (e.g. *"I promise to see buy you some coffee next time...",* Situation 2, an invitation from a student) were employed for 37 times, statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e.g. *"Hi Ayşe, I feel so happy because..."* in Situation 2, an invitation from a student) for 31 times, wish (e.g. *"I wish we could be together, but..."* in Situation 1, an invitation from a close friend) for 25 times and statement of gratitude or appreciation (e.g. *"I would like to thank you very much for..."* in Situation 2, an invitation from a student) for 17 times.

Other strategies that occurred less than ten times in responses to requests were the strategy of wish (e.g. *"I wish I could help you but..."* in Situation 3, a request from a classmate), unspecific or indefinite reply (e.g. *"I am not sure if I have them"* in Situation 3, a request from the boss), promise of future acceptance (e.g. *"I will help you next month after my course finishes."* in Situation 4, a request from your boss), guilt trip (e.g. *"I don't make notes to help you get better grades than mine"* in Situation 3, a request from a classmate), statement of principle (e.g. *"I never give my lecture notes"* in Situation 3), statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e.g. *"I would love to help your son, but...",* nonperformative statement "no" (e.g. *"No, I can't, I am sorry..."* in Situation 4, a request from the boss), statement of gratitude or appreciation (e.g. *"Thank you for the compliments..."* in Situation 4, a request from the boss) , and lack of enthusiasm *(e.g. "I am not interested in teaching but if..."* in Situation 4, a request from the boss) respectively. In response to invitations, the strategies of nonperformative statement *no (e.g. "No, thanks because my friend is getting..."* in Situation 2, an invitation from student and *"No, thanks because a friend is having a party tonight in..."* in Situation

1, an invitation from a close friend), statement of alternative (e.g. *"Let's meet in the morning..."* in Situation 1, an invitation from a close friend), and avoidance (one student intentionally left it blank and left a note saying *"I would not respond to this email"* in Situation 2, an invitation from a student) were employed less than ten times by Turkish learners of English.

Turning back to the top 6 refusal strategies in our dataset, 4 of them were indirect strategies, one was direct strategy and one was adjunct to refusals. Additionally, the findings demonstrated that these 6 most popular refusal strategies preferred by the Turkish learners of English were namely ERE, regret, negative willingness/ability, statement of positive opinions, promise, and wish respectively. The strategy of ERE was by far the most popular strategy that was employed 227 times within all tasks by the Turkish learners of English in this study, similar to what many refusal studies indicated (Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Beebe et al., 1990; Nelson et al., 2002). It was typically employed in combination with other strategies as it could be seen in the following examples from the data:

Hello Sir, I am sorry to tell this, but I have been taking a dance class. So if you want, I have a friend that could help your son as well. (Situation 4 - a request from the boss)

Hello my friend, I am so happy to hear that you're giving a party but I am sorry I can't come. My brother is ill and he is at the hospital and I am going to stay with him. Happy birthday to you! (Situation 1 - an invitation from a close friend)

The strategy of showing regret closely followed ERE with a total number of 171 as the second mostly used strategy by the Turkish learners of English (e.g. *Hi Ayşe, I feel so bad now. I won't be in your graduation party although I want to. My friend has a wedding ceremony so I have to be there* in Situation 2 - an invitation from your student). In addition, negative willingness/ability was the only direct strategy that was employed by the Turkish learners of English among these six strategies. It was employed for 116 times in total, and ranked as the third most popular formula used by the Turkish learners of English. The use of negative willingness/ability as the only direct strategy of the six commonly used refusal strategies in the study could be exemplified as follows:

Hi Sir, I have been taking a dance class on weekdays, so I can't help you for now but I'll try to sort the things out later. (Situation 4- a request from the boss)

Hey, that sounds good but I am sorry. I can't come because I have another important arrangement at that time. (Situation 1- an invitation from a close friend)

As the only adjunct to refusals, the strategy of statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement was also frequently seen in the data with a total number of 33 (e.g. *Dear Ayşe, I really want to come to your ceremony but my close friend will get married the same day...* in Situation 2 - an invitation from your student, or *Hi John, I would like to lend you my notes but I can't....* in Situation 3 - a classmate asking for lecture notes). Finally, the strategies of promise and wish are equally employed for 30 times by the Turkish learners of English in this study. The use of promise of future acceptance was commonly detected in the data as follows:

...If it is OK for you, I will help him next month when my dance course finishes. (Situation 4 - a request from the boss)

...I am so sorry because I won't come to your party. I promise I will visit you in the morning.... (Situation 1 - an invitation from a close friend)

Similarly, the strategy of wish appeared in the data as follows:

Dear Ayşe, I wish I could join you on this special day but my best friend will get married the same day... (Situation 2 - an invitation from your student)

Hi! I wish to help you but I don't have the lecture notes... (Situation 3 - a classmate asking for lecture notes)

The excerpts of the data above were chosen randomly in an attempt to offer readers typical examples from responses of Turkish learners of English. All in all, it could be stated that the most frequent 6 strategies that Turkish learners of English employed in the data were mostly combined with a number of other strategies. In other words, while refusing an interlocutor in each situation, the Turkish learners of English utilized various strategies.

3.3. Refusals in relation to Social Distance and Power between the Speaker and Hearer

In order to answer the first research question in more detail, this section presents the results with regard to the Turkish learners of English' strategy use according to power relationship and the degree of social distance between the speaker and hearer in the given situations. As presented earlier, the speech act of refusals in the current study were elicited through 2 request and 2 invitation situations in the form of emails. The eliciting tasks were designed in a way that there was a different degree of social distance and power relationship in each situation. Additionally, the initiating act was found to be one of the most effective factors among Turkish learners of English in giving the decision to refuse or not.

In situation 1, the Turkish learners of English were asked to respond to an email from a close friend who invited them to his birthday party. In such situations, the power relation between the hearer and speaker is considered equal, and it was a familiar situation in the sense that they were likely to encounter in their daily lives. As seen in Figure 3, the Turkish learners of English employed the strategies of ERE, statement of regret, and negative willingness/ability in both of the invitations. However, the strategies of ERE and statement of regret were more frequent in response to the invitation from a close friend whereas the strategy of negative willingness/ability was more frequent in response to the invitation from a student. Additionally, promise of future acceptance was much higher in Situation 1 when compared to Situation 2. Finally, the strategies employed in response to Invitation 1 and Invitation 2 showed parallelism regardless of the status of the interlocutor and the power difference between them.

In Situation 3, the Turkish learners of English were asked to respond to a classmate's request, in which they do not have a close relationship. Therefore, they have equal social status and power but obviously social distance, and it was again a common situation that they were likely to encounter at school. Similarly, the learners were asked to respond to a request from their bosses in situation 4. Learners were supposed to refuse someone with a higher status in this case, and they were implicated that there was an obvious distance between the hearer and the speaker.

The strategies of ERE, regret, and negative willingness/ability are the most frequently employed strategies in both of the request situations. However, the strategy of ERE was preferred much more frequently in response to the boss's unpaid request than in response to a classmate asking for the lecture notes. In addition, learners preferred the strategy of negative willingness/ability more in situation 3 than they did in situation 4. Additionally, the Turkish learners of English employed the strategy of self-defense in response to the request from the classmate, but this strategy was used at a very low frequency in response to the request of the boss. As for the strategy of criticizing the request, it was commonly used in response to situation 3 but was not used at all in Situation 4.

Overall, the distribution of the refusal strategies that were employed in the situations in the enhanced DCT indicated that the Turkish learners of English employed a lot more strategies when the initiating act was invitation than it was request. Additionally, a variety of strategies were employed in response to requests when compared to the strategies used in response to invitations: the total number

of strategies used in response to requests was 17, and this number was 10 in response to invitations. The most frequently used three strategies in both refusals of invitations and refusals to requests were the same (the strategies of ERE, statement of regret, negative willingness/ability). However, the other strategies showed diversity depending on each situation. Finally, although the situations in the enhanced DCT were designed in such a way that refusals could be elicited, some learners did not refuse some of the situations. The Table 4 below indicates the number of the Turkish EFL learners who refused and did not refuse in each situation:

Table 4. The refusal and non-refusal performance in situations

Situation	Refused (n)	Did not refuse (n)	Total (n)
Invitation 1 (birthday party invitation from a close friend)	67	13	80
Invitation 2 (graduation ceremony invitation from a student)	79	1	80
Request 1 (a classmate requesting lecture notes)	61	19	80
Request 2 (an unpaid request from the boss)	65	15	80

As can be seen, 13 learners did not refuse in Situation 1, and half of the interviewees stated in the RVRs that they had difficulty while refusing in Situation 1. Similarly, in Situation 2, the Turkish learners of English were given the role of a lecturer and asked to respond to the graduation party invitation from a senior student. Unlike the first invitation situation, only 1 participant did not refuse in Situation 2. In addition, only 2 of the learners stated in the verbal report that it was hard to refuse the graduation party invitation. As for refusing the requests, 19 Turkish learners of English surprisingly did not refuse their classmate in Situation 3. Likewise, the number of Turkish learners of English who did not refuse their bosses in Situation 4 was 15.

Consequently, it was our initial assumption that L2 learners make various assumptions while refusing and consider many social factors relying on their L1 and cultural background, expectations, and understandings. Thus, after examining the number of the Turkish learners of English who refused or did not refuse the given situations, we now present the perceptions of the Turkish learners of English in this study for in-depth insights into their refusal choice and underlying reasons.

3.4. Perceptions of Turkish learners of English on their own Refusal Strategy Use

In order to address the second research question, which aimed to have a better understanding of the strategy choice of the Turkish learners of English, the RVRs and interviews were conducted with eight voluntary Turkish learners of English. Overall, four general themes emerged with regard to the perceptions of the social factors that affect Turkish learners of English' refusal responses: type and degree of relationship, content and purpose of the situation, emotions and expectations, and finally sociocultural understanding and practices.

3.4.1. Type and degree of relationship

Fraser (1990) regards power and social distance as two distinct variables that are closely linked to refusals. Accordingly, the traces of the impact of social status and distance were commonly found in the perception data, and analysis of the RVRs indicated that Turkish learners of English remarkably consider the type and degree of relationship when they refuse. They were implicitly asked how they felt when they refused someone with a lower, equal and higher social status, and different social distance after they were reminded the social situations in the DCT. It seemed that refusing an interlocutor with a lower status was not a big deal for Turkish learners of English. However, they seemed cautious when they refuse equals or interlocutors with higher status. Some of the responses from the interview and RVRs are as follows:

"I consider the consequences of my response when I refuse somebody superordinate like a boss or a lecturer, and act accordingly. I also try to find good excuses…" (Student 1, Interview)

"I felt sorry when I refused my close friend's birthday party invitation. It was the most difficult situation to refuse because I did not want to hurt her feelings because she is important to me..." (Student 2, RVR)

"I was able to refuse my student easily because I thought he invited me to the graduation ceremony only out of courtesy. He didn't expect me to go there… My best friend was getting married. I am sure he would understand me." (Student 4, RVR).

"I told the reason honestly to my student…I know that party would be better without me and learners wouldn't mind if I didn't come." (Student 1, RVR)

A closer examination of RVRs and interviews showed that difference in social status and distance have effect on Turkish learners of English' responses, and Turkish learners of English take these two into consideration before they refuse somebody. The responses indicate that they feel uncomfortable; need to give good excuses; and try not to hurt feelings when it comes to refusing somebody with higher and equal social status (Student 1 and 2). However, they find it easier to refuse somebody with a lower status because they do not feel sorry or worry about being misunderstood as much as they do with interlocutors from higher or equal status. Additionally, they honestly tell the reason of their refusal without any extra effort to show the unlikeliness of accepting the invitation or request (Student 4 and 1) mainly because of being in higher social status and degree of their relationship.

Turkish learners of English also stated that they worry about misunderstanding, make careful lexical choices, and try to be extra polite when there is social distance between the two interlocutors but they did not do so with equals or lowers. In addition, they stated that they prefer to tell the reason directly (Student 1), and expect the interlocutor to understand (Student 4) instead of making up excuses or giving explanations when there is social distance between the interlocutors. Overall, the analysis of the perception data indicated that the social status and distance seemed to be influential factors in the strategy use of Turkish learners of English.

3.4.2. Content and purpose of the situation

The analysis of the RVRs and interviews also revealed that Turkish learners of English take into consideration the content and purpose of the situation, and these play an important role when they refuse. For example, Student 6 states in the RVR that she empathizes with the speaker and further says:

It doesn't matter if we are close or not. I listen to the content and then decide to refuse or not.

In addition, some learners express they refuse without any doubt when they feel the intention of self-interest by the other interlocutor in the situation:

I think the classmate was taking the advantage of the fact that I was attending regularly to the

lectures, and I didn't like this. (Student 7, RVR)

We are not close and he asks me to do her a favor just because she wants to get high grades... (Student 2, Interview)

Special days were also given importance by some of the learners:

I found it hard to refuse my close friend's invitation because it was his birthday. (Student 2, RVR)

I really would like to be with my friend on his special day. (Student 3, Interview)

Finally, the motive for helping somebody was also commonly found in the perception dataset:

He is in need because he missed the lectures and this will affect his education life...I wouldn't be selfish so I didn't refuse. (Student 8, RVR)

Although I refused my boss, I showed that I cared about his son's case. It's about learning English, not about something nonsense. (Student 4, RVR).

Overall, the analysis of RVRs and interviews indicated that content of the situation and its purpose play a significant role when Turkish learners of English refuse invitations or requests. They try to empathize, listen to the content of the situation, and primarily consider the purpose of the interlocutor while responding to invitations and requests. Additionally, they choose to refuse without any doubt if they feel self-interest of the other interlocutors. Finally, they specifically give importance to special days and emerging need for help as well.

3.4.3. Emotions and expectations

Another emerging category of factors influencing the act of refusing in the dataset is emotions and expectations of Turkish learners of English. Most Turkish learners of English seemed to be affected by their emotional condition when they performed the act of refusing as the following excerpts indicate:

Whether I am in good mood or not... I think this affects my choices the most. (Student 8, Interview)

If I feel sorry for him. I hesitate before I refuse. (Student 1, Interview)

The data also indicated that Turkish learners of English care about how others feel even more than how they feel themselves:

...it is again hard to refuse because I don't want him to feel bad. (Student 7, RVR)

I am afraid of breaking his heart. (Student 6, RVR)

I was not comfortable when I refused my boss. I thought I left a bad impression on him. After all, he is my boss. (Student 7, RVR)

Similarly, expectations play a significant role for Turkish learners of English while performing refusals. Many of them thought everybody expects his/her close friend to be with him/her on a special occasion like birthday:

I can't leave my best friend alone in her party...We are best friends. (Student 4, Interview)

It was quite normal to get a graduation party invitation from a student because it was out of courtesy to invite lecturers although no one expects them to accept the invitation:

I was able to refuse my student easily because...he invited me to the graduation party only out of courtesy. He didn't expect me to go there. (Student 5, RVR).

Overall, the RVRs and interviews show that emotions and expectations of Turkish learners of English are important in performing the refusals. Specifically, they care about what others think and feel as well as expectations.

3.4.4. Sociocultural understanding and practices

Last but not least, the analysis of the RVRs and interviews indicated that sociocultural understanding and practices play a significant role when Turkish learners of English perform the act of refusing. More specifically, Turkish learners of English in this study reported the difficulty of refusing family members who are superordinate in terms of their role in the family. Indeed, the learners considered the act of refusing culturally inappropriate especially because the interlocutor is older than themselves. The following excerpts from the RVRs and interviews demonstrate their perceptions of such sociocultural understanding or practices

I try not to hurt my relationship with the family all the time, so I hardly ever refuse my family members because we don't do so in Turkey. (Student 8, Interview)

I feel sorry…I respect him so I feel ashamed and try to compensate somehow because it is unacceptable to refuse such a person. (Student 6, RVR)

I have difficulty in refusing the elderly and I feel sorry. I feel ashamed and usually say I am going to compensate what I just refused…We try not to hurt the elderly by refusing. (Student 2, RVR)

Additionally, the data yielded that a strict hierarchical relationship was practiced in response to the request from the boss in Situation 4, an unpaid request from the boss:

…my refusing will definitely pose a problem in the future. This is the case in many workplaces so I gave a very detailed excuse before refusing and said I was sorry for 3 times at least (Student 3, RVR)

I preferred to create an urgent case to prove that I really cannot do what he asked me to do and promised to help him later (Student 6, Interview)

In order to soften their refusals, Turkish learners of English chose to give detailed explanations and imaginary urgent cases. Even too specific details about private life were given in order to show the impossibility of the situation as well:

My grandmother is in the hospital and I am going to stay with her because she has a serious condition and there is nobody else to accompany her… (Student 4, RVR)

Similar responses with too specific details about private issues were encountered in the data many times. The other sociocultural understanding emerging from the data was also being welcomed in the society. Turkish learners of English hesitate to refuse because of the societal concerns; and they try to align with the others in order to be accepted by others although they want to refuse:

I believe I try to accord with the others sometimes… It is the herd mentality. I sometimes remain silent rather than refusing especially in online conversations. (Student 2, Interview)

Overall, RVR and interview data indicated that sociocultural understanding in their L1 and cultural context played a significant role in performing the refusal data. Specifically, Turkish learners of English found refusing family members, specifically the elderly and people with higher status, culturally inappropriate, and gave too specific and urgent reasons if they really had to refuse them. They even tend to not refuse sometimes because of societal constraints too.

4. Discussion

Our study contributes to interlanguage pragmatics by presenting an outline of semantic formulas used in refusals by Turkish learners of English. In doing so, we focused on not only the refusal strategy use but also sociopragmatic understanding of the learners. We find it quite interesting that Turkish learners of English utilized a lot more strategies for refusing invitations when compared to requests. Such a difference in strategy use implies that it seems to be more common and easier for

Turkish learners of English to refuse requests than it is to refuse invitations. Therefore, we tend to argue that the type of elicitation act plays an important role in the use of refusals. We also assume that it is crucial to gain insights into how L2 learners perceive the given situations and what social factors they consider while refusing. By conducting RVRs and interviews, we contribute to that type of a research line and provide preliminary understanding of sociopragmatic elements Turkish learners of English take into consideration in their act of refusing.

In addition, it is possible to consider that Turkish learners of English mostly prefer to be indirect in their refusal realizations to invitations and requests. Relying on the finding that more than half of the refusal strategies were indirect, it could be argued that it is a norm for Turkish learners of English to be indirect while refusing regardless of the situation or the type of elicitation act. Yet, they were quite able to combine indirectness and directness in their choice of semantic formulas for refusals. In a similar vein, the strategy of ERE was found to be the most frequent refusal strategy regardless of the initiating act, which complies with the results of many studies in the literature (Al-Issa, 2003; Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Beebe et al., 1990; Çiftçi, 2016; Felix-Brasdefer, 2003; Nelson et al., 2002; Wannaruk, 2008). Again, the strategy of ERE was widely employed in combination with other strategies by the Turkish learners of English no matter what the eliciting act was. Drawing on their detailed explanations even about private issues, urgent situations and their imaginary problems in order to soften their refusals, we would like to highlight that it is a major motive for Turkish learners of English of English to strongly justify their refusals. Thus, the role of a hierarchical understanding and refusal choice accordingly is evident in our study.

Our study also provides insights into sociopragmatic understanding of the learners in this study. More specifically, the four social factors were influential in their refusal realizations and these were mainly type and degree of relationship; content and purpose of the situation; emotions and expectations; and sociocultural understanding and practices. The reported impact of type and degree of relationship makes it obvious that the power relationship between interlocutors as well as the social status shape Turkish learners of English' refusal strategies in English. Indeed, unlike previous literature highlighting a potential lack of sociopragmatic competence of L2 learners, we argue that L2 learners do have sociopragmatic awareness with regard to social factors, power dynamics, and social distance. However, as indicated by their sociocultural understanding, their perceptions are socially situated and contextual. That is, the learners might not tend to refuse an act or give a lot of explanations because it is the norm in their own context.

5. Conclusions

The results of the present study provided insights into the refusal strategy choice and perceptions of Turkish learners of English on their own choices and social factors. This study suggests many implications for teaching English in EFL context. First of all, although the interviewees seemed to be aware of variables like power and distance, teachers should make sure that they focus the learners' attention on social variables like distance, power, age, occupation, level of education and gender before eliciting refusals from speech acts. In addition, formality and informality of a situation change the type of semantic formula learners use. A variety of linguistic choices should be taught along with the awareness of abovementioned social factors.

Finally, it is not our goal to generalize the findings of the current study to all or most L2 learners. However, it is quite likely to find similarities especially with the pragmalinguistic aspects in this study. As for social factors or sociopragmatic understanding, we acknowledge the role and importance of the context where L2 is learned and used. The focus of this study was also the perception of the

learners on their own strategy use and such sociopragmatic issues, which still needs to be studied in-depth. Therefore, it should be considered as preliminary insights in terms of perceptions of L2 learners in on social factors with an emphasis on refusals to invitations and requests.

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Reddetme stratejileri ve reddetmedeki sosyal faktörlerle ilgili algilar: İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerden deneysel anlayislar

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin reddetme stratejilerini incelemek ve strateji kullanımlarını etkileyen sosyal faktörlere ilişkin algılarını açığa çıkarmaktır. Bu çalışma Türkiye'nin batısında bulunan özel bir üniversitenin İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu'nda eğitim alan ve İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 80 Türk öğrenci ile yürütülmüştür. Veri yazılı söylem tamamlama etkinliği (STE), geriye dönük sözlü raporlar ve görüşmelerle elde edilmiştir. STE davet ve rica söz eylemleri kullanılarak oluşturulan dört durum içerir ve reddetme stratejileri bu durumlar kullanılarak elde edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, en sık kullanılan anlamsal deyimin açıklama/sebep/gerekçe bildirme olduğunu göstermiştir. Sonuçlar ayrıca davet ve rica durumlarından elde edilen reddetme stratejilerinin dağılımının nicelik bakımından farklılık gösterdiğini ve İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin başlatma eylemi davet olduğunda rica durumdan çok daha fazla sayıda strateji kullandığını ortaya koymuştur. Elde edilen veriler, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin dolaylı stratejileri doğrudan stratejilere ve reddetme yardımcılarına oranla daha fazla kullandığını göstermiştir. Reddetme ile ilgili algılardan elde edilen veriler ışığında, İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin reddetme stratejileri kullanımlarını etkileyen sosyal faktörler dört ana başlık altında toplanmıştır. Bu ana başlıklar ilişkinin türü ve derecesi, durumun içerik ve amacı, duygulanım ve beklentiler ile sosyokültürel anlayış ve uygulamalar olarak adlandırılmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: edimbilimsel yeterlik; aradil edimbilimi; reddetme; sosyal faktörler; İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrenciler

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L2 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners

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Abstract

The present study investigates the relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners studying at a large scale Turkish university. Metalinguistic knowledge refers to the ability to correct a grammatically incorrect structure in English and explain why it is incorrect, and identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. It is assessed using the two-section Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT) designed by the researcher. L2 achievement, on the other hand, refers to the participants'L2 knowledge at a specific level and is operationalized as the ability to repeat language elements that have been taught and mastered. It is assessed using the mid-term exam that consists of grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, speaking and writing sub-tests. Results of the MKT indicate that L2 metalinguistic knowledge is weak among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners. In addition to this, a correlation analysis and a series of bivariate and multiple regression analyses reveal that L2 metalinguistic knowledge significantly contributes to L2 writing achievement explaining 19.9% of the variance in participants' writing exam scores. The findings of the present study are discussed within the light of the previous research. Additionally, considering that metalinguistic knowledge benefits second language acquisition (SLA), some implications are suggested accordingly.

Keywords: Second language acquisition; metalinguistic knowledge; L2 proficiency; EFL learners

1. Introduction

Since the emergence of communicative approach to teaching and learning a second language (L2), communicative activities have come into prominence to enhance learners' fluency (Renou, 2001). Communicative language teaching, where the emphasis is on meaning as opposed to form or grammar, has enabled language learners to use the modern foreign language but de-emphasized accuracy and metalanguage (Alderson & Steel, 1994). Therefore, explicit L2 instruction has been glossed over (Gutierrez, 2013). In this sense, it is essential to consider the differences between learning one's mother tongue and learning a second language. For one, it is well known that we learn our mother

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tongue without an awareness or knowledge about grammar (Renou, 2001). However, in learning a second language, linguistic accuracy is interrupted unless emphasis is placed on language form (Renou, 2001). Additionally, certain types of knowledge and skills in a second language may be difficult to obtain through untutored learning and thus require instruction (Gutierrez, 2013). Consequently, communicative language teaching has been criticized recently for neglecting attention to forms of language, and SLA research has begun to underscore the developmental value of "enhanced noticing" and "consciousness raising" in L2, paving the way for the language awareness movement to develop (Carter, 2003). Language awareness, also known as "knowledge about language", refers to "the consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Carter, 2003:64). Although initial research in language awareness has shown findings on its behalf, some factors have been densely researched, such as "the role of metalanguage in learners' responses and whether metalinguistic knowledge can enhance or hinder language development" (Carter, 2003:65). Of these limited number of research studies, some found weak or no correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency, while some others found positive correlations between the two. After all, the results are inconclusive and thus it is not clear how metalinguistic knowledge contributes to SLA. Therefore, further research is needed on the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency in order to gain better and clearer insights into the role of metalinguistic knowledge in SLA development.

With regard to why it is necessary to gain better and clearer insights into the role of metalinguistic knowledge in SLA development, Berry (2005) points out that knowledge and use of metalanguage is likely to make the development of an L2 learner's metalinguistic awareness, which in turn is likely to foster second language development. Additionally, Zipke (2007) states that bilinguals' better ability to understand an unknown language compared to monolinguals may be attributed mostly to their greater metalinguistic awareness. Moreover, studies investigating learner strategies and good language learners reveal the benefits of metalinguistic skills such as treating language as a system and paying attention to form (Siegel, 2005). Furthermore, some SLA researchers note usefulness of explicit L2 knowledge (R.Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2009, & N. Ellis, 2011). To exemplify, explicit L2 knowledge may make learners' establishment of links between form and meaning faster and thus facilitates L2 acquisition. It may also provide saliency for certain grammar features, which is likely to enable learners to notice them. In addition to this, explicit L2 knowledge may contribute to linguistic problem solving where implicit knowledge is insufficient. It may help L2 learners to produce the target language consciously as well, which may turn into implicit learning through practice.

1.1. Theoretical Background

1.1.1. Instructed SLA

Adult second language acquisition (SLA) is difficult, varied and often poor in terms of outcome (Doughty, 2003). Second language (L2) instruction aims at solving, or at least ameliorating, these problems. However, the issue of instructed second language acquisition has been contentious among SLA researchers (Doughty, 2003). At one end of the continuum, there is the non-interventionist position by Long and Robinson (1998). According to the non-interventionist position, SLA is driven by the Universal Grammar (UG), and is entirely incidental just like first language acquisition. The claim that SLA is driven by the UG is also contentious. According to the full-transfer, full-access hypothesis (Schwartz, 1993), for instance, both first and second language acquisition heavily rely on positive evidence (input), and there is no role for negative evidence (instruction). For some others (White, 1987; 1991), on the other hand, "negative evidence that is provided by instruction is also necessary, but the need for instruction is limited to cases where the triggering evidence is not informative enough". In other words, from the UG perspective, instruction is either required too rarely

or considered totally unnecessary. When it comes to the claim that SLA is incidental just like first language acquisition, according to the Input Hypothesis within the Monitor Theory by Krashen (1982, 1985), traditional instructional devices such as grammar teaching, linguistic grading and error correction are proscribed because of the non-interface between learned and acquired knowledge. In other words, rich and comprehensible input is crucial for acquisition, whereas L2 instruction might provide learning only. However, considering that learning cannot become acquisition, L2 instruction is unnecessary.

Doughty (2003) states that both versions of the non-interventionist position, namely, no-negative-evidence and non-interface, are too extreme. Additionally, child language acquisition and adult SLA differ in the cognitive processes they involve, and thus adult SLA is likely to be more difficult, slower and less successful without instruction (Doughty, 2003). So, at the other end of the continuum, there is the necessity of L2 instruction in the classroom. However, this is not free from debate, either. In this sense, Doughty and Williams (1998) point out that the crucial question is what would make the most effective and efficient instructional plan considering the normal constraints of SLA in the classroom. As for the overall effectiveness of L2 instruction, Long (1983), having reviewed a handful of empirical studies, stated that L2 learners are likely to benefit from instruction if they are exposed to L2 input only in the classroom. Long (1988) expanded his study with regard to the effectiveness of L2 instruction within four operationalized domains of SLA, namely SLA processes, SLA route, SLA rate and level of ultimate SL attainment. A review of the studies investigating SLA processes such as transfer, generalization, elaboration, stabilization, destabilization, noticing, omission and oversuppliance, revealed that although both instructed and untutored learners follow similar paths in SLA, the processes they observe vary. For example, Pica (1983) found that although morphemes emerge in more or less the same order for both instructed and untutored learners, untutored learners tend to omit obligatory morphemes at lower proficiency levels, while instructed learners tend to oversupply them, which is attributed to the role of instruction. With regard to SLA route and SLA rate, it was found that developmental sequences such as the acquisition of negation, interrogatives, relativization and word order, are affected by instruction although the stages are not skipped and the whole route cannot be changed (Pienemann, 1989). In addition to this, the rate of instructed SLA is faster than the rate of untutored SLA (Doughty, 2003). The studies investigating the final domain of SLA, namely the ultimate attainment in the L2, pointed out that instruction enables learners to make more progress towards L2. To exemplify, research has shown that if learners are exposed to marked aspects of L2 via instruction, they can acquire unmarked aspects as well (Doughty, 1988; Eckman, Bell, and Nelson, 1988; Gass, 1982). However, untutored L2 learners may never gain access to marked input and can acquire only the unmarked aspects of L2 (Pavesi, 1986). In sum, these studies contributed to the assumption that L2 instruction is effective.

Apart from the overall effectiveness of L2 instruction, another equally important issue is the relative effectiveness of different types and categories of the instruction. In this sense, the main questions are whether explicit or implicit instruction is better, and to what extent and how learner attention should be focused on the elements of the second language (Doughty, 2003). Prior to defining explicit and implicit instruction, it is first necessary to make a distinction between direct and indirect instruction. Direct instruction is specifying what is learnt beforehand, whereas indirect instruction is creating conditions in which learners can learn experientially through learning how to communicate in L2 (Ellis, 2005). Explicit instruction includes direct intervention, while implicit instruction includes indirect intervention. Explicit approach to instruction refers to explaining rules to learners, or helping learners find rules by drawing their attention to forms. Implicit approach to instruction, on the other hand, indicates making no overt reference to rules or forms. Directing learners' attention to language forms may be in isolation, during meaning processing (explicit instruction) or not at all (implicit

instruction), which can be better understood by the tripartite distinction among, focus on form, forms and meaning. Long (1991) notes that focus-on-form refers to "overtly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication." (p.46) Doughty and Williams (1998) point out that "a focus on form entails a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on formS is limited to such a focus, and focus on meaning excludes it." (p.4) Based on this distinction, Doughty and Williams (1998) list a number of differences between form-focused instruction and forms-focused instruction in SLA. To begin with, "form" refers to the general language form, whereas "forms" refers to isolated, specific language forms. Second, in focus-on-form instruction, learners engage in meaning before they explore some linguistic features, and there is an occasional shift of attention to form, whereas in focus-on-forms instruction, the focus is primarily on linguistic features. Moreover, focus-on-form instruction depends on perceived problems in comprehension or production; however, focus-on-form instruction is pre-selected in the syllabus. Finally, focus-on-form is an analytic approach to SLA, in which linguistic features are explored in contexts, whereas focus-on-forms is a synthetic approach to SLA, in which forms are taught in isolation.

Doughty and Williams (1998) signifies that focus-on-form requires presence of form and meaning at the same time so that learners' attention could be drawn to the linguistic elements of the language in order to get the meaning across, which may be one of the reasons why it is preferred over focus-on-forms and focus-on-meaning alone. Additionally, research studies conducted in immersion programs in Canada have shown that L2 learners are not able to attain target-like levels of some linguistic features if classroom second language learning focuses merely on meaning. Moreover, some kind of pedagogical intervention is necessary for some aspects of the language that learners cannot notice on their own (Doughty, 2003). Furthermore, classroom SLA is limited, which can be overcome with help of pedagogical interventions embedded in communicative activities. Therefore, recently, SLA practitioners have been more interested in focus-on-form approaches that merge formal instruction into communicative language use. There are a variety of research issues on focus-on-form instruction such as whether or not to focus on form, timing for focus on form, contextual factors affecting focus on form, proactive versus reactive focus on form, what forms to focus on, the degree of explicitness, curricular decision and cognitive underpinings on focus on form (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Doughty, 2001; Long & Robinson, 1998). Ways of focusing on form include conscious reflection, noticing the gap, hypothesis formulation and testing, meta-talk, recasting, visual input enhancement such as utilizing italics, bolding, enlargement, underlining, coloring. Additionally, Gass and Selinker (2008) maintain that metalinguistic training in focusing on form is likely to enable learners to be sensitive to grammatical form as well rather than to lexical form only.

1.1.2. Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

Prior to defining explicit and implicit knowledge, it is first necessary to make a distinction between explicit/implicit knowledge and explicit/implicit learning (Han & Ellis, 1998). Schmidt (1994) states that explicit/implicit learning indicates the learning process, whereas explicit/implicit knowledge refers to what learners obtain at the end of the learning process, or the innate knowledge that is not learned at all (as cited in Han & Ellis, 1998). When it comes to the difference between explicit and implicit L2 knowledge, the latter is simply "knowledge of language" (Han & Ellis, 1998:5). Implicit L2 behavior is evident in language behavior, and cannot be accessed independently of this behavior (Bialystok, 1990). Mathews et al. (1989) maintain that implicit knowledge is memory-based rather than rule-based. Reber (1989), however, claims that implicit knowledge may be rule-based to some extent depending on Berko (1958), who reveals that child language learners are able to apply rules that they have internalized to new languages (as cited in Han & Ellis, 1998).

Explicit knowledge, on the other hand, is simply "knowledge about the L2" (Han & Ellis, 1998:5). Han and Ellis (1998) break down explicit knowledge into analyzed knowledge and metalanguage. Analyzed knowledge is the knowledge about the L2 items and structures of which learners are not fully conscious, whereas metalanguage is the language used to describe or analyze the language of which learners are fully conscious. VanPatten and Benati (2010) state that declarative knowledge is sometimes used as a synonym for explicit knowledge. Declarative knowledge is defined as some kind of conscious awareness of the rules and the skill of verbalizing what is known.

The two factors that distinguish implicit L2 knowledge from explicit L2 knowledge are accessibility and awareness (Han & Ellis, 198). Implicit knowledge is easily accessed in tasks that require fluent language performance, is unanalyzed and thus held without awareness. Explicit knowledge, however, is not easily accessed without controlled effort and thus is employed in tasks requiring careful planning and monitoring. In addition to this, explicit knowledge is analyzed and model-based and consequently held consciously. Furthermore, explicit knowledge may involve metalingual knowledge, which is addressed below along with its counterpart, metalinguistic knowledge.

1.1.3. Metalingual and Metalinguistic Knowledge

The term 'metalingual' is used as the adjective of 'metalanguage' although there is controversy over the uses of the terms 'metalingual' and 'metalanguistic'. Prior to dealing with this controversion, it is first necessary to define the term 'metalanguage'. Having been the property of Linguistics, Philosophy, Logic and Semantics for long, the term 'metalanguage' is currently found increasingly in the Applied Linguistics literature (Berry, 2005). It is used with reference to such issues as the language use of language teachers, language of pedagogic grammars and the relationship between language awareness and language learners' proficiency. Berry (2005) provides a list of definitions of metalanguage, according to which metalanguage is a language that is used to talk about, discuss, describe or make statements about a language. It may be used to talk about another language as well. In addition to these definitions, Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language (1996), a non-specialist source, describes metalanguage as "any language or symbolic system used to discuss, describe or analyze another language or symbolic system." (as cited in Berry, 2005:5)

In this respect, 'metalingual' is the knowledge or awareness of 'metalanguage' (Ellis, 1994; Berry, 2005). Additionally, Dakowska (1993) and Ellis (1994) use the term 'metalingual' for the knowledge and awareness of language, too. Berry (2005), however, uses the term 'metalinguistic' for the knowledge and awareness of language. Gutierrez (2012) makes a distinction between metalinguistic knowledge and metalingual knowledge noting that metalinguistic knowledge is the explicit knowledge of the language. In this sense, metalinguistic knowledge and explicit knowledge are used interchangeably (Alderson, Clapham & Steel, 1997; Elder, 2009; Hu, 2002; Roehr, 2008, as cited in Gutierrez, 2012). Gutierrez (2012) further states that metalinguistic knowledge is measured through identification of speech parts, identification and correction of errors and verbalization of rules. Metalingual knowledge, on the other hand, is the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology or the knowledge of metalanguage. Considering this, metalingual knowledge can be measured checking whether learners use metalanguage in identifying and correcting errors.

Roehr (2007) points out "that metalinguistic knowledge has been operationalized as learners' ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors" (p.172). Metalinguistic awareness, on the other hand, is the conscious knowledge of the formal aspects of the language, specifically grammar (Renou, 2001). Some SLA researchers claim that metalinguistic awareness sheds light on the developing L2 competence (Arthur, 1980; Gass, 1994; Masny, 1991, as cited in Renou, 2001). Considering that

metalinguistic awareness is often measured using grammaticality judgment tests and error correction and justification tasks, Kellerman (1986) and Sharwood Smith's (1988) claim that learners' ability to judge whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not shows their competence also supports the role of metalinguistic awareness in L2 competence (as cited in Renou, 2001). Moreover, Germain and Seguin (1995) maintain that metalinguistic awareness, operationalized as knowledge about grammar, is essential for a number of reasons. First of all, knowledge about grammar is important because L2 learners are required to sit a variety of language exams that are based on explicit knowledge such as placement tests and proficiency exams. Second, metalinguistic awareness helps L2 learners better understand input. Third, knowledge about language enhances L2 learners' motivation and reduces stress with regard to learning a L2. Furthermore, Andrew (2004) signifies that metalinguistic awareness, which is the awareness of the language itself, its structures and functions, enables the speakers of a language to think about and use that language consciously. Similarly, Kuile and Weldhuis (2010) state that metalinguistic awareness is likely to provide learners of a L2 with the ability to discuss different ways of using that language. Lack of metalinguistic awareness, on the other hand, may result in difficulty in comprehending the structure of a language (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

1.1.4. Metalinguistic Knowledge/Awareness in L2 Learning

Research on the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge/awareness and L2 proficiency dates back to Alderson and Steel (1994), in which a battery of tests of metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude, grammatical accuracy in French and French linguistic proficiency were constructed and the relations amongst these measures were explored with a view to establishing levels of metalinguistic knowledge in first-year students of French at a British university. The tests were all found appropriate and reliable. Besides, moderate correlations were found between metalinguistic knowledge and French grammatical accuracy, and metalinguistic knowledge and language aptitude. However, proficiency in French reading did not correlate with either aptitude or metalinguistic knowledge, but correlated with French grammatical accuracy only moderately. These preliminary findings indicate that metalinguistic knowledge makes almost no contribution to L2 proficiency. Subsequently, Alderson, Clapham and Steel (1997) administered the battery to first-year students of French in six more British universities this time. As a result, the relationship metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency was reported to be weak. They note that there is no evidence to support the belief that students with the highest metalinguistic knowledge will perform better at French, or develop their French at a high rate than others. Similarly, Yeşilyurt (2005) investigated the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and foreign language proficiency of 43 Turkish EFL learners majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT). No relationship was found between the participants' metalinguistic knowledge and their proficiencies the reading, language structure and writing tests. The correlation coefficient between the participants' metalinguistic knowledge and the means of the scores of the proficiency test given to them was found to be moderate. However, it was reported that because the listening test was the only test that affected the means so speaking of a significant evidence for the role of metalinguistic knowledge in foreign language proficiency would not be very realistic.

On the other hand, there have been some other studies that found significant relationships between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency. Renou (2000), for instance, explored metalinguistic awareness among advanced-level French second language learners and its relationship to certain aspects of L2 proficiency (listening, reading, vocabulary and grammar). In addition to this, the role of communicative and grammar approaches, error types, and mode of presentation, namely oral and written, in metalinguistic awareness was also examined. It was found that the participants who had been exposed to grammar approach were better at correcting the grammar rules and providing the rule in the judgment test created to assess metalinguistic awareness. Moreover, certain items (adjective

errors, verb errors and pronoun errors) were more difficult depending on the mode of presentation. Lastly, there was a significant correlation between the judgment tests and the proficiency test, which indicates that metalinguistic awareness may have a role in L2 proficiency. Renou (2001) reinvestigated the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency of university level-French second language learners. This study also sought an answer to the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and L2 proficiency when learners have been exposed to different learning approaches, namely communicative approach and grammar approach. The data were collected using a grammaticality judgment test (both oral and written), in which the participants were asked to identify and correct the error and provide the rule that the correction entailed, a French proficiency test and a questionnaire providing information about the learning approaches that the participants had been exposed to. As a result, a moderate significant correlation was found between both oral and written versions of the judgment test and French proficiency for the entire sample. However, the correlation was non-significant for the participants who had been exposed to communicative approach, whereas it remained significant and even increased in the case of the participants who had been exposed to grammar approach. In other words, increases in metalinguistic awareness are associated with increases in proficiency once learners have been exposed to explicit grammar instruction; however, indicating that metalinguistic awareness may be only one of the factors influencing L2 development along with many others. In a different L2 environment, Elder and Manwaring (2004) also investigated the role of metalinguistic knowledge in learning a foreign language among Chinese second language learners. For this purpose, the study sought answers to 1) what intermediate-level learners of Chinese know about the grammar of the Chinese language, 2) whether their different experiences with regard to learning a foreign language are associated with different levels of grammatical knowledge, and 3) whether there is a relationship between their L2 grammar knowledge and their Chinese proficiency. The data were collected using a Chinese metalinguistic assessment, designed by the researcher based on Alderson et al. (1997), and Chinese achievement tests. The Chinese metalinguistic assessment consisted of two sections, in which the participants were asked to match metalinguistic terms of parts of speech to the relevant items in sentences in Chinese, and correct the error in a number of Chinese sentences, formulate the rule and use appropriate metalinguistic terminology.   Results reveal that L2 metalinguistic knowledge is low among Chinese second language learners. However, surprisingly, the participants who had studied L2 for a shorter term performed better in grammatical knowledge. With regard to the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 performance, the relationship was stronger for the late-starters than the participants who had studied L2 for a longer time, indicating that late-starters are more reliant on grammatical knowledge for L2 success. In another L2 context, Roehr (2007) carried out an investigation to find out the relationship between L2 proficiency and L2 metalinguistic knowledge among advanced university-level English learners of German. The secondary aim of the current study is to look into the relationship between the ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors and language-analytic ability, which refers to the ability to identify the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. The data were collected employing a proficiency test, consisting of gap-filling and multiple-choice test items, and a metalinguistic test. The metalinguistic test also consisted of two sections. The first section assessed the participants' ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors, whereas the second section assessed the participants' ability to identify the grammatical of parts of speech in L2 sentences. Consequently, a strong positive correlation was found between L2 proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge. Another important finding of the current study is that the ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors and the ability to identify the grammatical of parts of speech in L2 sentences may be the components of the same complex construct: metalinguistic awareness. A very recent related study, Alipour (2014), looked into the issue among university-level Iranian EFL learners. Similar to the previous studies, the metalinguistic knowledge test assessed learners' ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors

embedded in L2 sentences. L2 proficiency, operationalized as L2 grammar, on the other hand, was assessed using a cloze-test. As a result of a bivariate regression analysis, a moderate significant relationship was found between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency among Iranian EFL learners. Another recent study, Tokunaga (2014), investigated 1) what metalinguistic features can be recognized by low-intermediate level Japanese university students, and 2) the correlation between their English proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge. The participants had difficulty identifying basic parts of speech and parts of sentences, which suggests that many of them lack the metalinguistic knowledge. In addition to this, significant correlations were found between the participants' proficiency test scores and metalinguistic knowledge, with the strongest correlation being between reading scores and metalinguistic knowledge.

Still some other researchers have looked into the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and metalingual knowledge as well. Hu (2011), for one, focused on the relationship between L2 learners' metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge. Result revealed that the participants possessed a great deal of metalinguistic knowledge and used a large amount of metalingual terms in the rule-verbalization task. For another, Gutierrez (2013) examined the development of metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge among university-level learners of Spanish, and the relationship between these two types of knowledge and L2 proficiency. Unlike Hu (2011), results revealed that the participants showed limited metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge. It was also found that metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge correlated with written L2 proficiency but not with oral L2 proficiency.

The relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and some language-related variables other than L2 proficiency has also been examined. To illustrate, Hu (2002) explored the psychological factors that influence access to metalinguistic knowledge in L2 production. Results revealed that there are major psychological constraints on the use of metalinguistic knowledge in L2 performance. First, prototypicality contributes to grammatical accuracy. In other words, L2 learners are likely to show more grammatical accuracy for more prototypical target uses. Moreover, attention to form also predicts greater grammatical accuracy. Furthermore, there is a significant relationship between prototypicality and attention to form, which underscores the influence of processing automaticity. Roehr and Ganem-Gutierrez (2009) investigated the relationship among L2 metalinguistic knowledge, language learning aptitude and working memory for language among university-level English learners of German and Spanish. Findings indicate that cumulative years of study of other foreign languages and years of formal L2 study significantly predicted metalinguistic knowledge along with the forth and the fifth section of Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT), namely words in sentences and paired associates. Working memory, however, did not contribute to metalinguistic knowledge. This study is significant in the sense that it supports the claim that the development of metalinguistic knowledge is influenced by external variables such as exposure to formal L2 study as well as learner-internal individual differences.

1.2. Research questions

The primary purpose of the current study is to find out the nature of metalinguistic knowledge that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners have developed, and to examine the relationship between their metalinguistic knowledge and L2 (English) achievement. For this purpose, the current study seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of metalinguistic knowledge that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners have developed?
2. What is the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Convenience sampling was used to select the participants of the present study. A total of 38 intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners attending a large scale Turkish university were randomly chosen to participate in the present study. The participants were studying at two A-level classes, corresponding to intermediate level in Global Scale of English (GSE), according to which this university determines learners' proficiency level. The participants had been learning English for almost ten years and reported having been exposed to mostly explicit grammar instruction throughout those years. They were all native speakers of Turkish, and learned Turkish grammar formally in classroom as well.

2.2. Instruments

For the purpose of the present study, a metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT) was developed by the researcher within the light of the previous research (Roehr, 2007; Tokunaga, 2014). MKT consists of two sections, namely MKT-I and MKT-II. MKT-I consists of 15 items and assesses learners' ability to correct a grammatically incorrect structure in L2 (English) and define and explain why it is incorrect. For the accomplishment of MKT-I, the participants were asked to correct an underlined word or phrase embedded in an L2 sentence, and describe the error or explain why the underlined part is grammatically incorrect. The grammar subjects covered in this section of the test include question forms (2 items), modals/modal like expressions (3 items), relative clauses (2 items), tenses (3 items), if-clauses (2 items), countable-uncountable nouns/articles (2 items) and comparative/superlative (1 item). MKT-II consists of 15 items and assesses learners' ability to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. For the accomplishment of MKT-II, the participants were provided with 15 sentence pairs, in the first of which there is an underlined word whose part of speech (noun, verb, adjective, adverb and preposition) the participants were asked to write next to the sentence. In the second sentence of each pair, there were four underlined words, and the participants were asked to circle the one which has the same part of speech with the underlined word in the first sentence. There were three items for each part of speech used in this test. A practice item was provided for each section of the test. The sentences were in English, whereas the instructions were all in Turkish. As for the error description/explanation in MKT-I, the participants were allowed to use either L1 (Turkish) or L2 (English).

To ensure the reliability and validity of the MKT, three experienced English instructors, who were teaching at A-level and working at testing unit at AUSFL, were asked for their opinion, and accordingly necessary amendments were made. Subsequently, the test was piloted with ten intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners sharing similar characteristics with the actual participants of the present study.

With regard to scoring of MKT-I, the participants who both correct the error and describe/explain it receive 2 points, whereas those who correct the error but partially describe/explain it receive 1 point. It is worth noting that correcting the error but not describing/explaining it reflect 0 since the ability to describe a L2 error or explain why a L2 structure is grammatically incorrect is an essential part of metalinguistic knowledge/awareness. As for MKT-II, the participants who both explicitly state the part of speech of the underlined word in the first sentence and choose the word that has the same part of speech with the underlined word in the first sentence receive 2 points, whereas the participants who either state the part of speech of the underlined word in the first sentence or choose the word that has the same part of speech with the underlined word in the first sentence receive 1 point.

The participants' L2 achievement, referring to their L2 knowledge at some level level, on the other hand, was determined depending on their scores from the first mid-term exam that the university administered. This exam consists of three sections. The first section is a multiple-choice test on reading, listening, vocabulary and grammar, which makes up 60 percent of learner's overall mid-term score. The second section, making up 20 percent of learners' overall mid-term score, is a writing exam, in which students are required to write a well-organized essay on one of the two given topics. Finally, the third section is a speaking exam, in which learners orally answer two sets of individual questions, and discuss a topic in pairs. All of the questions are parallel to the learning outcomes of A level (intermediate) according to GSE. It is worth mentioning that each of the writing and speaking exams are evaluated by two raters and the average of their grades make a student's final score for each exam.

2.3. Data collection procedures

The present study was conducted in the spring semester of 2015-2016 year. First, the mid-term exam was administered in the ninth week of the semester. Two weeks later, in the eleventh week of the semester, MKT was administered to the participants. The participants completed MKT at their own pace with the presence of the researcher. Prior to the administration of the test, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study, told that they would not be graded doing this test, and warned not to cheat.

2.4. Data analysis

Quantitative data collected by means of the Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT), designed by the researcher, and AUSFL mid-term exam were computed in SPSS version 20. In order to answer the first research question, which is about the nature of metalinguistic knowledge developed by intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, the participants' scores from the MKT were analyzed employing descriptive statistics. In addition to this overall analysis, the participants' scores from two separate sections of the MKT were compared using paired samples t-test so as to detect whether the participants differ in their abilities to correct and describe/explain an incorrect L2 item, and to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. In order to answer the second research question, which is about the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were calculated. To gain better insights into the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement, a series of bivariate and multiple regression analyses were carried out for further analysis.

3. Results

Regarding the first research question, which is about the nature of metalinguistic knowledge developed by intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, descriptive statistics reveals that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study have moderate metalinguistic knowledge, indicating that they have moderate ability to correct a grammatically incorrect L2 structure and explain why it is incorrect, and to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. As the first row of Table 1 below shows, the minimum and maximum scores are 17 and 90 respectively, whereas the mean score is 63.89 for the overall metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT). In addition to this, half of the participants (n=19, 50%) fall into the interquartile range (Q2) in terms of their MKT scores. With regard to the other half of the

participants, 10 of them (26.3%) fall into the first quartile (Q1), namely the lower achievers, whereas 9 participants (23.7%) fall into the third quartile (Q3), namely the high achievers.

Table 1. MKT: Descriptive Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
MKT	17	90	63.89	18.71
MKT-I	13	90	53.50	22.45
MKT-II	13	100	73.63	19.37

With regard to the sections of the MKT, the second and third rows of Table 1 above reveals that the participants' mean score for the first section of the metalinguistic test (*M*=53.50, *SD*=22.45) is lower than that of the second section (*M*=73.63, *SD*=19.37). This finding may indicate that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study performed better in one type of metalinguistic ability than another. In order to verify this assumption, a paired samples t-test was carried out on the participants' scores from MKT-I (*M*=53.50, *SD*=22.45) and MKT-II (*M*=73.63, *SD*=19.37). A statistically significant difference was found between MKT-I and MKT-II among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study *t* (37)=-6.665, *p*<0.01. This means that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners are better at identifying and explicitly stating the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences than correcting a grammatically incorrect L2 structure and explaining why it is incorrect.

Regarding the second research question, which is about the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, results of the correlation analysis, as shown in Table 2 below, indicate that there is not a statistically significant difference between MKT and overall L2 achievement, assessed using the mid-term exam, among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study, *r*=.093. Subsections of the MKT do not correlate with overall L2 achievement, either, *r*=.158 and *r*=-.011 respectively. This indicates that there is not a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study.

Table 2. Correlation Analysis

	Mida	Mid-Ib	Mid-IIc	Mid-IIId
MKT	.093	.019	.016	.446**
MKT-I	.158	.103	.063	.403*
MKT-II	-.011	-.087	-.041	.383*

a: Overall mid-term score

b: Listening, reading, vocabulary, grammar

c: Speaking

d: Writing

*: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

**: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

However, there are statistically significant correlations between the participants' overall MKT scores as well as their scores from the sub-sections of the MKT and writing sub-test of the mid-term exam. As Table 2 above shows, there is a significant moderate correlation between MKT and writing exam, *r*=.446. Additionally, both sections of the MKT significantly moderately correlate with the

writing exam, *r*=.403 and *r*=.383 respectively. This finding indicates that there is a significant correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and writing achievement. In other words, learners' ability to correct, describe/explain an incorrect L2 item; identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences may contribute to their ability to write a well-developed essay in L2 on a given topic. With the purpose of (dis)confirming this potential contribution of metalinguistic knowledge to L2 writing, a bivariate regression analysis was computed with the dependent and independent variables being writing exam and MKT respectively.

As a result of the regression analysis, metalinguistic knowledge significantly explains the 19.9 % of the variance in writing achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, *p*<.01. Considering that the two subsections of the MKT assess different aspects of metalinguistic knowledge, two more bivariate regression analyses were carried out in order to find out independent contributions each section makes to writing achievement. Results reveal that MKT-I, namely the ability to correct, describe/explain an incorrect L2 item, significantly explains 16.2% of the variance in writing achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, whereas MKT-II, namely the ability to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences, explains 14.7 % of the variance in writing achievement. Moreover, a further multiple regression analysis with the independent variables being MKT-II and MKT-I respectively, reveals that MKT-I, the ability to correct, describe/explain an incorrect L2 item, makes a unique 4.5% contribution to writing achievement above and beyond MKT-II, the ability to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. These findings indicate that two different aspects of metalinguistic knowledge predict writing achievement with the ability to correct, describe/explain an incorrect L2 item playing a more crucial role.

4. Discussion

As far as the participants' performance on the metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT) is concerned, the results reveal that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the current study are able to correct a grammatically incorrect L2 structure as well as explaining why it is incorrect, and identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences to a moderate extent (RQ1). However, metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT) utilized in the current study assesses only the basics of English grammar knowledge in accordance with the curriculum and the course book used at intermediate-level at a large scale Turkish university. In other words, all of the items in MKT cover the grammar topics the participants had already been taught by the time of the current study, and the sentences were grammatically at their level. Despite this, they performed relatively lower. Therefore, it would be more appropriate to state that the explicit metalinguistic understanding of intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners is weak. In this respect, the current study is in keeping with the previous research (Alderson et al, 1997; Elder & Manwaring, 2004). The explanation might be first that the participants are not used to verbalizing what they know with regard to grammar rules in English. This is reasonable because the participants' grammar knowledge has been assessed using mostly multiple-choice tests so far. When it comes to the cases where grammar knowledge is assessed through learners' production as part of writing or speaking exams, they just produce the language that they believe is correct without any rule verbalization. This was probably the first time that they were formally asked to verbalize what they know with regard to grammar rules in English; therefore, they may have not reflected their explicit metalinguistic understanding well enough. Second, the participants of the present study may not be knowledgeable enough in metalanguage of English, which will be further discussed below. Third, their lack of metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge related to their L1 may have a negative influence on their L2 metalinguistic knowledge. This explanation, for

sure, requires further research, which will investigate L1 metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge, and its relationship with L2 metalinguistic and metalingual knowledge as well as L2 proficiency. However, the participants' off-the-record comments on the MKT, indicating that they cannot perform well at such a test even in their native language, and the researcher's observations as a teacher at the research site suggest that it sounds reasonable, too.

The MKT assessed two different aspects of metalinguistic knowledge, namely the ability to correct a grammatically incorrect L2 structure as well as explaining why it is incorrect, and the ability to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. The participants of the current study differed in their performance with respect to different aspects of metalinguistic knowledge. The participants' significantly better performance at the second section of the MKT, assessing their ability to identify and explicitly state the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences, makes no surprise since it depends heavily on recognition of parts of speech, and requires only a bit of production (namely writing the part of speech of an underlined word next to it). Nevertheless, there are still those students who cannot label the appropriate part of speech of a word although they can recognize the word in the second sentence with the same part of speech of the underlined word in the first sentence. This also supports that metalinguistic knowledge is low among Turkish EFL learners.

When it comes to the first section of the MKT, assessing Turkish EFL learners' ability to correct a grammatically incorrect L2 structure and explain why it is incorrect, their performance would have been far better if correction only had received full score. In other words, almost all of the participants were good at correcting the L2 error, but had difficulty describing the error or explaining why it is incorrect. Therefore, it would be plausible to maintain that for Turkish EFL learners, the ability to correct erroneous sentences may not always go hand in hand with the ability to explain the rule that has been violated in those sentences. This finding also corresponds with Alderson et al. (1997) and Elder and Manwaring (2004). Additionally, in order to gain better insights into the participants' metalinguistic knowledge, it is necessary to consider how they attempted to describe or explain the error. A further examination of the participants' description or explanation of the L2 errors reveal that they are in fact not knowledgeable enough in English metalanguage. They either just corrected the rule and avoided describing the error or explaining why it is grammatically incorrect, or provided a very brief and superficial explanation for the error. In their explanations, majority of the participants used very common terminology such as subject, verb, modal, passive and tense, and mentioned such suffixes as –ed and –ing. Higher achievers mentioned more terms such as auxiliary verb, uncountable noun, relative clause, article, conditional, infinitive, comparative. The participants who scored the lowest, on the other hand, did not use even very basic terms such as uncountable and definite/indefinite article. It is also evident that the participants misuse some terminology. For example, they labeled *to infinitive* as *preposition* and *relative pronouns* as *connectors* considering that they are used to combine two sentences. To illustrate:

Participant 28: "We cannot use preposition to between 'should' and the main verb."

(MKT-I, Item-9)

"We should use the connector 'whose' in this sentence because the sentence is about his brother."
(MKT-I, Item-10)

A further examination of the participants' description or explanation of the L2 errors, as described above, indicates the role of the relationship between L2 metalingual knowledge and metalinguistic knowledge on L2 achievement. In other words, the relatively lower performance of the participants on the metalinguistic knowledge test in the present study may be attributed to the lack of their metalingual knowledge rather than the lack of their metalinguistic knowledge alone.

With respect to the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners (RQ2), statistical analysis reveals that metalinguistic knowledge, assessed using a test based on error correction, rule verbalization and recognition of parts of speech, does not significantly correlate with grammar knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, reading achievement and speaking achievement at all. Writing achievement, however, is significantly correlated with metalinguistic knowledge at a moderate strength. In this sense, the findings of the present study are somehow intriguing. On one hand, the present study seems to be in line with the previous research studies that have not found a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency (Alderson & Steel, 1994; Alderson, Clapham & Steel, 1997). On the other hand, the significant moderate correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and writing achievement in the present study makes it corroborate the research studies that have found a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency (Renou, 2000; 2001; Elder & Manwaring, 2004; Alipour, 2014; Tokunaga, 2014). Both similar and divergent findings between the present study and the previous studies may be attributed to the data collection instruments used. First, considering that there is not an established metalinguistic knowledge test and each researcher has to design their own test, there may be variations across the metalinguistic knowledge tests used in different studies. However, since almost all of these tests have been designed in a similar way (as previous research shows), this is a weak possibility. Therefore, a better explanation might lie in the achievement tests used in these studies. It is first necessary to take into consideration that in some of these studies, proficiency tests were used, whereas in some others achievement tests were utilized. Second, most of the previous studies operationalize L2 proficiency/achievement as grammar knowledge only or grammar and vocabulary knowledge. Few studies involve reading, speaking and writing skills as a part of L2 proficiency/achievement. Therefore, the finding of the present study that there is a significant moderate correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and writing achievement among EFL learners is likely to make it stand out among others.

Apart from the bivariate correlation between the two, the significant contribution of metalinguistic knowledge to writing achievement, obtained as a result of a series of bivariate and multiple regression analyses, confirms the relationship. Therefore, the significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and writing achievement requires further attention. It is first necessary to consider what the writing exam used in the present study is like. In this exam, students are provided with two different topics along with a number of key words, and are asked to write an essay accordingly. Writing criteria consist of five components, namely task achievement, wiring fluency, grammatical competence, lexical competence and mechanics. In this sense, the writing exam in question covers what previous research operationalizes as L2 proficiency: grammatical and lexical competence. Apparently, metalinguistic knowledge does not contribute to grammar knowledge assessed using a multiple-choice test but grammatical competence assessed as a part of a written exam. The reason might lie in the way these exams were designed. The grammar subtest used in the present study is a multiple-choice exam, which requires learners to recognize grammar. The grammatical competence covered in the writing exam, on the other hand, assesses learners' ability to produce appropriate L2 grammar, which may require them to use their metalinguistic knowledge. Therefore, those who are good at metalinguistic knowledge may be able to produce grammatically better sentences. For example, being aware of grammatical roles of parts of speech in L2 sentences may not be essential in order to perform well at a multiple-choice grammar test but at writing well-formed sentences. In other words, it may be safe to arrive at the conclusion that metalinguistic knowledge matters in written production although it has nothing worthy of note to do with recognition of L2 grammar, generally assessed using multiple-choice tests.

5. Implications

The findings of the current study can contribute to the importance of metalinguistic knowledge in second language acquisition among adult EFL learners, which has been regaining attention recently after having been overshadowed by communicative language teaching for a long time. Metalinguistic knowledge is likely to enable teachers and learners to explain, clarify, practice, use and reflect on the use of the target language, which will improve their understanding of linguistic constructs. Considering that metalinguistic knowledge benefits language learning, teachers may help learners to connect their metalinguistic knowledge to language production in the forms of production exercises and writing tasks so that they can learn target grammar structures more easily and reinforce what they have already learned. Teachers can show learners how the written language may be a good source of information about the formal aspects of the language, which is likely to enhance critical reflection and thus learner autonomy. Additionally, they can encourage learners to produce the language making use of their both linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge. Regarding that grammatical analysis is necessary for accurate language production (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, as cited in Roehr, 2000), teachers can carry out brainstorming activities in which they tap learners' opinions of why a certain grammar form is appropriate in one context but not in another (Roehr, 2000). Moreover, grammaticality judgment tasks can be employed in foreign language classes to focus learners' attention on formal aspects of the target language and raise awareness without formal grammar instruction. Furthermore, L2 teachers may provide metalinguistic knowledge and use metalanguage in class for L2 learners' good during self-study, and in order to enable them to gain access to accounts in grammar materials (Berry, 2001),

On the other hand, as Gutierrez (2013) and Elder and Manwaring (2004) note, metalinguistic knowledge may be useful for some structures but not for others. Therefore, teachers should be careful in selecting L2 structures to focus on. Moreover, while focusing on form and attempting to raise awareness of the target language, teachers should try not to trivialize the role of meaning and communicative purposes for learning a foreign language. In addition to this, learners' L1 background and L1 metalinguistic/metalingual awareness should also be taken into consideration because it may be easier for learners to grasp some aspects of the target language once they are familiar with metalinguistic/metalingual aspects of their native language.

6. Conclusions

The present study, examining the relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 achievement among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, reveals that L2 metalinguistic knowledge is weak among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners. This may be explained with a number of reasons such as the participants' unfamiliarity with rule verbalization, lack of their L2 metalingual knowledge and lack of their L1 metalinguistic knowledge. The findings of the present study also suggest that L2 metalinguistic knowledge significantly contributes to L2 writing achievement explaining some of the variance in participants' writing exam scores. The fact that L2 metalinguistic knowledge does not contribute to grammar achievement, assessed using a multiple choice test, but grammatical competence, assessed as part of a writing test, indicates that metalinguistic knowledge is related to grammar production rather than recognition.

It goes without saying that the findings of the present study as well as those of the previous ones would benefit from further research. For instance, a larger-scale study might investigate the relationship between L1 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 metalinguistic knowledge and their contribution to L2 proficiency. The relationship between L2 metalingual knowledge and L2

metalinguistic knowledge may be probed as well. Additionally, it would be necessary to conduct a study to draw comparisons across several proficiency levels in order to provide better insights into the relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency. Furthermore, future research may include other L2 proficiency-related variables such as language aptitude, and investigate unique contribution of metalinguistic knowledge to L2 proficiency above and beyond those other variables.

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Appendix A. Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT)

Section I: Correct, Describe, Explain

Instruction: There are 15 sentences in English below. In each sentence, there is one underlined word or phrase that is grammatically incorrect. First, provide the correct form of this underlined word or phrase next to "Correction" below the sentence. Then, describe the error or explain why the underlined part is grammatically incorrect next to "Description/Explanation". Have a look at the practice item below.

Practice Item: This is the worstest film that I have ever seen.

Correction: the worst

Description/Explanation: The adjective "bad" has got an irregular superlative form and it must be "the worst". It cannot take the –est suffix that we use to form regular superlative adjectives.

1. Who did teach you a valuable lesson?
Correction:
Description/Explanation:
2. Everybody must leaving the building by 6 p.m.
Correction:
Description/Explanation:
3. Barbara works for a company where makes washing machines.
Correction:
Description/Explanation:
4. She is only 27, but she has been visiting almost 50 countries so far.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
5. Children used to played around on the streets in the old days.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
6. It wouldn't be as bad if we don't have so many exams this year.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
7. Liz doesn't usually wear jewelry but yesterday she was wearing necklace.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
8. When you first thought yourself as an adult?
Correction:
Description Explanation:
9. I think you should to check what time the film starts.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
10. I have a friend who brother is a famous singer.
Correction:

Description Explanation:
11. If you will come to the party tonight, will you bring a friend?
Correction:
Description Explanation:

12. I have been reading the book you lent me, so you can take it back.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
13. I don't think Ann will get the job because she hasn't got enough informations.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
14. The weather is warm enough to have a picnic today – more warmer than I thought.
Correction:
Description Explanation:
15. Albert Einstein is the scientist who has developed the theory of relativity.
Correction:
Description Explanation:

Section II: Language-Analytic Knowledge
Instruction: There are 15 sentence-pairs below. In the first sentence of each pair, there is an underlined word. Write below that word what part of speech it is (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition). In the second sentence of each pair, there are four underlined words. Circle the word that has the same part of speech with the underlined word in the first sentence. Have a look at the example below.

Practice Item: David <u>invited</u> us to his birthday party. → VERB

My <u>dad</u> promised me to <u>buy</u> an <u>ice cream</u> if I behaved <u>well</u>.
                    A.   **B.**   C.   D.

1.   I offered to pay the <u>bill</u>, but she refused. →

        I <u>need</u> a holiday, but <u>flights</u> are <u>always</u> expensive at <u>this</u> time of year.
          A.   B.   C.   D.
2.   All articles are discussed **by** our board of editors. →

        The <u>boys</u> were driving <u>along</u> Court <u>Street</u> when a motorbike <u>hit</u> the car.
            A.   B.   C.   D.
3.   We are making <u>progress</u> all the time. →

        I am <u>reading</u> a <u>novel</u> called The Road <u>at</u> the <u>very</u> moment.
          A.   B.   C.   D.
4.   If I had known that it was so <u>hard</u>, I would have asked for help. →

        Simon was feeling <u>exhausted</u> because the <u>baby</u> hadn't <u>slept</u> all <u>night</u>.
                            A.   B.   C.   D.
5.   Please make sure that you <u>sign</u> your name. →

        James Dean was <u>speeding</u> in his car <u>at</u> the <u>time</u> of the <u>accident</u>.

          A.   B.   C.   D.

6.   The <u>discovery</u> of penicillin was an accident. ➙

She <u>asked</u> her <u>boss</u> for <u>some</u> time off work, but he <u>said</u> no.
      A.   B.   C.   D.

7.   Ideas spread <u>quickly</u> because of the Internet. ➙

A <u>recent </u>study <u>tells</u> us that men <u>and</u> women really think <u>differently</u>.
     A.   B.   C.   D.

8.   <u>For</u> the last two hours I have been working in the garden, so I'm tired. ➙

The <u>movie</u> Die Hard <u>stars</u> Bruce Willis as a <u>policeman</u> battling <u>against</u> terrorists.
     A.   B.   C.   D.

9.   The road that we wanted to take was <u>closed</u>. ➙

While we <u>were</u> going to our <u>village</u>, the <u>train</u> was stopped by <u>deep</u> snow.
       A.   B.   C.   D.

10.   If this is a bad time, I can come <u>later</u>. ➙

When a <u>truly</u> shocking <u>event</u> happens, the brain <u>takes</u> a picture of that <u>moment.</u>
      A.   B.   C.   D.

11.   He went to school <u>without</u> eating any breakfast. ➙

We <u>moved</u> to Krakow fifty years <u>ago</u>, but my family's <u>roots</u> are <u>in</u> Warsaw.
     A.   B.   C. D.

12.   If I were you, I would <u>pack </u>some spare shoes. ➙

<u>This</u> science fiction <u>film</u> describes what happens when <u>aliens</u> <u>attack </u>Planet Earth.
  A.   B.   C. D.

13.   I'm a hundred percent <u>certain</u> of the answer. ➙

When we <u>arrived</u>, it was <u>cold</u> because Dad did not <u>open</u> the <u>heating</u>.
      A.   B.   C. D.

14.   Children <u>usually</u> start to walk at about twelve months. ➙

The <u>police</u> want to <u>know</u> what you were doing <u>between</u> 6.30 a.m. and 7.00 a.m. <u>yesterday</u>.
     A.   B.   C.   D.

15.   He can't <u>survive</u> if he doesn't take his medicine. ➙

<u>Instead</u> of talking for hours around the <u>issue</u>, why don't you <u>just </u>say what you <u>mean</u>.
  A.   B.   C.   D.

İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta seviye yetişkin öğrencilerin üstdil işlevi bilgisi ve dil başarısı

Öz

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de büyük bir devlt ünieversitesinin Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'nda İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta seviye yetişkin öğrencilerin üstdil işlevi bilgisi ve İngilizce dil başarısı arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, üstdil işlevi bilgisi, İngilizce dilbilgisi bakımından hatalı bir cümleyi düzeltebilme ve neden hatalı olduğunu açıklayabilme, ve İngilizce cümleleri oluşturan her bir sözcüğün türünü (isim, sıfat, fiil vb.) ve görevini söyleyebilme yetisini ifade etmektedir. Bu yeti, araştırmacı tarafındna hazırlanmış ve iki bölümden oluşan bir ölçekle ölçülmüştür. Yabancı dil başarısı ise, dilbilgisi, kelime bilgisi, dinleme, okuma, konuşma ve yazma bölümlerinden oluşan vize sınavı ile ölçülmüştür. Sonuçlar, katılımcıların üstdil işlevine dair bilgilerinin zayıf olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, yapılan korelasyon ve regresyon analizleri, katılımcıların üstdil işlevi bilgilerinin, yazma sınavından elde ettikleri puanların %19.9'unu açıklayabildiğini göstermiştir. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar, daha önceki çalışmalardan elde edilen veriler ışığında tartışılmaktadır. Ayrıca, üstdil işlevi bilgisinin ikinci dil edinimine sağladığı faydalar göz önünde bulundurularak, bazı öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: İkinci dil edinimi; üstdil işlevi bilgisi; yabancı dil başarısı; İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenler.

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Discourse markers in EFL classrooms: A corpus-driven research

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Abstract

This study aims at determining discourse markers used by Turkish teachers and native teachers in EFL classrooms and comparing these items in terms of variety and frequency. To reach the objectives of the present study, two seperate corpora were compiled through audio-recordings collected from two Turkish and two native EFL teachers' lectures. AntConc (2014), a specific concordance program designed for text analysis, was utilized in the analysis of the corpus data. Corpus-driven research results indicated that Turkish teachers used 29 different discourse markers and native teachers used 37 different discourse markers in their classroom discourse. It was also seen that Turkish teachers underused most discourse markers compared to native teachers in EFL classrooms. In the light of these findings, notable implications were suggested for English language teaching.

1. Introduction

Foreign language learning has become a mainstream in today's world and many people know at least one language other than their first languages. Not surprisingly, many approaches have been brought to foreign language learning and teaching throughout the years. One of these approaches is Communicative Competence (CC) on which the theoretical foundation of the current study is based. Within CC framework, pragmatics and discourse analysis have gained paramount significance in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). Discourse and pragmatic knowledge are interrelated concepts as discourse deals with "language in use" (Gee, 2014, p. 18) while the latter concerns the "abilities for creating and interpreting discourse" (Bagaric & Mihaljevic-Djigunovic, 2007, p. 99). Both are considered as vital aspects of CC since discourse knowledge enhances pragmatic competence and pragmatically competent speakers are able to communicate effectively in a language by producing contextually appropriate utterances in given situations. To this end, discourse analysis provides an opportunity for language learners to be exposed to authentic interactions and gain awareness about the

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variability in one's linguistic choices. Among the most highlighted linguistic elements occuring in discourse analysis studies are discourse markers (DMs), the main focus of the present study.

Discourse markers are lexical items such as *oh, well, but, you know, I mean, actually, and, okay* etc. which have various functions notably serving as connective elements of speech. Fung & Carter (2007) state that according to a corpus analysis conducted by Allwood in 1996, DMs are represented among top 10 word forms in native speakers' spoken discourse. Due to the significance of DMs in native speakers' spoken discourse, a substantial body of research has been devoted to the study of DMs with an emphasis on the learner use in an English as A Foreign Language (EFL) context (Sankoff et al., 1997; Trillo, 2002; Hellermann & Vergun, 2007; Fung & Carter, 2007; Liao, 2008; Aşık & Cephe, 2013; Bu, 2013; Liu, 2013; Aysu, 2017). Some of these studies concentrated on the comparative use of DMs by native speakers and foreign language learners (Trillo, 2002; Fung & Carter, 2007; Aşık & Cephe, 2013). Some gave emphasis to the impact of various factors such as gender and style on the use of DMs by foreign language learners (Sankoff et al., 1997; Hellermann & Vergun, 2007; Liao, 2008; Bu, 2013). These studies revealed the restriction in the use of DMs by foreign language learners in their spoken discourse. As a result, further studies suggested teaching DMs explicitly to EFL learners (Rahimi & Riasati, 2012; Sadeghi & Heidaryan, 2012; Jones & Carter, 2014). In addition, empirical research has shown the efficacy of teachers' use of DMs on EFL learners' comprehension skills (Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995); Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2007). Walsh (2011) emphasizes the significance of DMs occuring in educational context as in the following :

> Words such as *right, ok, now, so, alright* - typically discourse markers - perform a very important function in signalling changes in the interaction or organisation of learning. They function like punctuation marks on a printed page: consider how difficult it would be to read a newspaper without punctuation. The same applies in a classroom if teachers fail to make appropriate use of transition markers. This important category of discourse markers enables teachers to guide learners through the discourse, hold their attention, announce a change in activity, signal the beginning or end of a lesson stage. Crucially, they help a class 'stay together' and work in harmony (p.7).

As Yang (2011) states, educational research on DMs in classroom discourse is mainly restricted to second / foreign language learners, and there is an obvious gap in literature examining DMs in teacher talk. Available research on DMs and foreign language teachers focused on exploring the attitudes of EFL teachers towards the use of DMs in EFL classrooms (Fung, 2011; Kalajahi & Abdullah, 2012; Aşık, 2015), and few research concerned describing the DMs occuring in teacher talk in the context of EFL classroom (Demirtaş, 2004; Ding & Wang, 2015).

The scarcity of research on the use of DMs in teacher talk makes the current study significant since this study provides a comparative analysis of DMs used by Turkish EFL teachers and native EFL teachers in their classroom discourse. The significance of our study can also be attributed to its implications for the field of ELT because it provides us with an understanding of whether Turkish EFL teachers in this study can model the use of these extracurricular lexical items which are not taught explicitly in foreign language classrooms.

1.1. Literature review

An extensive body of research has been devoted to the study of DMs since 1980s when Schiffrin presented a detailed report of expressions *and, because, but, I mean, now, oh, or, so, then, well* and *y'know* in 1987. Schiffrin' s (1987 as cited in Schiffrin, 2004) analysis of DMs is based on a sociolinguistic perspective in which she views discourse as both a "unit of language" and a "process of social interaction" (p. 56). Thus, she refers to DMs as social interaction organizers with particular linguistic characteristics which are pivotal to discourse coherence. According to Schiffrin (1987 as

cited in Schiffrin, 2004), DMs can be operationally defined as "sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk" (p. 57) which may be derived from various word classes including conjunctions such as *and, but, because, or, so* ; interjections such as *oh*, adverbs such as *now, well, then*, and lexicalized phrases such as *y'know* and *I mean*.

Fraser (1988, 1996, 1999, 2009) is one of the most prolific on the topic as revealed by his various publications on DMs. Contrary to Schiffrin's broad definition of DMs with a focus on discourse coherence, Fraser (1999) provides a restriction within a pragmatic approach and defines DMs as

> a pragmatic class, lexical expressions drawn from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbials and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is negotiated by the context, both linguistic and conceptual. There are two types: those that relate aspects of the explicit message conveyed by S2 with aspects of a message direct or indirect, associated with S1; and those that relate the topic of S2 to that of S1 (p. 950).

As can be seen from the description above, Fraser narrows the term to a subclass of pragmatic markers. In his report published in 1988, Fraser regarded a sentence as having two separate meanings, namely, content meaning and pragmatic meaning. Content meaning concerns state of affairs about which a speaker is talking , while pragmatic meaning indicates what messages the speaker intends to convey directly, and pragmatic markers are the linguistic devices through which pragmatic meaning is conveyed. In the report, Fraser divided pragmatic markers into three subclasses including basic, those which signal the force of the basic message; commentary, which signal a speaker comment on the basic message and parallel pragmatic markers, which signal a distinct message accompanying the basic message. Fraser (1988) considered DMs as a type of commentary pragmatic markers which "signal a comment specifying the type of sequential discourse relationship that holds between the current utterance … and the prior discourse" (p. 22).

In Blakemore's (2006) view, if the term DM is analyzed in detail, it can be suggested that the term 'discourse' requires a discourse level analysis of the lexical expressions considered as DMs and 'marker' requires an analysis of the meanings of these expressions in terms of what they signal rather than what they describe. She states that there is not a certain list of DMs in English or another language; however, the lack of such a list does not necessarily mean that it is a trivial area to study because DMs contribute to the organization of discourse and discourse coherence, providing connection between the elements of discourse.

Despite such terminology variations, when analyzed syntactically it is observed that DMs share common characteristics such as connectivity, optionality, non-truth conditionality, weak clause association, initiality, orality and multi-categoriality (Schourup, 1999). In this research, we set connectivity, optionality, non-truth-conditionality and multi-categoriality as criteria to decide whether a linguistic item can be considered as a DM as it occurs within Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora. We do not give emphasis to initiality as a criterion for DM status in our research since we concern the lexical items in the medial and final positions in this study as well. We do not need to set orality as a criterion either, since our data are already based on spoken language.

Most research pertaining to DMs in EFL context has been devoted to the investigation of DMs used by EFL learners. Some studies were carried out to investigate the role of various factors in foreign language learners' use of DMs. Hellermann & Vergun (2007) examined the use of DMs *well, you know* and *like* as they occured in classroom interaction and in home interviews. To reach the objectives of the study, they analyzed the language data gathered from 17 beginning adult learners of English residing currently in the US with no former instruction on English language. Then, they

searched for an explanation into which learners used the above DMs to what degree. They found that the participants who tended to use DMs more frequently were the more proficient ones in English language and they saw that these learners were also the ones spending more time in the US and the ones who were more acculturated to the target language.

Liao (2008) and Bu (2013) carried out two similar studies to discover variations in the use of DMs *yeah, oh, you know, like, well, I mean, ok, right* and *actually* by Chinese speakers of English. In the former study, the participants were 6 Chinese graduate students studying and working as international teaching assistants in the US while 30 Chinese university students who were 15 female and 15 male students similar in age, education, proficiency level participated in the latter study. To understand the role of gender and social contexts in the use of DMs by Chinese speakers of English, the researchers focused on two social settings, namely, classroom discussions and individual interviews. Both studies revealed that females tended to use DMs more frequently than males and all participants used DMs more in interviews than in classroom discussion.

Some of the research pertaining to DMs was conducted with a comparative basis to explore the use of DM variations between native and nonnative speakers of English. Fung & Carter (2007) and Aşık & Cephe (2013) compared the use of DMs by Hong Kong EFL learners and Turkish speakers of English respectively with that of native speakers of English. Both studies revealed the restriction in the use of DMs by nonnative speakers of English since it was found that neither Hong Kong EFL learners nor Turkish speakers of English could use DMs as variably and frequently as native speakers. Both studies also indicated that nonnative speakers used DMs with a less variety of functions than native speakers.

Among few research regarding the use of DMs by EFL teachers is Demirtaş's (2004) study conducted in a local context to identify the functions of DMs *well, I mean, you know, now, okay, so, because, but, and, or, allright, actually, anyway*, used by two Turkish EFL teachers in foreign language classrooms. It was found that the teachers used DMs for a variety of functions such as showing contrast, topic shifting, pause filling, exemplification and showing relation etc. Still, this study did not explain the variety and frequency of DMs occuring in nonnative EFL teachers' classroom discourse. A relevant study was conducted by Ding & Wang (2015) who examined the use and functions of DMs by native and Hong Kong EFL teachers in primary and secondary school settings. Results revealed that Hong Kong teachers of English tended to use DMs more frequently compared to native teachers of English. Qualitative analyses indicated that both groups of teachers used DMs for the purposes of developing interactional relationships with the students and constructing coherent classroom discourse.

1.2. Research questions

In this study, we aim at determining DMs used by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms and comparing these items in terms of variety and frequency. In accordance with the purposes of the study, following research questions are aimed to be answered in this research :

1. Which DMs do Turkish teachers use in EFL classrooms?
2. What is the frequency level of DMs used by Turkish teachers in EFL classrooms?
3. Are there any differences between the DMs used by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms?

2. Method

The pedagogy of corpus in foreign language learning and teaching has been emphasized and practiced by many specialists and researchers in the field (Conrad, 1999; Bernardini, 2004; Tognini-Bonelli, 2004; Tsui, 2004; Biber et al. , 2006; Moreno et al., 2006; Can, 2009; Huang, 2011; Şahin-Kızıl & Kilimci, 2014; Şimşek, 2015; Yangın-Ersanli, 2015). According to Cheng et al. (2003), "Corpus linguistics is the study of language through corpus-based or corpus-driven research" (p.174). The present research is descriptive in nature based on a corpus-driven approach to answer our research questions which aimed at describing and comparing the variety and frequency of DMs used by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms. This study was conducted from a corpus-driven approach since we did not turn to a tagged corpus which could have resulted in a loss of information (McEnery et al. , 2006). Instead, we compiled our own corpora which consisted of Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus and Native EFL Teachers Corpus by transcribing the audio-recordings collected in the lectures of two Turkish and two native EFL teachers.

The courses given by two Turkish and two native teachers in this study, level of the students, duration of audio-recordings, total word counts which emerged from the transcriptions of the audio-recordings collected from the teachers' lectures and corpus size are given in Table 1 which presents the description of the two corpora compiled in this study:

Table 1. Description of Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora

Corpus Name	Teachers	Course Name	Level	Duration (in hours)	Total Word Count	Corpus Size
TURKISH	T_1	Main course	Elementary	4	13366	24265
	T_2	Main course	Pre-intermediate	4	10899	
NATIVE	NT_1	General English	Elementary	4	9892	21361
	NT_2	General English	Pre-intermediate	4	11469	

In Table 1, it has been illustrated that Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus consists of two Turkish teachers' four-hour Main Course lecture recordings at elementary and pre-intermediate levels. The table shows that T_1 produced 13366 words and T_2 produced 10899 words in four class hours making a corpus size of 24265 words in total. Further, it can be seen that Native EFL Teachers Corpus consists of two native teachers' four-hour General English lecture recordings at elementary and pre-intermediate levels. NT_1 produced 9892 words and NT_2 produced 11469 words in four class hours making a corpus size of 21361 words in total.

2.1. Sample / Participants

To reach the objectives of the current study, convenience sampling was employed in the process of selecting participants who were two Turkish EFL teachers working at the School of Foreign Languages in Çukurova University and two native EFL teachers working at a language school in London. To avoid any revelation of the participants' identity, teachers were coded as Teacher $_1$ (T_1), Teacher $_2$ (T_2), Native Teacher $_1$ (NT_1) and Native Teacher $_2$ (NT_2) throughout the study.

T_1 and T_2 are two male Turkish teachers who are 40 and 48 years old respectively. They are working at the School of Foreign Languages in Çukurova University, Turkey. Both teachers have received ELT training and post-graduate degrees in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). T_1 holds an MA (Master of Arts) degree and T_2 holds a PhD. in ELT. Both teachers are experienced teachers of English who have been teaching English for over 10 years. T_1 teaches English to 25 elementary level students including 23 Turkish and 2 Syrians with an average of 18 years of age. T_2 teaches English to 30 pre-intermediate level students including 29 Turkish and 1 Syrian with an age range between 18 and 24.

NT_1 and NT_2 are two male native teachers who are 50 and 41 years old respectively. They are working at a language school in London. Both teachers are from United Kingdom with English as their native language. They both possess graduate degrees in an English language related subject receiving a training in ELT. NT_1 has a CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) and NT_2 has a DELTA (Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults). NT_1 is an inexperienced teacher having a teaching experience under four years; while NT_2 is an experienced teacher who has been teaching English for over 10 years. NT_1 teaches English to 18 elementary level students including 10 Turkish, 6 Italian and 2 Spanish with an age range between 17 and 23. NT_2 teaches English to 16 pre-intermediate level students including 6 Turkish, 5 Italian, 4 Spanish and 1 Ukranian with an age range between 18 and 25.

2.2. Instrument(s)

Audio-recordings collected from the lectures of Turkish and native EFL teachers were the main data collection tools employed in this study. The audio-recordings were later transcribed and turned into texts to compile a research corpus.

2.3. Data collection procedures

Before the compilation process of our research corpus, we asked for teachers' consents to take part in our study since their lectures were to be audio-recorded and analyzed later by the researcher. Three Turkish EFL teachers gave their consents to take part in the study on condition that they record their lectures themselves. However, among those three, we involved two of them in our study since one teacher's audio-recordings were not qualified enough to transcribe. As for the native EFL teachers, three teachers gave their consents for their lectures to be audio-recorded by the researcher on condition that their identities were kept confidential throughout the study. Yet, we included two of them in our study because of the same reason that occured with Turkish EFL teachers. Collection of audio-recordings took two months in total and we collected a 16-hour-lesson record from the lectures of two Turkish and two native EFL teachers. A 4-hour-lesson record was collected from each teacher. Afterwards, we transcribed these audio-recordings with a selection of the teachers' discourse leaving the students' out. Transcription process took another one month. Then, the transcriptions were brought together and turned into texts to compose our corpus data which were analyzed according to the descriptions in the data analysis section.

2.4. Data analysis

For the analysis of our corpus data, we first read all the transcripts twice and identified each lexical item functioning as a DM in the classroom discourse of Turkish and native EFL teachers. Then, we utilized AntConc (Version 3. 4. 4) , a freeware concordance program designed by Anthony (2014), to analyze the frequencies of these lexical items diagnosed as DMs. Through the concordance tool which displays research results in a Keyword in Context (KWIC) format, we were able to examine the

frequencies of DMs occurring in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus and Native EFL Teachers Corpus. The KWIC format also allowed us to see DMs line by line in their contexts which helped us considerably in the process of distinguishing DMs from other word classes. We read each line carefully in the light of our preset criteria to distinguish DMs from other word classes and came up with an overall frequency at the end. Eventually, because of the difference in the size of two corpora (Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus size : 24265, Native EFL Teachers Corpus size : 21361) we employed Log-likelihood (LL) statistics to compare the frequencies of DMs occurring in the two corpora.

3. Results

The Results section presents the study's findings. Results should be clear and concise. The overall frequency distribution of DMs in Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora is given in Table 2:

Table 2. Overall frequency distribution of discourse markers in Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora

	TURKISH	NATIVE
Corpus Size	24265	21361
Discourse Markers (f)	1120	2293
T/t Ratio (%)	4.62	10.73
Number of Discourse Markers	29	37

F= raw frequency of discourse markers

T/t (type/token) Ratio= percentage of discourse markers (types) in total words (tokens)

Table 2 shows that Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus size is 24265 which is larger than Native EFL Teachers Corpus size with 21361 words in total. In the table, it is seen that 29 different DMs are used by Turkish teachers and 37 different DMs are used by native teachers in EFL classrooms. The table reveals that Turkish teachers use a less variety of DMs when compared to native teachers in foreign language classrooms. The overall frequency of 29 DMs determined in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus is 1120 which composes 4.62 % of the total word count. 37 DMs determined within Native EFL Teachers Corpus has a raw frequency of 2293 which is 10.73 % of the total words in the corpus. Table 2 indicates that Turkish teachers tend to use DMs less frequently in their classroom discourse when compared to native teachers. Because of the difference in the sizes of the two corpora, log-likelihood values are calculated to make a reliable comparison between the frequencies of DMs in Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora.

Log-likelihood calculation result is given in Table 3 where we can see the overall and relative frequencies of DMs along with their occurrences per 1000 words in Turkish and Native EFL teachers corpora:

Table 3. Log-likelihood ratio of discourse markers in Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora

	TURKISH			NATIVE			LL Ratio (*p<0.05)
Corpus Size	24265			21361			
Discourse Markers	(O1)	%	n per 10000	(O2)	%	n per 1000	
	1120	4.62	46.1	2293	10.73	107.34	-574.85

O1 is observed frequency in Corpus 1
O2 is observed frequency in Corpus 2
% value shows relative frequency in the text
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
- indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

Table 3 presents the overall and relative frequencies of DMs in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus and Native EFL Teachers Corpus which are respectively 1120/4.62 and 2293/10.73. It is seen that DMs are used 46.15 times per 1000 words in Turkish corpus while they are used 107.34 times per 1000 words in the native one. The LL ratio ($p<0.05$) indicates that there is a significant underuse of DMs in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus when compared to the native corpus with a -574.85 value.

In Table 4, the raw frequencies of each DM in the two corpora and the LL calculation results are given to compare the use of DMs by Turkish and native teachers, and find overuse and underuse status in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus compared to native corpus.

Table 4. Frequencies of discourse markers in Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora

Discourse Markers	TURKISH (f)	NATIVE (f)	LL Ratio (*p<0.05)
alright	85	16	+43.35
right	56	27	+6.99
okidoki	2	0	+2.53
I believe	1	0	+1.26
I guess	1	0	+1.26
yes	131	106	+0.42
you mean	2	1	+0.22
I mean	8	7	+0.00
see	3	3	-0.02
maybe	11	11	-0.09
for example	18	18	-0.15
cos	2	3	-0.35
really	19	22	-0.77
in fact	3	5	-0.79
because	18	23	-1.42
you know what	0	1	-1.52

to begin with	0	1	-1.52
though	0	1	-1.52
anyway	1	5	-3.45
let me see	0	3	-4.55
you see	0	3	-4.55
then	5	14	-5.66
look	0	4	-6.07
you know	11	25	-7.52
kind of	0	5	-7.59
well	5	19	-10.59
or	11	30	-11.74
listen	0	8	-12.14
by the way	0	8	-12.14
now	25	52	-13.43
I think	15	38	-13.47
like	0	9	-13.66
actually	1	21	-25.00
and	167	249	-28.41
but	52	116	-33.85
oh	0	28	-42.50
just	5	68	-73.07
okay	346	633	-125.94
yeah	41	239	-181.32
so	75	471	-372.65
TOTAL	1120	2293	-574.85

f= raw frequency of discourse marker
+ indicates overuse in Turkish relative to Native
- indicates underuse in Turkish relative to Native

Table 4 presents the comparative findings of Turkish and native EFL teachers corpora in terms of DMs use with a basis on their LL ratios to indicate whether the relevant DM is overused or underused in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus compared to Native EFL Teachers Corpus. In Table 4, it is seen that Turkish EFL teachers in this particular study use 29 different DMs -*alright, right, okidoki, I believe, I guess, yes, you mean, I mean, see, maybe, for example, cos, really, in fact, because, anyway, then, you know, well, or, now, I think, actually, and, but, just, okay, yeah, so*- in their classroom discourse. Of these 29 DMs, Turkish teachers overuse eight items -*alright, right, okidoki, I believe, I guess, yes, you mean, I mean*- with an LL ratio ranging from +43.35 to +0.00 when compared to native teachers in foreign language classrooms. The DM with the highest LL ratio is *alright* which occurs 85 times within Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus and 16 times in Native EFL Teachers Corpus. The least overused DM by Turkish teachers is *I mean* which has been used eight times by Turkish teachers and seven times by native teachers.

Turkish teachers are found to underuse 32 DMs – *see, maybe, for example, cos, really, in fact, because, you know what, to begin with, though, anyway, let me see, you see, then, look, you know, kind of, well, or, listen, by the way, now, I think, like, actually, and, but, oh, just, okay, yeah, so-* with an LL ratio ranging from -0.02 to -372.65 when compared to native teachers in EFL classrooms. The least underused DM is *see* which has been used three times by both groups of speakers. The highest underuse in DMs is in *so* with 75 hits in Turkish and 471 hits in native EFL teachers corpora. Of these 32 DMs, it is seen that Turkish teachers haven't used *you know what, to begin with, though, let me see, you see, look, kind of, listen, by the way, like* and *oh* in their classroom discourse.

The table further reveals 37 different DMs used by native teachers in EFL classrooms: *alright, right, yes, you mean, I mean, see, maybe, for example, cos, really, in fact, because, you know what, to begin with, though, anyway, let me see, you see, then, look, you know, kind of, well, or, listen, by the way, now, I think, like, actually, and, but, oh, just, okay, yeah, so*. It is seen that native teachers haven't used three DMs -*okidoki, I believe, I guess*- in their classroom discourse while these are rarely used by Turkish teachers. Overall, corpus-driven research results reveal that there is a significant underuse of DMs in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus compared to native corpus.

In addition to the comparative findings regarding the frequencies of individual DMs in two corpora, the most frequently used 10 DMs in each corpus have been determined. Table 5 lists raw frequencies and type token ratios of 10 DMs which are most frequently used in overall DMs by Turkish teachers in EFL classrooms:

Table 5. Most frequently used 10 discourse markers in Turkish EFL teachers corpus

Discourse Markers	f	T/t %	N per 1000
okay	346	30.89	14.25
and	167	14.91	6.88
yes	131	11.69	5.39
alright	85	7.58	3.50
so	75	6.69	3.09
right	56	5.00	2.30
but	52	4.64	2.14
yeah	41	3.66	1.68
now	25	2.23	1.03
really	19	1.69	0.78
TOTAL	997	89.01	41.08

f= raw frequency of discourse marker in Turkish EFL teachers corpus
T/t %= percentage of discourse marker in overall discourse markers in Turkish EFL teachers corpus

Table 5 shows that *okay* has the highest frequency with 346 hits composing 30.89 % of the overall frequency of DMs in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus. *Okay* has been found to be used 14.25 times per 1000 words. The other DMs in the top 10 list with highest frequencies within the corpus are *and, yes, alright, so, right, but, yeah, now* and *really*. The table shows that the total frequency of these most frequently used 10 DMs by Turkish teachers is 997 which composes 89.01% of the overall DMs in Turkish corpus. Top 10 DMs in Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus have been used 41.08 times per 1000 words. Some instances of the most frequently used DMs within Turkish EFL Teachers Corpus can be seen in the following excerpt :

*T: Who is Catherine? She is, **yes**, she is, **yeah**, Paul's sister. **Right**. Good. **And** who is Claire? Who, who is Claire? Sally's friend from work. İşten arkadaşı. İş arkadaşı, from work. İş arkadaşı. Beraber çalıştıkları. **Okay**. **And** who is Andrew? Let's look at this pronunciation. Andrew, huh? Andrew. **Alright, good**. **So**, Andrew is Sally's boyfriend. Very nice, **okay**. Let's listen **and** let's answer the questions.*

Furthermore, Table 6 presents raw frequencies and type token ratios of 10 DMs which are most frequently used in overall DMs by native teachers in EFL classrooms:

Table 6. Most frequently used 10 discourse markers in native EFL teachers corpus

Discourse Markers	f	T/t %	N per 1000
okay	633	27.60	29.63
so	471	20.54	22.04
and	249	10.85	11.65
yeah	239	10.42	11.18
but	116	5.05	5.43
yes	106	4.62	4.96
just	68	2.96	3.18
now	52	2.26	2.43
I think	38	1.65	1.77
or	30	1.30	1.40
TOTAL	2002	87.30	93.72

f= raw frequency of discourse marker in native EFL teachers corpus
T/t %= percentage of discourse marker in overall discourse markers in native EFL teachers corpus

Table 6 indicates that *okay* has the highest frequency with 633 hits composing 27.60 % of the overall frequency of DMs in Native EFL Teachers Corpus. *Okay* has been used 29.63 times per 1000 words. The other DMs in the top 10 list with highest frequencies within the corpus are *so, and, yeah, but, yes, just, now, I think* and *or*. The table shows that the total frequency of these most frequently used 10 DMs by native teachers is 2002 which composes 87.30% of the overall DMs in native corpus. Top 10 DMs in Native EFL Teachers Corpus have been found to be used 93.72 times per 1000 words. The following excerpt presents some examples of the most frequently used DMs within Native EFL Teachers Corpus:

*NT: **Alright. So**, umm, **okay. So**, look at, umm, we are going to start today by looking at six D which is about, umm, this man, who works for Nintendo. He designs, he makes Super Mario and other games. **So**, this is page fifty four. **Yeah. And**, sixty, **yeah. Okay. And**, umm, **to begin with, just**, let us have a look at the question number one. **And**, umm, does he play a lot of video games? Number seven? Does he play a lot of video games? Very often? **Oh**, he doesn't play video games very often. **So**, he makes video games, he designs video games, **but** he doesn't play video games very often, **okay**.*

Research results reveal that *okay* is the most frequently used DM in both Turkish and native corpora. Table 5 and Table 6 show that DMs *and, yes, so, but, yeah, now* are among the most frequently used 10 DMs in both Turkish and native corpora. In addition to these seven DMs, *alright,*

right and *really* are among the top 10 DMs used by Turkish teachers while *just, I think* and *or* are presented in native teachers' top 10 list.

4. Discussion

Empirical research proved the role of teachers' using DMs in improving students' lecture comprehension skills (Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2007). Still, most research on DMs in language classrooms is restricted to language learners with few exceptions. Due to insufficiency of research on the use of DMs by teachers in EFL context, the discussion of this corpus-driven research findings is based on Ding & Wang's (2015) study as well as studies regarding the use of DMs by learners of English.

In their study investigating the use of DMs by native and Hong Kong teachers of English in primary and secondary schools, Ding & Wang (2015) found that although local EFL teachers in general used more DMs than native EFL teachers, there was a variation between the primary and secondary school settings. While native teachers tended to use more DMs in primary schools, Hong Kong teachers used more DMs in secondary schools. In this vein, what Ding & Wang's study revealed partially conflict with our findings in the present study as we found that Turkish teachers of English significantly underused DMs compared to native teachers. Further, in Ding & Wang's (2015) study, native teachers of English were seen to most frequently use *okay, so, and, right, yes, now, but, oh, just* and *yeah* in their classroom discourse. Mostly in line with Ding & Wang's (2015) study, our findings showed that *okay, so, and, yeah, but, yes, just, now, I think, or* were the most frequently used 10 DMs in native EFL teachers' classroom discourse respectively. In Hong Kong EFL teachers' corpus, *okay, right, and, now, so, yes, um, just, but, yeah* occured as the top 10 DMs respectively. Similarly, *okay, and, yes, alright, so, right, but, yeah, now, really* were listed as the most frequent 10 DMs in Turkish EFL teachers' classroom discourse. According to both Ding & Wang's (2015) study and our study, *okay* is the most frequently used DM by native, Turkish, and Hong Kong teachers of English in the classroom discourse. These findings indicate that there are both similarities and differences between Ding & Wang's (2015) study and our study. The differences may be attributed to the differences in the contexts of the two studies considering that the former was conducted at primary and secondary school settings in a Hong Kong EFL context, while the latter was conducted to examine the DMs used by teachers working with students at older ages in the settings of a language school in London and in school of foreign languages at a public university in Turkey. Further research is necessary for a better understanding of the differences across contexts in the use of DMs by teachers of English.

Considering the research devoted to the study of DMs used by learners of English (Trillo, 2002; Fung & Carter, 2007; Liao, 2008; Aşık & Cephe, 2013), we can view these studies as compatible in that they highlight the limited use of DMs by foreign language learners in their spoken discourse. Researchers generally attributed the insufficient use of DMs by EFL learners to a lack of instruction on DMs in language teaching materials and in EFL classrooms. Researchers also pointed to a lack of natural language input in language classrooms and suggested further research on the occurence of these linguistic devices in teacher talk. In fact, it was seen that Turkish EFL teachers who participated in this study significantly underused most DMs (21 out of 29) with a less variety compared to native teachers. Considering the lack of practice with native speakers, how could language learners be expected to use DMs effectively unless they are exposed to these authentic samples of language in their classrooms? All in all, classroom is the only place where EFL learners are exposed to the target language most of the time.

5. Conclusions

This study aimed at determining DMs used by Turkish teachers in EFL classrooms and comparing these items with that of native teachers in terms of variety and frequency. A corpus driven approach was implemented for the objectives of the study. Audio-recordings from the lectures of the two Turkish teachers were collected to compose a corpus of Turkish EFL teachers' classroom discourse. Audio-recordings were also collected from the lectures of two native teachers to compile a corpus of native EFL teachers' classroom discourse. The analysis of the two corpora revealed that Turkish teachers used DMs with a less variety compared to native teachers in EFL classrooms. Turkish teachers in this study were found to use 29 different DMs which were seen to be *okay, and, yes, alright, so, right, but, yeah, now, really, because, for example, I think, maybe, or, you know, I mean, just, then, well, in fact, see, cos, okidoki, you mean, actually, anyway, I believe* and *I guess* in order of their raw frequencies from the highest to the lowest within Turkish corpus. And, native teachers in the present study used 37 different DMs which were listed as *you know what, to begin with, though, let me see, you see, look, kind of, listen, by the way, like* and *oh* in addition to the above 29 DMs, except for *okidoki, I believe* and *I guess*, used by Turkish teachers. Corpus-driven research results also revealed that Turkish teachers significantly underused most DMs compared to native teachers in EFL classrooms. Among 29 DMs used by Turkish teachers, 21 items -*see, maybe, for example, cos, really, in fact, because, anyway, then, you know, well, or, now, I think, actually, and, but, just, okay, yeah, so*- were underused compared to native teachers. Taking previous research into account which highlights the restriction of EFL learners in the use of DMs in their spoken performance, an emphasis is given to the role of language teachers in modelling the use of these lexical items in foreign language classrooms. However, the underuse of DMs by Turkish EFL teachers in this study suggests notable implications for English language teaching.

First of all, the considerable difference in frequency between the use of DMs by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms highlights the necessity of raising nonnative English language teachers' awarenesses towards the significance of DMs in the spoken discourse of native speakers. In pre-service EFL teacher education programs, pre-service teachers can be informed about the implementation of corpus-based activities in their language classrooms since corpus-based activities introduce the language learners with the ways of analysing real language data occuring in specific contexts (Bernardini, 2004; Şimşek, 2015). Moreover, this study recommends some important implications for the pedagogical aspects of ELT. The involvement of DMs in the syllabuses of foreign language teaching curriculums is desirable as previous research revealed the impact of teaching DMs on the use of DMs by foreign language learners which implies that DMs have a teaching value (Rahimi & Riasati, 2012; Sadeghi & Heidaryan, 2012; Jones & Carter, 2014). In addition, findings of the current study suggest implications for material development in the field of foreign language teaching. Discourse markers seem to be the neglected aspects of language in most language teaching materials. Since language teaching materials are expected to represent samples of authentic language, it is important that they include instances of DMs which are natural elements of language. Material writers can benefit from corpus based examples to provide samples of language naturally occuring in native speakers' discourse. As also suggested by many specialists and researchers in the field, the application of corpus examples in foreign language teaching can reveal general patterns found in large compilations of actual language collected from native speakers in a particular context in a real world (Tognini-Bonelli, 2004; Tsui, 2004; Biber et al. , 2006; Moreno et al., 2006; Can, 2009).

The main limitation of this study is the small number of participants which restricts the generalizability of the findings to the particular context of this study. We do not claim that differences between the use of DMs by the participants of this study reflect differences between Turkish and native teachers. As a result, we suggest that further research should be conducted with a larger sample

to make reliable generalizations about the use of DMs by Turkish and native teachers in EFL classrooms.

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İngilizce sınıflarında söylem belirleyicileri: Derlem yönlendirmeli bir araştırma

Öz

Bu çalışmanın amacı yabancı dil olarak İngilizce sınıflarında Türk öğretmenler ve İngilizce anadil konuşucusu öğretmenler tarafından kullanılan söylem belirleyicilerini belirlemek ve bunları çeşitlilik ve frekans açısından karşılaştırmaktır. Söz konusu çalışmanın amaçlarına ulaşabilmek için, iki Türk ve iki İngilizce anadil konuşucusu öğretmenlerin derslerinden toplanan ses kayıtlarından elde edilen çevriyazılara dayanarak iki farklı derlem oluşturulmuştur. Derlem verisinin analizinde metin analizi için dizayn edilen AntConc (2014) adlı özel bir tanıklı dizin programı kullanılmıştır. Derlem yönlendirmeli araştırma sonuçları, sınıf içi söylemlerinde Türk öğretmenlerin 29, İngilizce anadil konuşucusu öğretmenlerin 37 farklı söylem belirleyicisi kullandığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, Türk öğretmenlerin çoğu söylem belirleyicilerini İngilizce anadil konuşucusu öğretmenlere göre daha az kullandığı görülmüştür. Bu bulguların ışığında, İngiliz dili eğitimi için dikkate değer çıkarımlar önerilmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sınıf içi söylem; derlem; söylem belirleyicileri

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Computer-based and paper-based testing: Does the test administration mode influence the reliability and validity of achievement tests?

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Abstract

This article reports the findings of a study that sought to investigate whether computer-based vs. paper-based test-delivery mode has an impact on the reliability and validity of an achievement test for a pedagogical content knowledge course in an English teacher education program. A total of 97 university students enrolled in the English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education program were randomly assigned to the experimental group that took the computer-based achievement test online and the control group that took the same test in paper-and-pencil based format. Results of Spearman Rank order and Mann-Whitney U tests indicated that test-delivery mode did not have any impact on the reliability and validity of the tests administered in either way. Findings also demonstrated that there was not any significant difference in test scores between participants who took the computer-based test and those who took the paper-based test. Findings were discussed in terms of the idea that computer technology could be integrated into the curriculum not only for instructional practices but also for assessment purposes.

Keywords: Computer-based testing; paper-based testing; reliability; validity; English teacher education

1. Introduction

With the introduction of the digital revolution, educators have begun to benefit from modern computer technology to carry out accurate and efficient assessment of learning outcomes both in primary/secondary and higher education. In recent years, Turkish institutions of higher education have also started integrating e-learning and assessment initiatives into their undergraduate programs. It is assumed that Turkish educational institutions will gradually move components of their assessment systems to online delivery or computerized mode. There are several reasons for implementing computerized assessments in education. We can reduce the "lag time" in reporting scores, increase the efficiency of assessment, achieve the flexibility in terms of time and place, give immediate feedback and announce students' scores immediately, analyze student performance that cannot be investigated from paper-based tests by implementing individualized assessments customized to student needs and

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minimize the paper consumption and cost as well as duplicate or mail test materials (Alderson, 2000; Bennett, 2003; Noyes & Garland, 2008; Paek, 2005; Roever, 2001). This paper reports on findings of a study that investigated whether computer-based and paper-based tests as test delivery modes would influence the reliability and validity of the achievement test for a pedagogical content knowledge course in an English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education program.

1.1. Reliability and validity criteria of tests

Defining the aims of tests and choosing the most suitable test type should be done before administering a test. However, these are not enough in order to have an effective test. In this sense, educators have to first consider some specific principles. Validity and reliability are foremost among these principles. As the most essential criterion for the quality of any assessment, validity is the relation between the aim and the form of the assessment and refers to whether a test truly measures what we claim it to measure. In other words, the tests measure what they are supposed to measure once the tests are valid (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Stobart, 2012). As it is a very crucial criterion for conducting tests, this following question lingers: how can instructors create valid tests or increase the validity of tests? There are some tips available to them, documented in available academic literature. Firstly, direct testing should be done whenever feasible, and explanations should be made clear. Secondly, scoring should be directly in relation to the targets of tests. Lastly, reliability has to be satisfied. Otherwise, validity cannot be assured (Hughes, 2003).

Reliability, on the other hand, is the degree to which a test measures a skill and/or knowledge consistently (Scheerens, Glas, & Thomas, 2005, p. 93). Therefore, similar scores are commonly achieved on a reliable test once the same exam is administered on two different days or on two different but parallel formats. It is important to note that Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) and Hughes (2003) both emphasize that the interval between the administrations of two tests should be neither too long as students might learn new things nor too short as it might change students' ability to remember the exam questions. Once the test is reliable, the test-takers will get more or less the same score no matter when the test is administered, on a certain day or on coming days, and teachers have to prepare and administer reliable tests so as to obtain similar results from the same students, but at a different time (Hughes, 2003, p. 36). Reliable tests give predictions about to what extent measurement-related factors may have impact on test scores. These factors can be grouped into the following categories: test factors that refer to the clarity of instruction, items, paper-layout and the length of the test; situational factors that refer to the conditions of the room; and individual factors that cover the physical and psychological state of test-taker. All these factors should be considered while interpreting the reliability of any test scores.

1.2. Computer-based testing alternatives

Computers are undoubtedly part of our daily lives; they take part in many different walks of life actively. This role change in computer applications goes back to the late 1970s. Since then, computers have had a vital place in the world, especially for educational purposes. In addition to the widespread use of web and computers as teaching sources both inside and outside the class (especially for distance education), computers have come to offer testing alternatives for teachers as well. Today, it is estimated that nearly 1000 computer-assisted assessments are done each day in the UK (Lilley, Barker, & Britton, 2004). These assessment models do not only refer to the traditional tests that are administered on computers in class under the supervision of proctors. It has different sorts of alternatives which are named as computer-based testing (CBT), web-based testing (WBT) and computer-adaptive testing (CAT). These are briefly introduced below.

Computer-based testing roughly refers to making use of computers while preparing questions, administering exams and scoring them (Chapelle, 2001), and with the advent of using computers as testing devices since the 1980s, a different point of view has been gained so that more authentic, cost-saving, scrutinized and controlled testing environment can be achieved, comparing to traditional paper-and-pencil based one (Jeong, 2014; Linden, 2002; Parshall, Spray, Kalohn, & Davey, 2002; Wang, 2010; Ward, 2002). Computer-based testing, which started in the late 1970s or in the early 1980s, was always thought as an alternative to paper-based testing (Folk & Smith, 2002), because "one size fits all" solution across testing programs was not desired at all (Ward, 2002, p. 37).

Computers have brought many advantages. First of all, they have the potential to offer realistic test items like media, graphics, pictures, video and sound (Chapelle & Douglas, 2006, p. 9; Linden, 2002, p. 9). Therefore, students can be involved in a real-life testing environment where there are many integrated activities. In other words, students can respond to computers orally, draw on the screen while answering the question, see and interpret graphics or tables for an open-ended question and so on, and handicapped test-takers can take the exams on computer with great ease. CBT also supplies immediate feedback and scoring (Chapelle & Douglas, 2006; Parshall et al., 2002), which has significant impact over pedagogy (test-takers can grasp their mistakes when immediate feedback is offered upon the completion of the test) and eases teachers' workload of scoring all papers – teachers may spend much time on scoring exam papers, and also, generally they cannot give enough feedback about each student's mistakes, or even if they provide feedback, it may be so late that students do not remember the questions or their answers. Another issue that should be mentioned here is that especially for open-ended questions, subjective-scoring may be in due. However, thanks to computer technology, objective scoring can be achieved, and problems caused by handwriting disappear, too. And the last important feature of CBT or Computer-Assisted Assessment (henceforth CAA) is that the examiners can collect data about the exam such as how many questions have been answered correctly, how many of them have been omitted and how many minutes have been spent for each question, which is called as *response latency* (Parshall et al., 2002, p. 2).

Since the beginning of using computers as testing tools, many different computer-based test delivery modes have come to scene: computer-adaptive testing (CAT), linear-on-the-fly testing (LOFT) or computerized fixed tests (CFT), computerized mastery testing (CMT) (Ward, 2002, p. 38) and automated test assembly (ATA) (Parshall et al., 2002, p. 11). CAT is totally performance or individual based testing. The more a candidate answers questions correctly, the more challenging questions appear on the screen, and vice versa. On the contrary, LOFT or CFT has fixed time and test-length for all test-takers. Exam security is the main goal in LOFT, rather than having psychometric values as in CAT (Parshall et al., 2002). As for CMT, it aims to divide test-takers into mastery and non-mastery groups (Folk and Smith, 2002, pp. 49-50). Lastly, ATA chooses items from an item pool in regard to the test plan and makes use of content and statistical knowledge. This kind of test has fixed time and is not in adaptive mode (Parshall et al., 2002, p. 10).

Kearsley (1996) emphasized the importance of web and its future potential as an educational tool many years ago. Not only is Web a means of delivering information, material, news and so on from one part of the world to the whole, but also it is the most commonly used and significant benefit of teachers for a variety of things like searching different types of materials, teaching for distance education, presenting, preparing tests and delivering them. The reason lying behind this change is that since 1990s, international connectivity has not been limited only to teaching staff at universities and to their use of network in computer labs, and without any doubt, it has brought many differences. As for the testing applications, universal access to computer-assisted assessment has been introduced, and a bulk of opportunities for autonomous learning and self-assessment has spread all around the world,

and so have computer-based applications. Today, thanks to web-based applications, students and teachers can be universal and universally in touch (Chapelle, 2001, p. 23).

As an alternative of CAA, web-based testing is specifically driven and delivered by means of web, and it means that the tests can be taken anywhere and anytime, which constitutes the great advantage over traditional paper-based and computer-based tests (Roever, 2001). Moreover, the web system also makes it possible to create unique exams, and it is based on an important mathematical content (McGough, Mortensen, Johnson, & Fadali, 2001). As Roever (2001, pp. 90-91) mentions that WBT is threefold as low-stakes assessment, medium-stakes assessment and high-stakes assessment, which can address for different needs: low-stakes tests are used to give feedback about examinees' performances over a certain subject or skill. The examinees can take these tests wherever they want. On the other hand, medium-stakes assessment covers midterm and final exams done in classes, placement tests or any tests that have impact on the examinees' lives. These kinds of tests are carried out by proctors in a lab. And lastly, high-stakes assessment is the one the results of which may affect greatly the examinee's life like being accepted to a university or certification programs or citizenship tests and so on. Among these three types, WBT is much more useful when it is done for low-stakes assessment.

In three phases (preparation, delivery and assessment), a question can be created on the web. Accordingly, an item is on the threshold of being created at *authoring time.* Teachers can prepare questions and store them in an item bank by using web tools. Then, questions or items are selected in order to conduct the test. The selection of the items is done either statistically by teachers themselves or dynamically by the system at run time (Brusikolovsky & Miller; 1999, p. 2). After delivering the items and conducting the exam, examinees' answers are assessed as correct, incorrect or partially correct. On the web technology, preparing, delivering and assessing questions are based on HTML codes (Brusikolovsky & Miller, 1999, pp. 2-3).

The last mode of CAA, computer-adaptive testing (CAT) that is based on each student's performance during the exam has been utilized for many years. The cycle of CAT begins with a question that is neither so easy nor so difficult. According to the answer of each test-taker to the item, which question to be asked from the item pool is decided. More clearly, if a test-taker answers a question correctly, the next one will be harder or on equal difficulty. On the contrary, if a test-taker answers a question incorrectly, the next one will be easier. Hence, CAT is said to be based on performance (Chapelle, 2001; Flaugher, 2000; Guzmand & Conejo, 2005; Lilley et al., 2004), and definitely, this new individualized exam model (Wainer & Eignor, 2000, p. 1) offers more confidential testing atmosphere for both teachers and students (Guzman & Conejo, 2005; Linden & Glas, 2002). Students can see each item on screen at a time, and they cannot skip the questions. While the test-takers are busy with each question, the system calculates the scores and decides which question will be next in relation to the previous answers given by the test-takers (Brown, 2004; Hughes, 2003). This measurement model in CATs is known as Item Response Theory (IRT) or Latent Trait Theory, the mathematical bases of which were outlined by Lord and Novick around the 1970s (Stevenson and Gross, 1991, p. 224; Tung, 1986, pp. 4-5).

The idea lying behind IRT goes back to the psychological measurement model, put forward by Alfred Binet and today known as the Stanford-Binet IQ test (Linden & Glas, 2002). Binet's idea of measuring each test-taker separately and according to their performance while they are taking the test has been accepted as the only adaptive testing approach for more than fifty years (Cisar, Radosav, Markoski, Pinter, & Cisar, 2010), but there was one drawback stated about this smart system: despite its truly adaptive side, experienced and skilled teachers (examiners) might be needed in order to administer large-scale tests. Therefore, it was practical only for small-scale tests (Madsen, 1991). Today, CAT is used not only for small-scale exams but also for large-scale high-stakes exams as well. For example, Graduate Management Admission Test, Microsoft Certified Professional and Test of

English as a Foreign Language have been administered in the CAT mode (Lilley et al, 2004, p. 110), and SIETTE is a web-based CAT system used in Spain (Guzman & Conejo, 2005, p. 688).

Many schools and universities have started to benefit from web technology while administering exams. One of them is Iowa State University that has created the WebCT. This smart system does not require any technical information so as to use it, and teachers can easily create and publish online courses and exams (Chapelle & Douglas, 2006, p. 63). Among other online tools to be utilized are Hot Potatoes, Discovery School Quiz Center, Blackboard and Questionmark (Chapelle & Douglas, 2006, pp. 72-73).

1.3. Studies on comparability of reliability and validity by test mode

Over the last two decades a number of comparability studies have concentrated on the effects of the test delivery mode on student performance, i.e., whether the test scores obtained from computer- and paper-based tests are interchangeable; these are referred to as "mode effects" (Bennett, 2003; Choi, Kim, & Boo, 2003; Dunkel, 1991; Paek, 2005; TEA, 2008; Wang, Jiao, Young, Brooks, & Olson, 2007). These studies often revealed mixed results regarding the comparability issues of CBT and PBT in different content areas. Some studies show that CBTs are more challenging than PBTs (Creed, Dennis, & Newstead, 1987; Laborda, 2010) or vice versa (Chin,1990; Dillon, 1994; Yağcı, Ekiz & Gelbal, 2011), whereas some studies conclude that CBTs and PBTs are comparable (Akdemir & Oğuz, 2008; APA, 1986; Bugbee, 1996; Choi, *et al.,* 2003; Choi & Tinkler, 2002, cited in Wang & Shin, 2009; Higgings, Russell, & Hoffmann, 2005; Jeong, 2014; Kim & Hyunh, 2007; Logan, 2015; Muter, Latremouille, Treurniet, & Beam, 1982; Paek, 2005; Parshall & Kromrey, 1993; Retnawati, 2015; Russell, Goldberg, & O'conner, 2003; Stevenson & Gross, 1991; Tsai & Shin, 2012; Wang et al., 2007; Wang & Shin, 2009; Yaman & Çağıltay, 2010).

In her comprehensive review, Paek (2005, p. 17) concludes that overall CBT and PBT "versions of traditional multiple-choice tests are comparable across grades and academic content." Higgings et al (2005) conducted a survey with 219 4th grade students in an attempt to define any probable score differences in reading comprehension between groups, resulting from the test-mode effect; their research revealed no statistically significant differences. Similarly, in the study of Akdemir and Oğuz (2008), 47 prospective teachers in the departments of Primary School Teaching and Turkish Language and Literature took an achievement test, including thirty questions, both on computer and on paper. At the end of the study, it was revealed that there was not statistical difference between the test-takers' scores in line with the test-administration mode. Hence, the researchers mentioned that "computer-based testing could be an alternative to paper-based testing" (p. 123). Hosseini, Abidin, and Baghdarnia (2014) compared reading comprehension test with multiple-choice items administered on computer and on paper; at the end of the study, no significant difference was found. Retnawati (2015) compared the scores of the participants who took paper-based Test of English Proficiency with the ones who took computer-based version of the test as well, and the results revealed that scores in both exam modes were quite similar. Lastly, Logan (2015) aimed to search the students' performance differences up to exam administration mode within the frame of mathematics course. In total, 807 6th grade Singaporean students took the mathematics test with 24 items and the paper folding test either on computer or on paper. The results displayed that there was no significant difference. In contrast, Choi et al. (2003) found out that taking a listening test on computer offered an advantage for the test-takers since they got higher scores compared to a paper-based listening test. Yağcı et al. (2011) at a state university carried out a similar study on this topic. This time participants were 75 vocational school students in the department of business administration. In order to reveal the probable academic success differences among participants, the exam was done in two ways (CBT versus PBT), and at the end, participants' scores were compared. It was found that students who had taken the computer-

assisted exam outperformed. Hensley (2015) carried out a study with 142 students in the department of mathematics at the University of Iowa with an aim to compare the students' test scores taken from paper-based tests and computer-based tests. At the end, it was found that the test scores could not be compared because there was a significant difference between the two test modes. A recent study done by Hakim (2017) with 200 female students whose English language command at B1 level in Saudi Arabia displayed that tests done in two different versions, CBT versus PBT, had statistically significant differences.

Although professional assessment standards attach great importance to the comparability of CBTs and PBTs, there has been little empirical research that examines the impact of technology on the two main aspects of the assessment, which include the concepts of validity and reliability (Al-Amri, 2008; Chapelle, 1998; 1999; 2001; Chapelle & Douglas, 2006). For example, in a recent study, Chua (2012) compared the reliabilities of CBTs and PBTs by using computer- and paper-based versions of the multiple-choice Yanpiaw Creative-Critical Styles test (YBRAINS) and the Testing Motivation Questionnaire (TMQ) with a five-point Likert scale. The findings revealed that the reliability values were close to each other in CBTs and PBTs. However, Chua (2012) stated that the results might have been different if achievement tests had been used in the study since the test takers' motivation, desire to achieve high scores and context of the test might affect the scores. Dermo (2009) also carried out a study with 130 undergraduate students who took online tests. The research had six perspectives such as affective factors, validity, practical issues, reliability, security and learning and teaching. According to the results, it was concluded that taking online tests was regarded as a practical and secure domain by the participants. As for the validity and reliability of online tests, both factors seemed to be appropriate and related to the curriculum. Al-Amri (2008) administered three tests to each participant who took the same test once on computer and once on paper. In order to determine the effect of the testing mode on reliability, he examined the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of CBTs and PBTs and the results indicated that the internal reliability coefficients ranged between .57 and .70, not as high as expected. In order to check concurrent validity of the tests, on the other hand, a correlational analysis was conducted and the results indicated that each PBT significantly correlated with its computerized version. Overall, there was not any significant effect of the test administration mode on the overall reliability and validity of the tests. In another study (Boo, 1997, cited in Al-Amiri), the test administration mode did not have any impact on the reliability of tests. Utilizing an EFL test battery entitled the Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University (TEPS), Choi *et al.* (2003) investigated the comparability between PBT and CBT based on content and construct validation. Although they did not focus on the measurement of course learning outcomes in higher education, their findings supported comparability between the CBT and PBT versions of the TEPS subtests (listening comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension) in question.

On the other hand, Semerci and Bektaş (2005) conducted a survey about how to improve the validity of web-based tests. In this regard, they collected data from four different state universities (Anadolu, Sakarya, Fırat Universities and METU) in Turkey, where web-based tests were being administered. The researchers sent emails to a total of 45 people at those universities as to collect data for the study, and only 33 of them wrote back. After the data were analyzed, some ways to improve the validity of web-based tests were defined: Digital identities like fingerprint and voice control should be used; teachers should encourage learners to make projects and research; mini-quizzes and video-conferencing can foster learning, so teachers should make use of them in their courses. Within a similar vein, Delen (2015) aimed to focus on how to increase the validity and reliability of computer-assisted assessment. In this sense, optimum item response time for each question was shown on the screen when the participants were busy with answering the exam items, and the findings revealed that

if students were offered optimum item response time, more valid and reliable tests would be achieved than paper-based tests.

Our review of the related literature indicates that although there have been numerous studies that compare CBTs and PBTs in terms of mean scores, there is little research that specifically deals with the criteria of adequate reliability and accuracy of measurement. Wang and Kolen (2001) developed a framework of criteria for evaluating the comparability between CAT and PBT: (1) validity, (2) psychometric/reliability, and (3) statistical assumption/test administration. We assume that these three criteria can also be used to evaluate the comparability between the linear CBTs and PBTs.

1.4. Research questions

To the best of our knowledge, at a time when Turkish institutions of higher education are on the eve of considering the computerized administration of assessments, there is not even a single study that deals with the comparability of computer- and paper-based tests in English language teacher education programs. Thus, the present research grew out of a desire to learn whether the validity and reliability principles of assessment would be influenced by the test administration mode when pre-service English teachers would take an achievement test for their pedagogical content knowledge course. Thus, the following research questions were formulated to guide the present study:

1. To what extent are the results of a paper-based test (PBT) comparable to those of its CBT version?

2. If the PBT in question has satisfied the criteria of adequate reliability and accuracy of measurement, can its CBT version be considered to have equal reliability and accuracy of measurement?

2. Method

The quantitative research model of the study covers the experimental study - a posttest only design. Accordingly, there is no place for pretests in the study, just the posttests are used. After the participants of the study had been randomly assigned to two groups, the control group took the achievement test in a traditional way while the experimental group took the same exam through a computer-assisted system. When the exam was over, both groups were administered a questionnaire adapted to state some background information of participants and their attitudes towards computer-assisted assessment.

2.1. Participants

The participants for this study consisted of a total of 100 student teachers enrolled in *Approaches to ELT* course in the English language teaching (ELT) department at Hacettepe University. They had already been enrolled in three different sections of the course and taking it from the same faculty member before the study started. They were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. During the data collection procedure, three participants dropped from the control group because of different reasons. Thus, in the final data analysis, there were 50 (51.5%) student teachers in the experimental group while there were 47 (48.5%) student teachers in the control group. Their ages ranged from 19 to 23 ($N = 97$, $M = 20.64$ years, $SD = .84$). The researchers also collected data about the participants' grade point averages by classifying them into three groups: students who got between 3.50 and 4.00 ($N = 3$, 3.1%); students who got between 3.00 and 3.49 ($N = 54$, 55.7%) and students who got between 2.99 and below ($N = 40$, 41.2%). Furthermore, an independent samples t-test was run to compare participants in both groups in depth in terms of their *computer literacy,* which is based on

the participants' self-perception, *daily use of internet* and *approximate time of starting to use computer*. As seen in Table 1 below, there were no statistically significant differences between groups. More clearly, the prospective ELT teachers in the experimental group ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .675$) and in the control group ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .773$) showed non-statistically significant difference in their level of computer literacy ($t_{(95)} = -.098$, $p = .92$). Similarly, the experimental group ($M = 3$, $SD = 1.14$) and the control group ($M = 3.08$, $SD = 1.19$) did not show statistically significant difference in terms of their daily use of internet and/or computer ($t_{(95)} = .359$, $p = .72$). Lastly, the test-takers in the experimental group ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .575$) and in the control group ($M = 1.66$, $SD = .668$) did not differ significantly according to their approximate time to start to use computer ($t_{(95)} = .630$, $p = .53$). Consequently, it can be easily mentioned that participants have had similar features in both groups.

Table 1. Independent Samples T-Test

		N	M	SD	Mean Difference	t	df	p
Computer Literacy	***PBT***	47	3.426	.773	.02	-.098	95	.922
	CBT	50	3.44	.675				
Daily Use of Internet	***PBT***	47	3.085	1.195	.08	.359	95	.721
	CBT	50	3	1.143				
Approximate Time of Starting to Use Internet/ Computer	***PBT***	47	1.66	.668	.03	.630	95	.530
	CBT	50	1.58	.575				

2.2. Data collection procedures and instruments

Although this study was based on the relation between two different exam modes, the data collection procedure included the content-knowledge course and the achievement test (done both on the computer and on the paper). English language teaching departments offer a course titled *Approaches to ELT* in order to get the prospective English language teachers to identify and describe major language teaching methods including *Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)*. During the data collection phase, this course was offered in three different sections, taught by the same faculty member and taken by all students in the department. Prior to the administration of the achievement test, the course instructor devoted a total of nine hours in three weeks to CLT as the first module in the course. During these three weeks, lectures about the development, principles, assumptions and techniques of CLT were given. Furthermore, the classes were supported by a video-demonstration in order to show a typical CLT-based classroom in ELT. Group presentation was also supported since performance-based assessment was of importance in that course. After all instructional activities were completed in the regular teaching sessions, the students were supposed to get the required information about CLT and they needed to take an achievement test as part of the assessment process. In this regard, the participants took a course achievement test either on a paper or on the web in accordance with their group. The test administration mode was the only difference between the groups. That is, all participants were tested with the same questions which included a total of 60-item developed within the scope of sources used in the content-knowledge course by the instructor by focusing on C*ommunicative Language Teaching*.

Before the exam was administered, an item pool had been generated with questions in different formats like multiple-choice, gap-filling and true/false. In order to supply the validity of the test, all items were revised by a professor and a lecturer in the English language teaching department with an

aim to supply face validity of the test. Upon the suggestions given, the necessary measures were taken and 60 items, which included 50 multiple-choice items with four alternatives and 10 gap-filling items, were chosen. Then, the reliability of the achievement test was tested with the piloted study. The piloting group consisted of 9 prospective English teachers who had previously taken the same course *(Approaches to ELT)*.

As the scoring of the achievement test in the present study was dichotomous, split-half reliability method was utilized so as to calculate the internal consistency level of the test. After the piloting group had completed the test, the items were divided in half as *the odd-numbers* and *the even-numbers* to minimize some probable problems that could be caused by fatigue or boredom of test-takers towards the end of the test or by a test becoming gradually difficult (Blerkom, 2009, p. 49; Ravid, 2011, p. 195; Whiston 2009, p. 54). Then, the reliability coefficient was calculated. The results of the test revealed that the achievement test had very good psychometric properties ($r = .90$) in terms of reliability. As for the split-half coefficient which gives the value belonging to the half of the test, and the Spearman-Brown coefficient, which gives the reliability coefficient of the whole test, the coefficient values are .896 and .902 respectively; these values demonstrate the reliability of the test used in the present study.

Table 2. Split-half Coefficient of the Achievement Test in the Pilot Study

Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	0.509
		N of Items	30
	Part 2	Value	0.708
		N of Items	30
		Total N of Items	60
Correlation Between Forms			0.821
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length		0.902
	Unequal Length		0.902
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			0.896

Since the items prepared for the achievement test had a high level of correlation coefficient, the test was accepted as reliable, one of the milestones in developing a test. Then, both paper-based and computer-assisted versions of the exam were generated with the same questions that had been piloted before. The computer-assisted version of the test was prepared by using the online platform, ***www.classmarker.com,*** which enables teachers, testers and researchers to prepare and administer online tests. Figure 1 shows how items were displayed on the web.
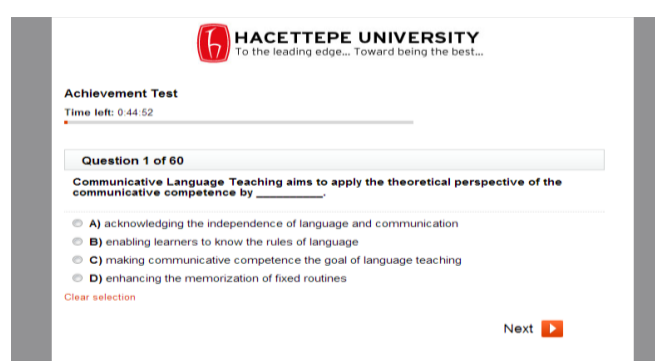
Figure 1. A Sample Item on the System

The test-takers had the chance to move back and forth or skip any question as on paper-based version and to control the allotted time on their screen as seen in Figure 1. As for the gap-filling part, the test-takers were supposed to write the correct or possible answer/s in the given blank. All mandatory or optional answers were mentioned while editing the items on the web (Figure 2). Capitalization or punctuation mistakes were not taken into account for scoring.

Figure 2. A Sample Item on the System

The participants who took the online version of the test logged into the system by entering their student IDs and passwords that had been previously prepared by the researchers. Once they logged in, they were required to write their full names and email addresses. Before starting the exam, brief information about the exam (the allotted time, the number of questions, the cut-off point for passing the exam, whether they could skip the items or not) was displayed on the screen.

The computer-assisted assessment system offered several benefits both for the test-takers and the teachers: firstly, the test-takers could see their scores on screen just upon completing the exam. In addition, they could get immediate feedback; that is, they saw the correct answer for each item after confirming the question. Secondly, once they achieved 70 or higher points, a certification appeared on screen so as to motivate them. Lastly, the system stored all test-takers' responses, and the researchers reached them whenever needed.

2.3. Data analysis

The present study employed posttest-only experimental research design, a way of gathering quantitative data. All the data were fed into the computer and analyzed by using IBM SPSS 21. At first, the normality level of the data was checked. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results, it was recognized that the data were not normally distributed ($p < .05$), so further statistical analyses were done in accordance with nonparametric tests. Spearman-brown correlation coefficient (split-half reliability method), the nonparametric equivalent of Pearson product-moment correlation, was calculated so as to reveal the reliabilities of paper-based and computer-based tests. As for the validity values of the tests, Spearman, nonparametric equivalent of Pearson correlation coefficient, was done. Lastly, the probable effect of exam-administration mode over the test-takers' scores was analyzed with Mann-Whitney U test.

3. Results

This part present the results of data analysis based on both descriptive and inferential statistics in order to shed light upon the research questions and aims of the study. A general picture of the participants was given in the Table 3. Accordingly, the number of the test-takers in both groups was almost equal: There were 50 participants (M = 45.86, SD = 7.653) in the experimental group while 47 participants (M = 42.98, SD = 6.479) took the exam in the control group.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of paper-based and computer-based tests

Tests	N	M	Md	Mode	SD	Min	Max
Paper-Based Test	47	42.98	44	38	6.479	32	54
Computer-Based Test	50	45.36	47	49	7.653	29	58

As known, there are two indispensable factors, reliability and validity, for developing and administering a test. In this respect, provided that computers replace papers for exams, the reliability and validity coefficients of both versions should be close and not display any statistical significant difference. Split-half reliability method was utilized for each exam mode, and Table 4 gives the reliability coefficients (r_p = .756, r_c = .903). As a result, it can be mentioned that both exam administration modes have significant level of reliability coefficients. Clearly, there should not be any doubt of reliability once exams are run on computer and/or web-based assessment systems.

Table 4. Reliability coefficients of computer-based and paper-based tests

Test Mode	r
Paper-Based Test	.756
Computer-Based Test	.903

Spearman's rank-order correlation, the nonparametric equivalent of Pearson product-moment correlation, was run to assess the relationship between the computer-based test and the paper-based test. While calculating the correlation coefficient in this study, each exam item was assumed a case, not each student. Accordingly, there was a positive correlation between the two variables, r_s = 0.894, n = 60. Table 5 summarizes the results. Overall, there was a strong, positive correlation between the computer-based and paper-based versions of the achievement test. Responses in the paper-based test were correlated with those in the computer-based test. Hence, the concurrent validity of the achievement test was supplied.

Table 5. Spearman's rank-order correlation

			CBT	PBT
Spearman's rho	CBT	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.894[**]
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	60	60
	PBT	Correlation Coefficient	.894[**]	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	60	60

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Mann Whitney U test was conducted in order to find out whether there was any statistically significant difference in mean scores between the students who took the computer assisted test and those who took traditional exam. As the dependent variable was continuous and the independent variable was categorical (the subjects were not the same in both groups) and the data related to the exam were not normally distributed, Mann Whitney U Test, non-parametric alternative to t-test, was used (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 138). The results revealed that there was no significant difference in mean scores of the participants who took the computer assisted test and those who took paper based test, Z_u (954.500), p= .111> .05. More clearly, once students took the exams either on computer or on paper, their performance were not affected in a good or bad way according to test administration mode.

Table 6. Mann-Whitney U test results

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z_U	p*
CBT	50	53.41	2670.50	954.500	.111
PBT	47	44.31	2082.50		

*p>0.05

4. Discussion

The results of the split-half reliability method indicated that both versions of test administration, computer-based and paper-based tests, had high level of reliability coefficients ($r_{p\ =}$.756, r_c=.903). Therefore, it can be deduced that there is not a statistically significant relation between the test-administration modes and the tests' internal consistency levels. Similarly, Chua (2012) found out that computer-based and paper-based tests had close values and revealed the internal consistencies. However, Chua (2012) argues that the results might have been different if achievement tests had been used. As the present study showed, the achievement test did not differ in reliability and internal consistency once it was done both on computer and on paper. In addition, Chua (2012) concludes that computer-assisted tests offer more efficient testing environment for test-takers. This may be because of the fact that computers offer visual cues to test-takers, more authentic exam atmosphere can be achieved via computers, and test-takers have a chance of listening to audio files individually with their earphones. Therefore, computer assisted tests serve in a desired way and test-takers can perform better on computers when they take some kinds of tests such as language skill-based tests (listening items or reading items with some graphs or pictures).

As for the concurrent validity of the tests, Spearman's rank order, the nonparametric alternative to Pearson product-moment correlation, was computed as the data was not normally distributed. According to the data analysis, there was a strong relationship between the computer-based and paper-based tests ($r_s = 0.894$, $n = 60$); that is, the aforementioned two exam-administration modes were valid and highly correlated with each other. Similar findings were reported in the studies of Al-Amiri (2008), Choi et a (2003), Dermo (2009) and Siozos et al (2009).

A Mann-Whitney U test was run in order to determine the impact of computers on the scores of the test-takers. The results showed that neither computer-based testing nor paper-based testing affected the success of the test-takers (p=0.111, >0.5). In other words, the paper-based version was found to be comparable to the computer-based one. Though some studies show that CBTs are more challenging than PBTs (Creed, Dennis, & Newstead, 1987; Laborda, 2010) or vice versa (Chin,1990; Dillon, 1994; Yağcı, Ekiz & Gelbal, 2011), some studies supported the findings of the present study (Akdemir &

Oğuz, 2008; APA, 1986; Bugbee, 1996; Choi, et al., 2003; Higgings et al., 2005; Kim & Hyunh, 2007; Logan, 2015; Parshall & Kromrey, 1993; Paek, 2005; Retnawati, 2015; Russel et al., 2003; Stevenson & Gross, 1991; Wang & Shin, 2009; Yaman and Çağıltay, 2010). On the other hand, Choi et al. (2003) mentioned that administering a listening test on computer helped the test-takers get higher scores compared to paper-based listening test since each test-taker could have the chance to listen to the text in a clear way. Similarly, and in contrast to the findings of the present study, Laborda (2010) states in his study that the visual cues presenting on computer create an authentic exam atmosphere for test-takers, and each examinee has an opportunity to listen to a text without being exposed to any external factor that may disturb them. Therefore, students' listening scores can go up. Furthermore, it is really surprising and different from other studies that the students who took computer-assisted tests became more successful in Chin's study (1990), and Yağcı et al. (2011) mentioned that the participants who took computer-assisted tests in their study succeeded 35% higher comparing to the participants who did not. As the related data analysis indicates that there is no exam mode effect, computers can be adopted as alternative testing tools by teachers, because doubts about the affinity of students' scores both on paper and on computer have been eliminated.

Findings of this study revealed many pedagogical implications: this study compared computer-assisted and paper-based modes of the same test. No significant difference between them was found; therefore, computer-assisted exams are said to be alternative forms of traditional tests. In addition, computer-based tests are valid as they serve the aim of the test in a desired way. CBT also gives immediate feedback for incorrect and missing answers (Alderson, 2000; Cohen, 2001; Yunxiang *et al.*, 2010), so students have a chance to learn their deficient points and to focus on these areas. Contrary to traditional testing, which takes a long time to announce results and seems a burden for teachers, and most of the time, it is impossible for teachers to give enough feedback for each learner about their mistakes on exam items; computer-assisted testing makes delivering test scores and giving feedback just upon completing the test possible (Alderson, 2000, p. 595), because giving feedback right after any mission done has a crucial and meaningful impact on learning, which is useful for pedagogical purposes (Roever, 2001, p. 85), and assessment is done for both grading students and measuring teaching process, which refers to washback effect. Machine-based or computer-based scoring removes the burden over teachers, and subjectivity on scoring disappears. In addition, special programs are available in order to aid test design, item editing, piloting and having an item pool, which again serves for the principles of effective tests. Moreover, computers offer very rich test content, especially for language tests, and supply the base for communicative language testing (Brown, 2004; Choi *et al.*, 2003; Noyes & Garland, 2008). Clearly, visual cues that are shown on screen during listening tests (Laborda, 2010) or reading tests make the exam atmosphere much more authentic, which is the key component of communicative language testing.

Briefly, technology integrated education, which covers both teaching and assessment procedures, seems to work effectively since there is a growing tendency to utilize cutting-edge technology by the learners. It was succeeded to great extent in teaching, but computers were disregarded as assessment tools. However, recently some leading universities across the world such as Stanford University, Cambridge University and MIT have started to launch computer-based testing since it offers many advantages both for teachers and for learners. Firstly, computer-based, namely web-based, assessment systems give fast and accurate scoring (Alderson, 2000; Cohen, 2001). In other words, computer-based tests reduce human error in scoring (Noyes & Garland, 2008, p. 1369). Secondly, computer-based testing saves time and place; that is, test-takers can reach the test wherever and whenever it is available (Roever, 2001). Thirdly, costs with printing tests in paper are gone down with computers. Lastly, computer-based testing provides authentic materials for testing. For instance, visual cues can be supplied with computers or each test-taker can listen to the text in a clear way once the computer-

based listening test is provided (Choi *et al.*, 2003; Laborda, 2010). Overall, computer technology has many benefits as the related studies display. In addition, the related literature indicates that computers can be used as an alternative for traditional assessment since validity and reliability coefficients are close to each other in both versions, and the test-takers succeed similarly in both modes of assessment.

5. Conclusion

The present study was designed to investigate the impact of computer technology on the two important tenets of assessment, validity and reliability. In this regard, a total of 97 prospective English teachers enrolled in the *Approaches to ELT* course in an ELT department at a major state university in Turkey were chosen as the study group because it was detected that there was no related study with English language teaching programs in Turkey. In line with the purposes of the study, the students were randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group took the achievement test on computer whilst the control group took the traditional way of assessment. The results indicated that both computer-based and paper-based versions of tests had high level of reliability coefficients, internal consistency and strong relation between each other. Furthermore, it was found that neither computer-based testing nor paper-based testing affected the success of the test-takers, so it can be deduced that the paper-based version can be comparable to the computer-based one.

Without doubt, findings of the present study indicated many pedagogical implications. As it is known, a test has to be based on some principles such as validity, reliability, practicality and washback effect (or backwash effect) and once the test has these principles, it proves the efficiency of it. No significant difference between them was recognized. Moreover, it is known that computers offer very rich test content, especially for language tests, and give immediate feedback to test-takers about their incorrect and missing answers, so the test-takers have a chance to learn their deficient points and to focus on these areas, which is very useful for pedagogical purposes known as washback effect. Machine-based or computer-based scoring removes the burden over teachers, and subjectivity on scoring disappears. In addition, special programs are available in order to aid test design, item editing, piloting and having an item pool, which again serves for the principles of effective tests. Overall, computers can be used as alternatives to traditional testing methods without worrying the core concepts of assessment; instead, the advantages the technology brings to the education should be taken into consideration.

Although the research reached its aims, there were certainly some limitations. First of all, only 97 student teachers in the department of English language teaching were included. More students in the same department from different universities or more students from a variety of departments could have participated in the study, so the results could be easily generalized to higher education system in Turkey. Secondly, the study was only focused on tertiary level students, but high school, secondary school and/ or even primary school students could be covered in these studies. Thirdly, the participants took the computer assisted test only one time, for their midterm exam, but using this system during one semester or during whole year may give more sensitive results. Also, only 9 prospective English language teachers who had previously taken the same course constituted the piloting group, but the number could have been higher. And lastly, computer adaptive testing is the paradigm of the 21st century; however, the researcher couldn't use it, but computer-assisted testing system was utilized.

Now that there are some limitations in the study, further studies can focus on these points. First of all, the researcher used computer-assisted assessment system, but computer-adaptive tests are the contemporary exam modes in this century. Hence, future researchers can make use of these tests. In

addition, students from different departments or from different universities can be included, because as the number of samples goes up, the findings can be generalized in a salient way.

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Bilgisayar destekli testler ve klasik testler: Test uygulama yöntemi başarı sınavlarının güvenirliğini ve geçerliliğini etkiler mi?

Öz

Bu çalışma sınavların uygulanma yönteminin, ölçme-değerlendirmenin temel unsurları olan geçerlilik ve güvenirlik üzerinde etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda Türkiye'de bulunan bir devlet üniversitesinde İngiliz dili eğitimi bölümünde okumakta olan 97 öğretmen adayı çalışmaya katılmıştır. Bütün katılımcılar *İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yöntemleri* dersine kayıtlı olan öğrencilerdir. Katılımcılar deney grubu ve kontrol grubu olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Deney grubunda olan katılımcılar sınava bilgisayar ortamında katılırken kontrol grubunda olan katılımcılar klasik yöntemle sınava girmiştir. Çalışma sonunda sınavların bilgisayar ortamında ya da klasik yöntemle verilmesinin, güvenirlik ve geçerlilik üzerinde etkisi olmadığı göstermiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin bilgisayar ortamında sınava katılmaları başarı puanlarını etkilememiştir. Sonuç olarak, bilgisayar desteği sadece eğitim süresince değil ölçme-değerlendirme aşamasında da kullanılabilir.

Anahtar sözcükler: bilgisayar destekli sınav; klasik sınav; güvenirlik; geçerlilik; İngilizce öğretmen eğitimi

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Exploring the use of online educational platform in teaching writing among ESL students

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Abstract

In the light of Integrative CALL, this research aims to know the effectiveness of using online learning platform like a Learning Management Software (LMS) in teaching writing among ESL students in the absence of a traditional classroom instruction. Through a quasi-experimental approach, the study was able to establish that there was no significant difference between the pre- and post-essay overall writing performance of a group which received writing instruction online and a group which received classroom instruction. However, analysis of the individual scoring components revealed that the online-instruction group did not improve in their content-building skill. Focus group interviews were also conducted to know the strengths and weaknesses of the online-based instruction and it was able to reveal that students consider it to be helpful in acquiring sources and expressing opinions, and convenient for lessening issues about time and fear of direct feedback. However, when it comes to instruction and consultation, the students still preferred the face-to-face classroom dialogue. It was also found how lack of autonomous learning habits can be a hindrance to online-based instruction.

1. Introduction

Due to the influx of mass media and technology in our society today, educators cannot help but think of a number of ways to integrate technology in the curriculum, methodologies and instructional materials being used in schools not only in Computer and Technology subjects but other areas of learning as well. This educational move has compelled educators to rethink the way they teach; first, there is already an increasing demand from the industry to hire workers who are computer literate, and second, because students whether they are using technology in school or not are being exposed to them anyway. The second issue regarding student exposure to different platforms of technology and social media is geared towards re-evaluating classroom teaching styles and methodologies. According to Jukes, McCain and Crockett (2010), today's learners prefer to receive information in multi-modes (rather than just textual form) from various multimedia sources, network simultaneously with other web users and receive instant gratification from such activities. These preferences may still be in contradiction to the teaching style of many educators who still prefer slow and controlled release of

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information in its usual textual form that are provided linearly, logically and sequentially. It would be logical to think that if the educators fail to adapt to the changing learning preferences that can also result in changes in the cognitive process of students, classroom lectures and activities grounded on the traditional style of teaching will soon cease to have meaning in the modern society.

Apart from technological materials, educators have to take into consideration the role of the Internet, World Wide Web and the social media in educating the youth of today. According to Pacansky-Brock (2013), "Outside the walls of the classroom, most college students learn through flat, interconnected, and highly personalized experiences. Millennials are accustomed to learning from their peers in a virtual community in which their opinions and ideas matter. This model dramatically contradicts the traditional, hierarchic, top-down model imposed in most college classrooms. If technology can deliver the same message in a better, more personalized, convenient way – that meets not only the preferences of students, but also his/her individualized learning needs – then why are we not exploring…" (p.6)

It can be noted here that there is already a gap between traditional classroom practices and actual world experiences. While students are using the World Wide Web as their primary source of information about the world, be it an academic research or extensive non-academic reading activities, there is a tendency in academic scene to refuse the use of the Internet as an integral part of the learning experience, and not just a supplementary or independent resource for learning.

1.1. Literature review

The development of the computer-assisted language instruction has been anchored on the following educational theories: Behaviorist Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Communicative CALL and the Integrative CALL. Language learning activities that were computer-assisted were considered to be effective in conducting drill, since, unlike the human counterpart, computers and software are seen to be patient, never grows tired nor judgmental and has the capacity to allow learners to work on drills on their own pace without the pressure of a face-to-face learning. However, Behaviorist CALL and theory of language learning from which it was based have been criticized for its very mechanical and very structural method of teaching. This resulted in the campaigning of a more communicative language teaching approach. Emerging in the late 1970's to early 1980's, Communicative CALL had been conceptualized to focus more on "using forms than on the forms" and to teach grammar as part of a wider communication context rather than just focusing on the structures of grammar itself. This language learning model has gained support among language educators as it allows expression, discovery and thus, development among language learners. More recently, with the rise of new demands in communicative skills among learners, including their awareness of the social environment in which they are communicating, task-based and project-based approaches were sought. The Integrative CALL was created to respond to this need to allow students to communicate in more authentic communicative environments, and integrating with it various language skills like speaking, listening reading and writing (Warschauer & Healey, 1998).

It can be deduced from the history of CALL that various forms of language learning through computers have been used and have evolved to answer the needs and demands of the changing society. Since there has been a significant change in the way information is distributed, and communication is done in the present society, there is already a need to engage students in tools by which they can be given access to this information and cope with the changes in communication. Several researchers in the field of language education in local and foreign contexts have discussed the effects of integrating online and web technologies in facilitating learning.

Stroia (2012) also mentioned that through new media, we can now overcome the "boundaries of time and space" (p.39) and even manipulate spoken language like never before. For instance, students have now the convenience of viewing videos as tools for language learning and take control over it by replaying, jumping to and fro, focusing on certain aspects only, and pausing as often as needed without the worries of constantly demanding repetitions which is often the case with one-on-one language tutorials. With this, Stroia emphasized that the advantages or usefulness of digital-based learning is not really the question, but when, where, how, and to what extent they can be used.

A number of literature that have discussed the importance of integrating Information Technology (IT) in the English curriculum (Yagelsky & Powley, 1996; Haranhan & Madsen, 2006; Lee, 2006; Tardy, 2010; Vilbar, 2011) and offered ideas as to how, where and how questions of Stroia can be addressed by proposing language teaching strategies and methodologies that can be integrated in the learning process and in the curriculum itself. In terms of to what extent, categories of web-based learning have already been proposed. While, some-learning activities are fully implemented online, there were some instances in which it is used as a supplement to classroom learning. This type is called blended approach.

In an article, Haranhan and Madsen (2006) mentioned that graduates more than being able to read and write with proficiency should also be able to do these skills in a critical, sensitive and ethical manner. He further discussed that integrating IT in the English curriculum helps achieve this goal since exposing students to e-literacy can help expand their notion of reading and writing, and help promote independent learning and preparation for life-long learning. In writing and communication classes, for instance, English instructors know the utmost importance for students to voice out their opinions and be able to think critically in various situations. Hence, the World Wide Web can be a potential tool for English instructors to encourage students to express themselves by sharing, retrieving and evaluating facts, opinions and various ideas if they can just find the most effective ways to maximize the features of web and integrate them in the learning process. However, while these online teaching tools are greatly available in the country, very few educators take the opportunity in maximizing them to aid students in the learning process.

1.2. Research questions

The objective of this study is to find out if an online-assisted writing platform engaging students in online lessons and communicative activities can significantly improve students' skills in writing argumentative essays. Also, it aims to identify what writing anxieties and difficulties were encountered by the students during the writing lessons and how they were able to overcome them through the online learning tools or traditional learning tools, whichever was specifically assigned to the group where the students belong. Specifically, the following questions were answered through a quasi-experimental procedure and focus group interview:

1. Is there a significant difference in the essay writing performance of the control group after the classroom-based lessons?

2. Is there a significant difference in the essay writing performance of the experimental group after the online-based lessons?

3. Is there a significant difference of the pre- and post-test scores between the experimental and control groups?

4. Based on interviews, what anxieties, difficulties and challenges did the students encounter before and during the lessons (online and classroom-based)?

5. What were the specific advantages and disadvantages of using the online-assisted writing tool based on students' perception?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The participants were 1st year students majoring in Electrical Engineering. The students were given a pre-survey before the treatment proper to find out their knowledge about writing process and writing using web platforms. They were also asked to indicate their 4th year high school English average. For the purpose of ensuring reliability of test results, only students with an average of 80-89 were chosen as participants of the study for both groups. It was also taken into consideration that all participants have little or no knowledge of the writing process and learning writing through web-based platforms. Initially, there were 25 participants for both groups but were decreased to 22 for the control group and 23 for the experimental group.

2.2. Instruments

To answer the questions of this research, the quasi-experimental method and focus-group discussions were implemented. The first method was used to test if there is a significant difference in the performance of the participants in their pre-writing and post-writing activities, before and after ten writing lessons were given them. Focus-group discussion was used to collect the qualitative data of the study.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

The participants were divided into two groups: the experimental and control groups. The experimental group was given ten online-based lessons using the features of the UST E-Leap, a web-based educational tool administered by the University of Santo Tomas. E-leap is a form of course or learning management software (LMS) which includes tools or functions like announcement and discussion boards, class notes, traditional assessment tools like quizzes and examination, and score sheets or books (Pacansky-Brock, 2013). With the tool, lessons were given through power point presentations, and at times video presentations are uploaded by the instructor in the class notes area. Students are asked to view announcement boards regularly to check if there is a new lesson or assignment given. Instead of a traditional classroom recitation, students were asked to discuss, give opinion, and argue using the discussion board. Assignments were submitted and given evaluation online. The final paper, however, was submitted as a hard copy to serve as data for inter-rating.

The control group was used in the experiment to compare results and establish differences with the experimental group. A significant difference in their performance would mean that one method in learning could possibly be more effective than the other. On the other hand, a non-significant difference could mean that one method can perform as equally effective as the other more established method. To determine this, the same lessons on writing process were given to the control group, but without the assistance of any web-based educational platform. The lessons were given in the classroom using traditional and time-tested teaching methods including the use of available educational technology like slide presentations using laptops and LCD projector. Both groups underwent a pre- and post test essay writing activity on two different topics (What is the importance of Learning the English Language in Today's Society & What is Your Opinion about Using Nuclear Energy) but equal in the level of difficulty.

The essays underwent rating using inter-rater scoring based on expert-validated rubrics. Three inter-raters, who are also English instructors, were asked to read and rate the pre- and post essays of both the experimental and control groups. An inter-rater reliability test using correlational statistics was conducted to establish the validity of the instrument. After validity has been established, the scores underwent test of significant difference to find out if there is a difference in the performance in the pre- and post-test scores of both groups and to determine whether there is also a difference in performance between the two groups who underwent two varying treatment methods. Significant differences for each of the following components in the rubric have also been computed: content, organization, grammar and mechanics, and tone, style and word choice.

The quantitative data generated from the quasi-experimental approach has been supported by the qualitative data acquired from the focus group interviews. This type of interview allows several participants to join the same interview session unlike the usual one-on-one interview. Randomly chosen participants were put in three smaller groups for both the control and experimental groups to allow a more effective discussion and sharing of ideas. The participants who joined the interviews were allowed to speak in Filipino (L1) if they thought they are able to express their ideas more effectively in the L1. The interviews were transcribed and coded. An independent coder was asked to place data into categories to validate the researcher's data.

3. Results

3.1. Pre-and Post-test Essay Performance

The following table shows the pre- and post-test scores of the control group.

Table 1. Pre- and Post-Test Difference for Control Group

Control Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Pre-Test	51	8.48			
Post Test	61	5.49			
			-4.54	±1.96	Significant

It is revealed in Table 1 that a significant difference exists between the scores of pre-test and post-test of the control group. It would be seen that the data yielded a computed z of -4.54 which is far below the tabular z of ±1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. This result would mean that the students who received classroom-based writing lessons in the control group significantly increased in their scores in the post essay.

Table 2. Pre- and Post-test Difference for Experimental Group

Experimental Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Pre-Test	52	6.43			
Post Test	59	6.19			
			-3.68	±1.96	Significant

As can be viewed from Table 2, a significant difference was found to exist between the essay scores of pre-test and post- test of the experimental group. This is evidenced by the computed z value of -3.68 which is far below the tabular z of ±1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. It can be deduced based on the results that the students who received online-based writing lessons improved significantly as well as the students who received the more traditional classroom-based instruction.

Table 3. Control and Experimental Groups' Pre-Test Difference

Pre- Test	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Control Group	51	8.48			
Experimental Group	52	6.43			
			-0.43	±1.96	Not Significant

To compare the performance of the groups and to establish score validity, it was also found through statistical test that there was no significant difference in the pre-test scores of both groups. This is revealed by the computed z value of -0.43 which is in the range of the tabulated z of -1.96 to +1.96. at 0.05 level of significance. This could suggest that students in both groups performed in equal terms in their pre-essays. Furthermore, it could also suggest that students in both groups have the same level of writing skills.

Table 4. Control and Experimental Groups' Post-test Score

Post Test	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Control Group	61	5.49			
Experimental Group	59	6.19			
			1.12	±1.96	Not Significant

On the other hand, Table 4 shows that no significant difference was found to exist between the two groups namely the control and experimental groups in their scores in the post-test. This is revealed by the computed z value of 1.12 which is in the range of the tabulated z of -1.96 to +1.96 at 0.05 level of significance. This result also revealed that although they both show significant improvement in their post essays, no group significantly performed better than the other in their post essay performance. This could suggest that whether students receive a classroom-based instruction or an online-based one, the same performance can be generated based on their essay scores.

To find out whether there is significant improvement in students' specific writing skills, a test of significance was also conducted per component in the rubric. The following tables show the test results for the control group in four components: content scores, organization scores, grammar and mechanics scores, and tone, style & word choice scores.

Table 5. Pre-post test scores by component – Control group

		CONTENT			
Control Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Pre-Test	14	0.77			
			-3.65	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	16	2.39			
		GRAMMAR & MECHANICS			
Pre-Test	13	0.98			
			-9.14	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	16	1.14			
		ORGANIZATION			
Pre-Test	13	1.16			
			-4.68	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	15	1.58			
		TONE, STYLE & WORD CHOICE			
Pre-Test	10	1.24			
			-9.57	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	14	1.46			

It can be seen in Table 5 that in all components, the control group, which received classroom-based writing instruction, significantly improved their scores in the post essay. The result could suggest that the lessons were effective in improving all important skills integrated to achieve improved writing performance.

Table 6. Pre- and Post-test Scores by Component – Experimental Group

		CONTENT			
Experimental	Mean	Std. Dev.	Computed z	Tabular z	Interpretation
Pre-Test	16	0			
			3.39	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	15	1.38			
		GRAMMAR & MECHANICS			
Pre-Test	14	1.18			
			-3.28	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	15	0.81			
		ORGANIZATION			
Pre-Test	12	1.15			
			-8.04	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	15	1.32			
		TONE, STYLE & WORD CHOICE			
Pre-Test	11	0.94			
			-9.88	±1.96	Significant
Post Test	14	1.07			

On the other hand, results for the experimental group also show that the students who received online-based lessons significantly improved their scores in grammar, organization, and tone and style. However, although the component for content shows significant difference, it has to be noted that the significance lies on the pre-test being higher than the post test in terms of mean scores. This result could suggest that in the absence of classroom instruction, online-based instruction as a substitute has improved the writing skills of students except for building content skills.

Since the quasi-experimental results can only limitedly show the difference of scores in obtained in different areas of the procedure, it cannot exactly point out the factors led to the results. In the case of content writing skills in the experimental group not having improved, it can be deduced that the limitation is based on the treatment itself, or other related factors. However, to support the data generated from statistical tests, qualitative data has also been gathered to support or verify the quantitative ones. Hence, the following presents data synthesized from six focus group interviews conducted among participants of both control and experimental and control groups. The interviews were conducted after the writing instruction stage in order to know the participants' perception about the writing tasks given to them.

3.2. Writing Anxieties, Difficulties and Challenges

The coded data from the interview revealed a number of problems the participants encountered during the writing process before and during the online or classroom-based instruction. The categories found below are themes or topics that usually arise from the discussion with the participants.

3.2.1. Causes of Anxieties

The students' difficulties and anxieties when it comes to writing are related to second language writing issues. It has been revealed by answers from interviews that the causes of these anxieties arise from a variety of problems like length and word count requirements given by teachers, complexity of data gathering (not knowing how to start or distinguishing valid from invalid data), low vocabulary repertoire, grammatical uncertainty, difficulty in paragraph formation, and even time pressure which usually limits students to write essays for only a few hours a day before deadline.

The following table shows some responses that revealed these anxieties:

Table 7. Causes of writing difficulties and anxieties

Causes of Writing Anxieties	Excerpts from Discussion
Length and word count requirements	"When I write essays, I want to express my ideas straight to the point, but… it is required that it has to be long… I am not used to it." (translated from Filipino)
Complexity of data gathering	"I am not fond of writing. I am not fond of gathering information."
Low vocabulary bank	"I am not fond of writing because my vocabulary is low and I get bored when I write essay."
Grammar uncertainty	"I don't write because I'm very bad at grammars and I don't like writing."
Paragraph formation difficulty	"I find it hard to write essays. I find it difficult to form paragraphs ."
Time Pressure	"In the past, we have to submit essays within the day."

It can be noted that the anxieties are primarily based on the limitation of the traditional writing education paradigm to address second language issues existing among Filipino students. Furthermore, it is noticeable how students always refer back to the kind of instruction they received in high school and their experiences in the classroom when asked about their difficulties. In the first example, the student-participant expressed that there is a requirement for essays to be long, and that it reveals that it somehow caused the anxiety to writing for not being used to it. In the 5th sample under *time pressure*, the student-participant mentioned about the *past* referring to an experience in class in which they submit a required essay within the same day it was given. It seems from other responses that some perceptions students hold about writing are products of the kind of writing instruction they have received in their basic education.

Also, it can be noticed how students are more expressive about their feelings which in turn reveal their attitude about writing itself. The frequent use of the words *not fond, not like, find it difficult* does not only reveal their perception in the cognitive level, but also reveals more psycho-emotional feelings they have built about the writing process that may explain their rejection to the activity.

It was revealed by the interview data that most student-participants have no or very limited knowledge about the L2 writing process. If they had knowledge about the process, it is often mentioned that they have exerted little or no effort in applying it in the process of writing their essays.

To know the relative effect of the lessons, whether online or classroom-based, the participants were also asked to give insights about the effective strategies and other helpful areas of the lessons they have learned or applied for the first time and which assisted them in coping with the difficulties of the writing process. Among the frequent responses were: learning the step-by-step process of writing (L2), pre-writing ideas not in paragraph form, formulating a thesis statement for an argumentative essay, outlining for an essay, and drafting.

It has been established in the quasi-experimental method that students in the experimental group performed as well as the control students expect for the skill about building content. Through the focus group interview, however, it was specifically identified what areas of the online-based instruction did the students find to be working on their advantage, and in what areas do they think the online-based instruction have limitations. The following table shows the advantages of the online platform based on experimental students' perception while they were using it during the treatment:

Table 8. Effective Features of Online-based Instruction

	Features	Excerpts from Discussion
Helpful features of the LMS (Learning Management Software)	Class notes	Example 1: "(The most helpful feature of the E-Leap is) class notes. We can view the notes anytime."
	Discussion board	Example 2: "(The most helpful feature of the E-leap is) Discussion board. More confident in expressing opinions. You can think of grammar first before posting answer. We have time to think."
	Less personal feedback system	Example 3: "(We are) more confident in expressing opinions in the E-leap (LMS)" Q: Why?

		A: "Because we are more shy (reluctant) to share our answers in the classroom." (translated from Filipino)
		Q: Why makes you shy?
		A: "Someone might disagree (with the opinion shared)." (translated from Filipino)
		A: "(With the E-leap), our faces cannot be seen." (translated from Filipino)
Online/Web Features	Accessibility	Example 4: "Even if I am absent, I can still view the lessons through the E-leap." (translated from Filipino)
		"We can reduce traffic. We do not have to go to school."
	Freedom from time constraint	Example 5: "(The online lessons were helpful) because at home, I am more comfortable and I am not pressured, so I think can think more effectively." (translated from Filipino)
	Availability of online sources	Example 6: "Using the Internet, helped (me) to search information"

The advantages of the online-based instruction can be divided into the intrinsic features of the Learning Management System used for the treatment, and the general features of using the web. The LMS chosen for the study offers alternative tools that can substitute for the absence of classroom teaching like class notes areas in lieu of the traditional black or white board or the more technological LCD projected lessons, discussion board in lieu of classroom recitation or oral discussion, and even video and article links that serve as online library. Student-participants interviewed find the features of the LMS helpful in assisting them in the writing process especially overcoming certain anxieties that can be experienced in the classroom. For instance, Examples 2 and 3 show that students were more confident in expressing their opinion through the discussion board more than classroom discussion. There was a unanimous agreement during the interviews that the discussion board was helpful way for them to express their ideas without the fear of disagreement and criticism because of incorrect grammar. It can also be noted how in Example 3, the student-participant emphasized that this confidence arises from the less personal feedback system where they can give answers and get criticisms without the anxiety of the face-to-face interaction where a mixture of positive or negative emotions may be observable.

The second division of helpful features is comprised of the general attributes of the online system itself. The accessibility of the World Wide Web in terms of defying constraints of time and space were advantages enjoyed by the students as seen in Examples 4 and 5. It was emphasized in the responses that students can view lessons even if they are physically absent in the classroom which points out a convenience that does not exist in traditional classroom instruction. It is also noteworthy how one student mentioned about an economical and environmental advantage of using online learning systems by reducing traffic congestion. The online platform also assisted the students in finding sources for their essays.

However, it was also important to identify the limitations of the online-based instruction. It was found in the quasi-experimental method that although students in experimental group significantly improved their scores in the overall essay performance, the statistical results per component revealed that they did not improve in content-building skills. The focus group interview might be able to shed light on this result. The following table shows the disadvantages or limitations if the online-based writing instruction as perceived by the students in the experimental group:

Table 9: Limitations of Online-based Instruction

Limitations	Excerpts from Discussion
Limited access to the Internet for dormitory-based students	Q: What difficulties or challenges did you encounter while doing the online-based learning? A: Access to Internet. We rent computers in the computer shop.
Distractions caused by working at home	"When we are at home, there many distractions (translated from Filipino). We become lazy."
Online-related distractions (social media, computer-gaming, multimedia, etc.)	"Yes, we cannot only focus on the topic in the internet. But we cannot focus because of Facebook, twitter…"
Lack of autonomous study habits	Student A: It is better if there is more teacher interaction, not unlike at home where there are many distractions. (translated from Filipino) Student B: Also, you become lazy. (translated from Filipino)
Lack of teacher guidance and communication	"Maybe. Because we want more guidance from the teacher that we can't get from E-leap lessons."
Lack of academic atmosphere and focus	"The students are more comfortable when there is a teacher teaching them." (translated from Filipino)

While students did not mention anything about the limitation or difficulties of using the online-based instruction the writing process itself, they were able to share several difficulties regarding the use of online learning platforms for general instruction. It has been expressed that accessibility is an advantage for most students when it comes to overcoming the boundaries of space and time, but it has also been expressed that the same advantage can be a difficulty for some especially when students are living in dormitories where access to the Internet may not readily be available. Although only a minority expressed this concern, it is still a very important issue to look into since any educational method or platform should not disenfranchise any student in the process of implementing it.

It is also noteworthy that while students expressed the convenience of working at home because it frees them from the pressure of time and direct criticism, they expressed concern about the distractions present in the same environment. Also, they expressed concerns regarding distractions in the internet like the temptation of browsing their social media accounts, viewing videos for entertainment and even online-based gaming instead of focusing on their lessons. Another disadvantage is what they perceive to be the lack of teacher guidance, and academic atmosphere, which disable them to focus on their lesson. This lack of focus and overreliance to teacher's lecture may suggest the lack of autonomous learning skills among students.

4. Discussion

It has been revealed through the results of the study from both quantitative and qualitative sources that the students as participants in the experiments were able to increase their overall writing performance through the effective application of the L2 writing process. This result is seen regardless the type of platform used (online-based or classroom-based). In the first part of the interview, the students were questioned regarding their writing difficulties as source of their low motivation before the lessons were implemented. The sources of anxieties like grammatical uncertainty, low vocabulary, difficulty of forming paragraphs, content production and even time pressure are challenges often encountered by writers of English in the second language.

While it has been observed in the interviews that students experienced second language writing anxieties, they also expressed that they were able to overcome them through using the process writing approach and with the help of some online-based features and tools. The LMS features like discussion board, video and articles links, class notes and announcement board was able to compensate for the absence of a physical classroom environment allowing students to access the lessons anytime and at any place where they can get the Internet connection. It is especially important to emphasize the role of online interaction platforms in lowering students' anxiety in expressing their arguments, and opinion with the other participants of the discussion board. The online-mediated writing was observed to be effective on lowering students' anxiety in expressing their opinion in the second language. While some students can think critically about an important issue in the society, their reluctance to express them in the second language due to grammar mistakes was hindering them. The pressure of classroom time and putting oneself in the 'spotlight' are found be source of anxiety during recitation. An online classroom is, therefore deemed helpful in helping students resolve such anxiety problems. This was supported by Blythe (2001), when he discussed that online sites offer unlimited access to dialoguing, asynchronous features allow them to post and comment at any time without the pressure of time, allowing students to carefully weigh their opinion first before engaging in arguments.

4.1. Advantages of Using the Online Platform

One important feature that has been highlighted in the interviews is the Internet's advantage to provide unlimited access to information. The LMS itself already has a feature in which the instructor can provide links to related articles that students can just click and read. However, it was not also very difficult to skip from a website to another in search of other articles not provided in the suggested reading. With this, the students had a plethora of information readily available as references for their argumentative essay. Stroia (2012) already mentioned the ability of the Internet to defy the limitations of time and space providing the access people need anytime and anyplace where the Internet is available. He also mentioned that an added quality is not just its ability to provide more than adequate information but also to provide the same information simultaneously to more than one person. Also, the "updatability" of information from the web is an advantage not observed in the textbooks.

Also, the Internet has a rich potential to allow students to retrieve information and share their own, contributing to a conscious effort to build knowledge through interaction with authentic texts and interaction with people they encounter in the World Wide Web. According to Hewett (2006), "From a theoretical perspective, online dialogue, like its oral counterpart, presumably can foster collaboration, a concept common to social constructivist epistemology, which holds all knowledge to be socially developed and relative to the group to which it applies. Such dialogues seem natural to developing ideas and discussing writing process to student writers." With this, the second language learners, who are usually timid and shy, can explore the boundaries outside the classroom and have their voices heard.

In writing, the use of Internet as a medium of expression among students cannot be left unrecognized. According to Hyland (2003), students gain satisfaction and pride in their written works for having discovered the Internet as an alternative way to publish them. Also, according to Pennington (2003), "All types of network arrangements have the potential for motivating L2 students to write and to revise in response to a real audience, for helping them gain more input on their writing, and empowering them to seek out the resources they need for developing their ideas." (p. 294). This is very important to note if writing has to be viewed as a truly communicative activity. Students, in the past, probably had low motivation in writing since they view it simply as an academic requirement with no impact in their social activities. With the introduction of the second language writing, students are now encouraged to write within their own communicative contexts.

Another important consideration in second language writing instruction is individual learning styles. According to Reid (2005), each learner has his/her own style of learning, and that these specific styles are more effective in certain situations. While learning styles differ from one individual to another, it is important therefore, to teach students to learn based on their own style through metacognitive awareness. Here it is recognized that the Internet is a potential tool in aiding students to learn according to their own pace, therefore, making them aware of their own individual learning styles and meaning-making process.

4.2. The Disadvantages Explained

4.2.1. Teacher Reliance and Lack of Autonomous Learning Ability

It is evident from the interview that while students see the advantages of using online learning as a supplemental instruction (discussion board for recitation and source of information) some students display reluctance for full online learning because they feel more comfortable when a teacher is actually teaching the lessons. They also mentioned their tendency to be "lazy" or unmotivated, and the distractions of home and other online-related activities as impediments to online learning success. This kind of response shows an overreliance to classroom lecture or the "spoonfeeding" technique. While this may be categorized as a learning style or preference, the long-term effect of this reliance should not also be overlooked. The tendency of students relying on teacher's lecture alone for instruction may impede the development of autonomous learning skills.

Autonomous learning technique has its roots on Constructivism, which "holds that knowledge is not acquired through teachers' teaching. But in a socio-cultural context, with others' help during the learning process, the necessary materials and by the way of meaning construction" (Zhu, Tang & Pan, 2014, p. 1401). In this orientation, the teacher now becomes mere facilitator or organizers of knowledge instead of its ultimate source. According to Holec (as cited by Smith, 2008), he first described learner autonomy as people's ability to "take charge of their own learning." (p. 396). Students are expected to develop skills that make them produce knowledge on their own or synthesize from other sources. The question is to what extent are students autonomous when making decisions about their learning?

While learning autonomy has positive effects on lifelong learning, the teacher has to be seen as an important guide in the process. It goes back to training students in the metacognitive fashion in which the teacher lets the students discover how their minds work and find specific strategies in learning that works for themselves. Also, the teacher still has to make certain decisions regarding content, methods and techniques, time and place, and evaluation process (Smith, 2008).

Due to the absence of learner autonomy techniques in the local classroom, especially in the field of Engineering, which is a highly content-laden subject area, students are more used to the lecture technique. Learner autonomy skills are not automatic; rather, they need to be honed and it's the

teacher's and the institution's initiative to do so. According to Trebbi (2008), much of the reluctance of educators in different levels is caused by the need to adhere to established curricula. The "loss of control" and the possibility of "inefficient learning" caused by new techniques are hindering them to practice learner autonomy. (p. 34).

Furthermore, the students' reluctance to use an online-based instruction is a product of slow-changing methods in instruction, especially in the college level. Without the widespread introduction of techniques and institutional support, learning methods that adhere to autonomous learning may only be considered as an option of secondary importance to students.

4.2.2. Overreliance on Internet Sources

While the negative improvement of the experimental groups' content building skills can be explained with a number of reasons, it can be assumed that the overreliance on the Internet sources can be one of them. One difference in instruction between the experimental and the control group is that the first were given suggested reading in through online links posted to the students' LMS accounts. However, the experimental group was not limited only to consulting the articles in the suggested reading list. Both groups are encouraged to look for articles from other sources. It is assumed that the suggested reading list result in the tendency of the students to rely only on readily available sources, unlike the control group searched for them from all possible sources. What was at first deemed to be an advantage became a disadvantage in the end.

Another problem that can be considered is the ability of the students to distinguish valid from invalid sources or references. Although, no one mentioned in the interviews about it since most students only focused on their convenience, it was observed during the intervention period that many students cite or refer to websites or sources (personal blogs and wikipedias) that may not be appropriate to the kind of essay they are writing. Since the experimental group are more exposed and encouraged to use the online tools, they may have been more exposed to this kind of mistake compared to the control group.

5. Conclusions

Online-based writing instruction and classroom-based writing instruction following the second language writing process paradigm both improved the overall writing performance of students in both groups. Therefore, online-based instruction can be considered as an effective alternative to classroom instruction where time and distance may be seen as impediments to instruction, and as supplemental learning tool for classroom-based teaching.

Students experienced the advantage of online-based instruction as an effective medium through which they can express their ideas and arguments without the pressure of classroom time and fear of criticism which they usually encounter in the classroom. The online instruction was also deemed to be effective due to its accessibility since students can view notes and lessons several times and where sources are readily available. However, they see the absence of the teacher as a disadvantage and still prefer the lecture method rather than autonomous research activities in which they were provided with sources and they are encouraged to synthesize information on their own. Therefore, in the initial stage of implementing online-based learning it is suggested that a blended or partial online instruction be implemented in the curriculum.

Online-based writing was observed to be effective in addressing second language learning issues such as classroom and writing anxiety, learning style differences and cultural background. It is based on the ability of the Internet to provide students platforms for authentic communication where their

voices can be heard and appreciated without the fear of being judged based on physical/racial characteristics that may be experienced in face-to-face communication. It was also found to be effective in addressing issues concerning economics and environment. However, institutional and social support is crucial in achieving the benefits of it.

The lack of learner autonomy skills and overreliance on Internet materials due to convenience may also be seen as impediments for the full success of online learning. Without appropriate learner autonomy skills, students will find it difficult to establish effective study habits and time management, which are important in online-based instruction. Therefore, it is important that educators and institutions start training students' autonomous learning skills that can contribute later on to lifelong learning. The implementation of blended learning model can contribute to trainings students develop autonomy.

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İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenciler arasında yazmayı öğretminde çevrimiçi eğitim platformunun kullanımını

Öz

Bütüncül bilgisayar destekli dil öğrenimi ışığında, bu araştırma, geleneksel bir sınıf öğretiminin yokluğunda İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler arasında yazma öğretiminde bir Öğrenme Yönetimi Yazılımı (LMS) gibi çevrimiçi öğrenme platformunun kullanılmasının etkinliğini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bununla birlikte, tek tek puanlama bileşenlerinin analizi, çevrimiçi öğretim grubunun içerik oluşturma becerisinde iyileşmediğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Odak grup görüşmeleri, çevrimiçi temelli öğretimin güçlü ve zayıf yönlerini ortaya çıkarmak için yapılmıştır ve öğrenciler, çevrimiçi öğrenmenin kaynak edinme ve fikirleri ifade etmede konusunda yardımcı olduğunu, ayrıca zamanla ilgili sorunları ve doğrudan geri bildirim korkusunu azaltmak için uygun olduğunu belirtmiştir. Ancak, eğitim ve danışma söz konusu olduğunda, öğrenciler yüz yüze sınıf diyaloğunu tercih etmişlerdir.

Anahtar sözcükler: çevrimiçi yazma; bilgisayar destekli dil öğretimi; ikinci dilde yazma

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A study on ELT students' cultural awareness and attitudes towards incorporation of target culture into language instruction

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Abstract

Culture and language are inseparable from each other as both in combination reflect shared cultural properties such as values, behaviours, and attitude inherent in the society we live and in language patterns we use. In this respect, it is highly valuable to integrate cultural elements into language education for intercultural understanding and welcoming different cultures. The aim of this research was to explore the attitudes of Turkish university students at the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department towards culture and its integration into language teaching and their cultural awareness and to reveal if birthplace, gender, experience abroad and high school graduated had any influence on their attitudes. Data were collected from 96 participants through a questionnaire consisting of three parts (i.e. demographic information, multiple-choice questions, and 5-point Likert-type scale). For data analysis, descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage and means), one-way ANOVA and post-hoc test were conducted via SPSS and open-ended items were qualitatively analyzed. Overall, findings of the study yielded positive attitudes of significant numbers of ELT students towards culture and its incorporation in language teaching regardless of their birthplace, the type of high school, and the experience abroad. As for gender, female students had more positive attitudes towards culture than males. Additionally, participants were found to learn culture mainly to develop their cultural awareness and maintain better communication with people from different cultures. In the light of findings, necessary implications were provided for teachers and teacher educators regarding raising cultural awareness of students and developing positive attitudes towards incorporation of target culture into language instruction.

1. Introduction

Research on culture in foreign language learning and teaching has gained an increasing popularity only after the end of the 20th century and the importance of culture in communication and language learning has been greatly emphasized (i.e. Kramsch, 1983; Byram & Morgan, 1994; Stodolsky & Grossman, 1995; Lessard-Clouston, 1996; Önalan, 2004; Çalışkan, 2009; Sarıçoban & Çalışkan, 2011; Kahraman, 2016; Rodríguez, 2017).

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According to Bennett (1993:9), learning a language without its culture makes a person 'a fluent fool who speaks a language well, but, does not understand the social or philosophical content of that language'. No matter how proficient you are in all language skills in a foreign language or how perfect you speak that language; it is difficult to communicate or negotiate with the native speakers of that language since you lack the cultural knowledge. In other words, the full mastery of a target language does not only involve the mastery of the language skills, patterns and rules but also the target culture (Hesar et al., 2012). Byram (1988) argues that language does not function independent of the context where it is used and cultural context plays a major role in shaping the language pattern use considering the contextual elements such as people, the circumstances, time and place. Thus, as we learn the target language, we also need to learn the target culture for better communication and understanding of the perceptions of native speakers of the target language, their shared life experiences, social behaviors, feelings, beliefs, traditions and religions.

In this respect, McKay (2003) states that culture has a significant influence on language teaching in terms of two aspects: linguistic and pedagogical. The former one is that culture affects the semantic, discourse and pragmatic levels of language. Accordingly, some lexical phrases (e.g. Uncle Tom) and speech acts (e.g. compliments) are culture-specific and characteristics of certain members of societies. The latter aspect is that culture affects the content of the materials and teaching methods used in language instruction. Any institution with such educational aims in language teaching is expected to maintain the relationship between success in learning the target language and developing positive attitudes towards its culture. In this sense, language learners who are not familiar with the target culture may be prone to difficulties in interacting with the native speakers and understanding the way they behave and talk, the things they do, eat, celebrate or like. In relation to this, Bada (2000:101) asserts that 'the need for cultural literacy, or, awareness in ELT arises mainly from the fact that most language learners, not exposed to cultural elements of the society in question, seem to encounter significant hardship in communicating meaning to native speakers'. They may tend to judge other cultures when they encounter based on their own values and assume that the beliefs and attitudes of other people are wrong and unacceptable. In addition, they may not be aware of that it stems from the nature of the cultures and differences between cultures and therefore, they may not respect these cultures. Such difficulties may affect the attitudes and perceptions of the language learners. Besides, negative or positive feelings may directly influence teaching and learning process in the long run (Kahraman, 2016: 4). Therefore, knowing the target culture facilitates the comprehension of the meaning and choice of language use. At this point, Genc and Bada (2005:75) argue that incorporation of culture teaching into language instruction has 'a humanizing and motivating effect' on language learner and the language learning process. Accordingly, it enables learners recognize the similar and different features across groups with different cultures and prevent them from making inappropriate judgments about their cultural values and considering them as 'peculiar and ill-mannered' (p.75). Despite this, culture is asserted to be not much integrated into language teaching programs (Reid, 1995:3). This might result from the fact that practical side of target language use or its grammatical aspect is mostly emphasized and culture is considered to be an additional or supplemental part of teaching (Önalan, 2005). Or, the lack of consensus on how to introduce culture elements in the classrooms might be another reason behind this (Frank, 2013). Research on teachers' perceptions, beliefs and attitudes and analysis of textbooks has demonstrated that cultural dimension has been a neglected aspect in language teaching process (Çalışkan, 2009). Thus, in order to create awareness in the cultural dimension of language learning and to reveal to what extent culture is integrated into language classrooms, there is a need to highlight what attitude students exhibit towards the integration of culture in language learning and provide implications with respect to the incorporation of culture into language teaching.

1.1. Theoretical background

The concept of 'culture' has attracted the attention of many researchers and it has been defined in a number of ways by various scholars (i.e. Hofstede, 1984; Corbett, 2003; Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G.J., & Minkov, 2010). Culture is basically defined as "a system of concepts, behaviors, values, and an approach to life and it is developed throughout the history by people" (Hammer, 1985:53). It is said to have its broadest definition in social anthropology and defined as 'the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others' (Hofstede et al., 2010: 6). As for Corbett (2003: 20), culture refers to 'the relationship between its core beliefs and values, and the patterns of behavior, art and communication that the group produces, bearing in mind that these beliefs and values are constantly being negotiated within the group'.

The description of culture has undergone a change throughout the years. While the earlier approaches view it as a static entity and ignore the values and attitudinal differences in language communities, recent approaches perceive it as dynamic and multi-dimensional, shaped by the interaction and communication among people (Önalan, 2004; Bayyurt, 2006; Şen, 2010). In this respect, as Önalan (2004:18) states, there has been the characterization of culture 'from culture-separate-from-language to culture-language-hand-in-hand'.

In relation to foreign language teaching, Adaskou, Britten and Fahsi (1990: 3-4) provide a very comprehensive definition of this term which was adopted in this study. The authors define it as a term which encompasses four different senses: the aesthetic sense (music, literature, media and cinema), sociological (home life, family, work and leisure, material conditions, customs, institutions), semantic (food, clothes, institutions), and pragmatic (sociolinguistic) sense (i.e. social skills, background knowledge, paralinguistic skills).

Regarding the role of culture in language, researchers generally focused on the relation between culture and language and here is a definition of culture and learning by Brown (2000: 177):

> "A language is a part of culture and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture. In other words, language and culture cannot be separated."

According to Çalışkan (2009), there are mainly three different aspects of culture-language relation as explained below:

a) culture as contained in the socio-pragmatics and semantics of language

b) culture as macro context for language use

c) culture as thematic content in the discourse of language teaching

(Çalışkan, 2009: 17)

Accordingly, from the first perspective, as language consists of linguistic expressions, words, phrases and so on., it requires an understanding of the cultural knowledge to be able to use these expressions properly and appropriately. As for the second aspect, since cultural and social values and the choice of language use are shaped within the boundaries of societal and geographical structure, culture should be taught for the acquisition of communicative competence to be able to communicate with the native speakers of the target language. Lastly, from the third perspective, culture should be taught for the comprehension of the values of native speakers. Considering all these aspects, culture and language are suggested to be taught together.

Another important concept that is one of the main foci of this study is cultural awareness. Cultural awareness is defined as 'an approach to culture that includes skills in observing and understanding difference and sameness' (Çalışkan, 2009: 26) and 'the suspension of judgments, i.e. not being critical

of other people's apparently deviant behavior' (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004: 7). In other words, it refers to 'a range of phenomena from knowledge about other countries to positive attitudes towards speakers of other languages, to a heightened sensitivity to othernesses of any kind' (Byram & Risager, 1999: 3). To have an understanding of other target cultures and certain characteristics that are particular to that society under consideration such as beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, interests, identity, and lifestyle, it is important to create cultural awareness in language learners. This is mainly because of the reason that cultural awareness leads us to the recognition and understanding of the differences and similarities between our own culture and the other cultures that we observe and contributes to bridging the gap between these differences and building the atmosphere of tolerance and confidence among societies (Hofstede et al., 2010).

At this point, it is important to focus on the concept of 'attitude' since the current research mainly aimed to reveal the attitudes of language learners towards culture learning in classrooms. Attitude is a term that refers to 'positive or negative feelings that students have toward the language, the language teacher, and the study of the language (Önalan, 2004: 35). Language learning process is prone to be affected by the attitudes of language learners towards language and can also be affected by their attitudes towards the cultural elements of language.

1.2. Literature review

A review of literature has shown that culture has been examined from different aspects in the earlier studies. For instance, English language teacher and/or learner perceptions and attitudes towards the concept of culture and integration of culture in language teaching and/or learning have been studied with a focus on factors affecting teachers' or students' attitudes (i.e. Canagarajah, 1993; Byram & Morgan, 1994; Larzén-Östermark, 2008; Sarıçoban & Çalışkan, 2011; Dweik & Al-sayyed, 2015; Kahraman, 2016; Rezaeifard & Chalak, 2017). The cultural elements in textbooks or classroom materials have been the main concern of some other researchers that examined how culture was presented in the teaching materials (i.e. Kramsch, 1987; Iriskulova, 2012). A review of the studies conducted in Turkish context has shown that most of the researchers (i.e. Çamlıbel, 1998; Işık, 2002; Önalan, 2004; 2005; Bayyurt, 2006; Atay, Kurt, Çamlıbel, Ersin & Kaslıoğlu, 2009; Şen, 2010; Karabınar & Güler, 2012; Aydemir & Mede, 2014) focused on English language teachers at different institutions such as high schools or universities and their findings yielded inconsistencies regarding the perceived notions of culture by language teachers and their beliefs about the incorporation of culture into language teaching/materials. For instance, in the study of Çamlıbel (1998), more than half of the teachers, either experienced or inexperienced, perceived culture as unimportant and in the study of Işık (2002), teachers had negative perceptions about cultural information in materials. On the other hand, in the studies conducted by Önalan (2004; 2005), most of the teachers had positive feelings and attitudes towards culture integration in language teaching. In addition, teachers mostly defined culture in terms of customs, values, traditions and social relations and reported that they incorporated cultural information in their instruction. Different from these studies, Çalışkan (2009) concentrated on language learners at university level and found out that even though variations existed among participants in terms of gender, birth date, age, high school graduated and the experience in U.S.A or England, majority of them displayed positive attitudes towards culture learning and its incorporation to language teaching, materials, course books, and tasks.

Apart from these studies, there is little empirical research on the investigation of Turkish prospective teachers' perceptions about integration of culture into language learning and teaching process. For example, Genc and Bada (2005) focused on ELT students at a state university and analyzed the effects of the implementation of a culture course on their perceptions about the target culture. Their study yielded positive attitudes of student teachers towards culture incorporation into

language learning and the pivotal role of culture class in raising cultural awareness and developing language skills as well as communicative competence. On the other hand, Atay (2005) found out that although ELT students had the awareness of importance of cultural dimension in language learning and their lack of cultural knowledge, their practices and perspectives seemed to be far away from implementation of culture teaching in language classrooms.

To sum up, the relevant literature revealed that teachers and language teaching materials have an influence on culture incorporation into language instruction and students' feelings or attitudes and cultural awareness are affected by teachers' perceptions about culture and culture teaching and the amount and types of cultural elements included in language education.

1.3. Significance of the study

Language learning is thought to be a social and cultural phenomenon as there is an association between language use and social and cultural values (Kahraman, 2016). In this sense, culture constitutes an essential part of language instruction and culture teaching has become more crucial in EFL pedagogy than ever (Önalan, 2005: 219; Şen, 2010: 3). What is more, as has been witnessed in the past thirty years, the goals of foreign language teaching have entailed a shift in focus from linguistic competence over communicative one to intercultural competence and intercultural communicative one (Larzén-Östermark, 2008: 527). Therefore, this study is believed to contribute to the relevant field of research by raising awareness about the importance of embedding culture teaching into language instruction for developing an intercultural understanding of expectations, behaviors, knowledge, language use and skills of a particular group of people.

Apart from what has been aforementioned, the significance of this study lies in the fact that it aims to fill the relevant gap in the literature because little is known about the cultural awareness of Turkish prospective language teachers majoring at ELT Department and their perceptions towards culture teaching. It is argued that, in teacher education programs, the linguistic aspect of language teaching is much more emphasized and it overshadows the cultural aspect (Kahraman, 2016:1). In fact, as Corbett (2003) argues, language learners need to comprehend the practices and beliefs of target culture to fully understand the language that people of the target culture use. Accordingly, language is used for not only the transfer of information but also the negotiation, construction and maintenance of individual and group identities (p. 20). Considering the necessity of culture learning for learners, it is of utmost importance for language teachers to have cultural knowledge and positive beliefs about the place of target culture. As future English language teachers, ELT students themselves, at first, should acquire the intercultural sensitivity and have positive feelings about culture learning to be able to equip the learners with the cultural knowledge and awareness and to promote positive attitudes towards other cultures for effective communication in the target language. Thus, having an insight into the attitudes of especially ELT students through the present research is especially important in that the design of teacher education programs or institutions could be revised and reconsidered to help prospective teachers to develop positive attitudes towards target culture and incorporation of cultural elements into language teaching.

Lastly, as culture is specific to the region the members of a group of people live, the social environment that they share, and the ethnics they have, it is of utmost importance to reveal if any of the variables searched including birth place, experience abroad, gender and the type of high school that was graduated had any influence on their attitudes towards the target culture learning.

1.4. Research questions

This study was primarily designed to explore the attitudes of English language learners majoring in ELT towards target culture learning and incorporation of cultural elements into English language education and to examine whether birth of place, experience abroad, gender and the type of high school students graduated from had any influence on their attitudes or not. It also aimed to reveal to what extent they were aware of the target culture and they introduced cultural information.

The following research questions were addressed in the current study:

1. What is the attitude of ELT students towards culture and the incorporation of culture into language instruction?

2. Is there any effect of gender, birthplace, experience abroad and type of high school graduated on ELT students' attitudes towards culture?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

This research adopted a survey design. Surveys are used to get information about people's behaviors, opinions, beliefs, ideas, perceptions and attitudes (Önalan, 2004). In the current study, a questionnaire was used to elicit the answers on students' attitudes and beliefs about culture and their cultural awareness as well as the place of culture in language teaching.

2.2. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 96 3rd and 4th year students majoring at the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department at a state university in Turkey. The rationale behind choosing this sample was that ELT students were supposed to have a lot of exposure to language learning and the large amount of experience with the target language and its culture. Thus, as future language teachers, they are expected to be aware of the importance of culture incorporation to language teaching to educate their students with cultural awareness. The age range of the participants was between 20 and 22. Further demographic information regarding participants' gender, birthplace, experience abroad and the type of high school they graduated from was provided in the Results and Discussion part as it formed the variables that were under investigation within the scope of this research.

Convenience sampling method was used for selecting the participants. Specifically, participants were chosen among the students who were conveniently available during data collection procedure to participate in the study.

2.3. Instrument

For the purposes of the study, a questionnaire was administered to the participants to explore their attitudes towards the integration of cultural elements in language classrooms. This questionnaire was developed by Önalan (2004) at Middle East Technical University (METU) to measure the attitudes of ELT teachers towards the place of culture and culture teaching in language classrooms. Later, it was adapted by Çalışkan (2009) to improve the content validity of the questionnaire and to measure language learners' attitudes rather than teachers. Since the current study investigated language learners' attitudes towards culture, this adapted version was used.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part included 15 multiple-choice questions, each with an open-ended option to evaluate their thoughts about the target culture in their language classrooms. Specifically, participants were provided with five options to choose from, and one with 'other' to give them freedom to write anything they wanted regarding the item in question. The second part consisted of 13 items with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Participants were asked to rate each statement based on the level of agreement/ disagreement with regards to their beliefs about the integration of culture in the language teaching. The last part included four questions related to the participants' demographic information including birthplace, experience abroad, the type of high school they graduated from, and gender. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, consent forms were given to participants to fill in to ensure that they agreed to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

2.4. Data analysis

For the analysis of quantitative part of the data, statistical tests were performed via SPSS 20.0 (*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*). First, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire, and it was found to be .89, which means that the test had high internal reliability. Second, the responses of participants to the multiple-choice test items and Likert-type scale items in the questionnaire were calculated through descriptive statistics. Specifically, the frequency, percentages and means per each item and overall were calculated. The higher students rated the items in the Likert-type scale which had positive direction, the more positive attitude they had towards culture integration in language learning. In addition, the lower they rated the items which represented negative perceptions about culture integration, the more positive attitude they had towards culture learning.

For the analysis of qualitative part of the data, the open-ended items in the multiple-choice test part were analyzed through qualitative content analysis to explore participants' ideas on each question. Based on this method, the responses of participants to each item were analyzed and coded and their perceptions were identified.

Additionally, one-way ANOVA was run to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in students' beliefs on culture integration in language education in terms of birthplace, gender, experience abroad and type of graduated high school.

3. Results and Discussion

In this part, the analysis of ELT students' responses to the questionnaire was documented in terms of frequency, percentages, means and statistical test results and discussed in the light of the relevant literature. As the questionnaire items differed from one another in terms of item format, the responses of students to each item were discussed one-by-one to shed a light on students' perceptions regarding the concept of culture, its integration to language teaching and cultural awareness.

3.1. Part 1: Multiple-choice Test Results

Item 1. *Should Turkish learners of English be taught English/American culture?*

In item 1, participants were asked to respond to whether cultural information should be integrated into ELT classroom or not. Based on their Yes/No answer, if they selected the option No, they were asked to provide two reasons among five options and one open-ended option.

It was revealed that 72,9% of students thought that culture should be taught in ELT classroom whereas 27,1 % of them thought the opposite. Among those who chose the option 'No', 16 students chose the option that 'culture-specific information is inappropriate to the classroom environment'. 9 of them stated that 'some issues could have negative effects on their own culture'. Apart from that, 8 students chose the option that 'they do not feel comfortable with certain culture-based topics'. There were two other reasons and they were about the non-suitability of the cultural information to the language level that students have and sensitivity of certain cultural subjects in their local culture. While six of the students chose the former reason, four of them chose the latter reason for saying No for integration of cultural information in language classroom.

This study supports the findings of the previous studies in that majority of ELT students exhibited positive attitudes towards learning culture as it is the case with Turkish EFL learners and/or teachers (e.g. Önalan, 2004; Çalışkan, 2009; Kahraman, 2016). Regarding the minority who thought the opposite, it is important to have an understanding of why they stated that they should not be taught the target culture. Based on the findings, they seemed to support the idea that classroom environment is not suitable for providing them with cultural information. In fact, it is important to create enthusiasm and interest in the classroom environment to have these students develop positive attitudes towards learning target culture.

Item 2. *When you think of culture, which of the following is its MOST significant aspect in your opinion?*

Item 2 aimed to elicit students' responses to how they conceived of culture from a holistic perspective. Since culture covers a range of different elements such as art, language, religion, traditions, customs, habits, literature, behaviors, moral values, daily lifestyle, interaction, communication, and ethical values, it is important to have an insight into how students defined culture. It was found that most of students emphasized the communication perspective as well as the interpersonal relations that a particular community has.

Table 1. The most significant aspect of culture

Aspects of culture	Percentage %
Communication	28.1
Community	22.9
System	20.8
Country	19.8
What people do	8.3

As it is clearly seen in Table 1, majority of the students reported that the most significant aspect of culture is '*the background knowledge, social and paralinguistic skills that make communication successful'*. On the contrary, the aspect that '*culture entails what people do at word, at home, in their free time and while they are entertained'*, was found to be the least significant aspect of culture based on the students' responses. Apart from that, 22, 9 % of the students considered '*the characteristics of home, nature of family and interpersonal relations in a community'* as the second most significant aspect when they thought of culture. In addition, the item '*the system that is reflected by the media, cinema, music, literature and art of a community'* was chosen by 20 students as the most important aspect of culture. Lastly, 19,8 % of the students thought that '*culture refers to the customs, traditions*

and institutions of a country'. These findings suggest that students are much concerned with the communication aspect of culture and interpersonal relations.

Item 3. *What is more important in your learning? Rank-order the ten elements of vocabulary-reading-listening-fluency-speaking-accuracy-culture-grammar-pronunciation-writing-other*

Participants were asked to rank ten items in terms of importance in their learning to determine how important they perceived culture among other skills and language aspects. As depicted below in Figure 1, majority of the students (32,3 %) perceived the skill of 'speaking' as the most important aspect in learning.
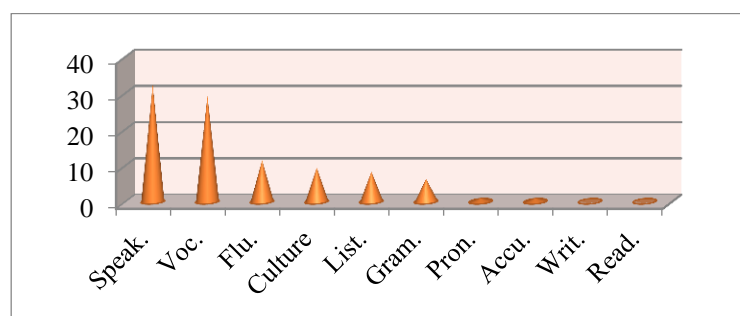
Figure 1. Percentage for the rank of language aspects in terms of importance

Considering all other aspects, culture ranked the fourth after speaking, vocabulary and fluency. Besides, culture was also found to be the most important aspect of language learning among the rest including listening, reading and writing skills, pronunciation and accuracy. Other than that, culture was chosen to be the most important one in learning among all other aspects by only 9,4 % of the participants.

Apart from that, students' responses for the item which they chose as the least important one and ranked the tenth were taken into consideration. It was revealed that culture was chosen as the least important aspect of language learning by 35,4 % of ELT students. This suggests that a considerable number of students regarded culture as the least important aspect of language compared to other nine aspects. Similarly, culture was not the primary concern of majority of EFL teachers in Önalan's (2005) study, who ranked culture in the ninth order. In fact, the main goal for asking this question to students was to determine the place of culture in the language learning process based on their perceptions. Only a total of 9 students chose culture as first in the ranking as the most important and a total of 34 students chose culture as the tenth in their ranking as the least important one. It may be possible that they do not consider culture as important as the other components of language learning process and cultural information can be regarded as something that is additional. This finding might result from the lack of awareness in cultural information in classroom environment, the lack of teachers' focus on cultural aspect, or, the lack of attention to the cultural knowledge in language learning materials or tasks.

Item 4. *What should cultural information in the ELT classroom include?*

In item 4, the ELT students' perceptions were elicited regarding the kind of information that cultural information should include. Based on this, students were asked to choose three appropriate options among eleven options for the incorporation of cultural information in the ELT classroom. Majority of the students were found to support that cultural information should include *communicative aspects including body language and idioms, daily life, food and clothes, and architecture, literature, music and art* in ELT classroom as illustrated in Figure 2.
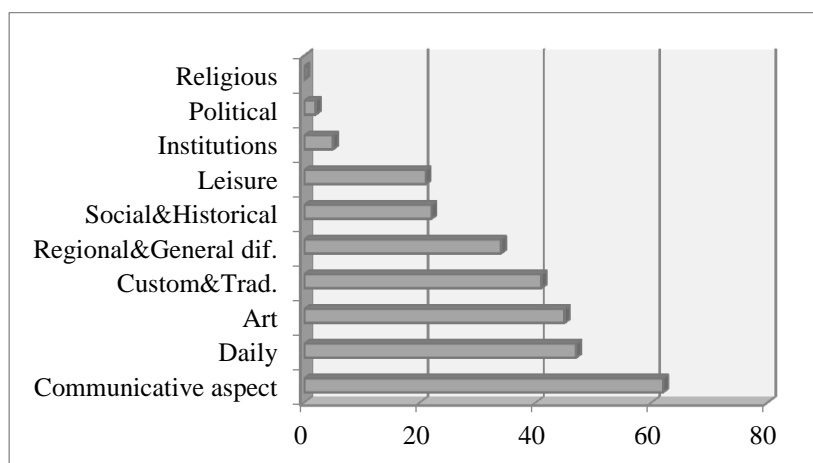
Figure 2. Frequency of responses for the elements of cultural information in the ELT classroom

As indicated in Figure 2, in quantitative terms, 62 out of 96 students selected the option *'communicative aspects like body language and idioms'* as cultural information that should be included in the ELT classroom. A total of 47 students selected the option that cultural information should contain '*daily lifestyle, food and clothes'*. The third most frequently selected option (45 students) was that *cultural information should include architecture, literature, music and art in* ELT classroom. In addition, participants were not interested in the political and religious aspects or the American or British institutions in language environment as cultural information considering the low frequency of their preferences.

In parallel to these findings of the current study, the preparatory level university students in the study of Çalışkan (2009) also supported the inclusion of communicative aspects into the cultural information in language classrooms. At this point, it is important to make language learners acquainted with the daily lives that people of other cultures have, the food they eat, the clothes they wear and the art/music they favor since language learners generally passively acquire the cultural information about other people. Another parallelism is that in both studies, students seemed not to support the idea that cultural information should include British and American institutions, political problems in the USA/UK or the religious practices in these countries as few numbers of students favored these options in both studies. This finding suggests that students are not interested in the institutions, religious and political concerns of these countries and they seemed to think that cultural information should not include these aspects of culture in language learning environment. Another explanation might be that as these students are not introduced to these cultural aspects in language education, they may have regarded these aspects as not component of cultural information.

Item 5. *Which stage would be more appropriate for providing you with cultural information? Choose only one. Please state reason(s) why.*

Item 5 elicited students' responses on which stage it is appropriate to provide students with the cultural information and the reasons for choosing that particular stage. Most of the students were found to choose *intermediate level* as the appropriate stage for providing students with the cultural information.
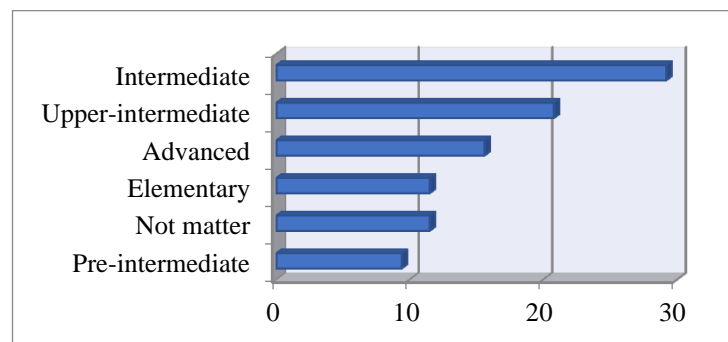
Figure 3. Percentage of responses about the appropriate stage for incorporation of cultural information in language learning

As it is clearly seen in Figure 3, a total of 28 students selected the option of intermediate as the most appropriate level for culture incorporation. Upper-intermediate level ranked the second and 20,8 % of the students stated that upper-intermediate level is the most appropriate level for providing cultural information. Similarly, most of the preparatory students in the study of Çalışkan (2009) stated that upper-intermediate is the most suitable level to learn about culture.

As for the reasons behind their selection of intermediate as the most appropriate level, some of the respondents stated that students at this stage could easily learn and adapt what cultural information they are provided with and they have sufficient background and language knowledge to comprehend the cultural issues at this stage. One of the students stated that it is not too late, not too early. It was also revealed that this stage is suitable because students have acquired basic linguistic skills and could understand cultural issues when they are provided with.

The respondents who chose Advanced level as the most appropriate level reported that students are more informed at this stage and they are at a stage where they learn beyond the language. One student stated that the stages before advanced level are not suitable as culture is complex to learn. Another reason for selecting this stage as appropriate was reported to be related to the fluency that students have at this stage. Accordingly, students at this stage are more accustomed to proverbs and idioms that are specific to each culture and they could understand. In parallel to this, in Kahraman's (2016) study, most of the EFL learners supported the idea that high level of L2 proficiency is necessary to learn the target culture.

Next, the respondents who selected elementary as suitable level stated that culture teaching should start as soon as possible. Some of them also stated that if culture is taught earlier, they could learn and improve their understanding of culture intrinsically.

Lastly, only 9,4 % of the participants chose Pre-intermediate as suitable for culture learning and reported that the earlier students take, the better it is. As in line with Çalışkan's (2009) study, pre-intermediate and elementary stages were the least preferred stages for integration of cultural elements in learning. The preference of this minority group of students suggests that the earlier stages are not thought to be suitable for introducing cultural elements.

Item 6. *What might be your reactions when you are provided with cultural information?*

Item 6 questioned students' reactions towards cultural information in language learning and provided six options to choose (i.e. interested (positive), analytical, skeptical, rejected (negative), no reaction or other reason). Based on participants' responses, it was revealed that majority of students (i.e. 56,3 %) showed positive reactions when they were provided with cultural information and 37,5 % of them were found to be analytical. Similar results were obtained from the analysis of preparatory school students' responses in Çalışkan's (2009) study.

As for the other reactions, only 5,2% of the participants chose the option skeptical and none of the students reported that they would reject cultural information when provided. In contrast to this, in Çalışkan's study, 3, 2 % of the students reported that they would not react at all.

Item 7. *Do you think that target cultural elements should be included in language learning?*

In this item, students were asked to provide an answer with either Yes or No about the inclusion of cultural elements in language learning and to state two reasons among three options and one open-ended option if they chose the option No.

Findings of the study demonstrated that a considerable number of students, that is, 84 students (87,5 %), responded Yes and thought that cultural elements should be included in language learning whereas 12 (12,5 %) out of 96 students thought the reverse. Similar findings were also observed in the findings of Çalışkan's (2009) study, with majority supporting the incorporation of culture into language in contrast to minority who did not favor it.

The students who responded 'No' were asked to state two possible reasons and it was found out that 11 out of 12 students chose the option 1, that is, they do not find culture necessary for themselves. Besides, four of the participants reported that they considered *American or English culture as harmful to their own culture*. Lastly, only three of them stated that *they themselves do not have sufficient cultural information.*

Item 8. *In what ways (what kind of materials, tasks, activities... etc.) would you like to be introduced with cultural information? Please, mark three appropriate options.*

Students were asked to provide three appropriate material/task types via which they should be introduced cultural elements through Item 8. Table 2 demonstrates the frequency of students based on their selection of options.

Table 2. Frequency distribution of different kinds of materials and activities for introducing culture

Kinds of materials/tasks	Frequency
Video films & documentaries	74
Cultural experiences	63
Novels and short stories	34
Newspapers and magazines	32
Pictures and posters	27
Coursebooks	22
Daily used articles	17

As indicated in Table 2, most of the students reported that cultural information should be given via *video films and documentaries,* which has also been evidenced in Çalışkan's (2009) study. This could provide them with visual presentation of cultural experiences that they do not have in real life and introduce the lives in other cultures.

Apart from that, *discussion of cultural experiences* was found to be the second most frequently selected task/activity via which participants thought cultural information could be introduced. Then, *novels, short stories*, and *newspapers and magazines* were almost equally chosen as materials that should introduce cultural information.

Item 9. *Are there any disadvantages of learning the target culture in EFL classes?*

In item 9, students were asked to respond Yes or No to the question of whether there are any disadvantages of learning the target culture in EFL classes. Based on this, the students who answered Yes were also asked to state two reasons for their responses and to choose among 6 options, one with open-ended item. It was revealed that 50 students responded 'No', which means that there was no disadvantage of learning target culture in language classes. However, the rest of them reported that learning culture in language classes has disadvantages. As for the analysis of reasons provided among given options as seen in Figure 4, it was revealed that more than half of the students (29 out of 50 students) chose '*over-sympathy to US/UK culture*' which was the most frequently chosen option as a disadvantage. EFL teachers at universities in the study of Önalan (2005) also expressed their concerns about the possibility that their students may develop over-sympathy to the target culture.
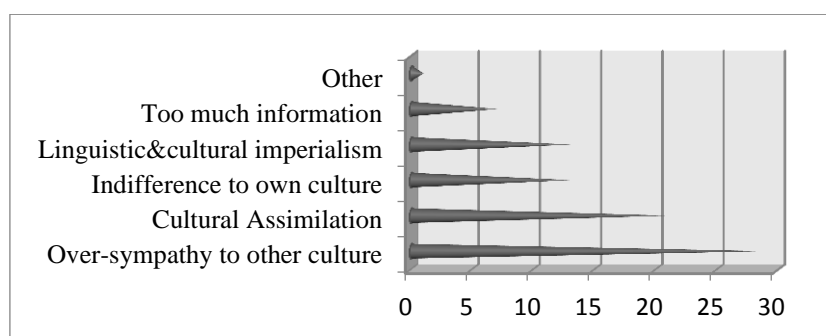
Figure 4. Frequency of responses regarding the disadvantages of learning culture in EFL classes

As indicated in Figure 4, the second most frequently selected option was found to be the *cultural assimilation*, which was chosen by 21 students. The possible reason behind the selection of this item is that students might feel fear of losing their own culture while learning the target culture. Apart from that, *too much information* was found to be the least frequently selected option as a disadvantage (i.e. 7 students).

Item 10. *Are there any advantages of learning cultural information in EFL classes?*

The item 10 asked students to respond to the question of whether learning cultural information in EFL classes is advantageous or not and if their answer is 'Yes', participants were asked to choose two appropriate options among 6 items, one with open-ended item.

A significant number of students, 82 students (95%), responded 'Yes' and reported that learning cultural information has advantages whereas the rest responded 'No'. This finding was already evidenced in the study conducted by Çalışkan (2009), which revealed that 89,5 % of students considered it as advantageous while the rest was the opposite. As for the reasons for selecting 'Yes' option, answers yielded variation as indicated in Figure 5 below.
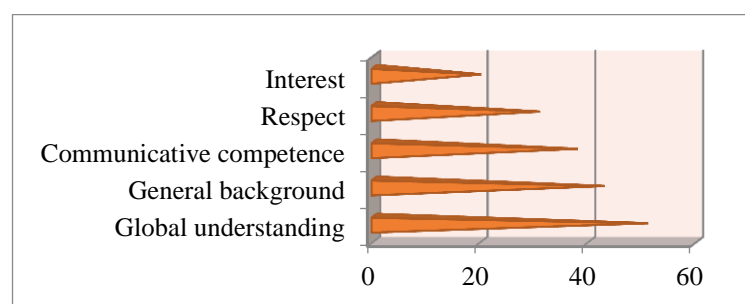

Figure 5. Advantages of learning cultural information in EFL classes

Firstly, 51 students chose the option of *global understanding*, which means that more than half of the students who participated in the study found learning culture useful for global understanding. Then, *improving general background knowledge* was the second most frequently chosen option by 43 students. Third, 38 students reported that they found learning cultural information in EFL classes advantageous for better *communicative competence*. Finally, *interest* was found to be the least frequently chosen option, which means that, 20 students reported that learning cultural information is advantageous for *adding interests to teaching and learning the language*.

Item 11. *Do you experience any difficulties in learning the cultural content of your textbooks/texts?*

Item 11 asked students whether they experienced any difficulties in learning the cultural content of their textbooks or texts. If their answer was Yes, they were asked to state two problems that they encountered while learning culture. More than half of the students (i.e. 52 students) responded 'No', which means that, they do not have difficulties in learning the cultural content of text/books. As for the problems experienced in learning the cultural content of text/books by the students who said Yes, 20 students found it *difficult to understand some aspects of American/British culture*. 12 students also stated that they are *not so knowledgeable about American/British culture*. Lastly, 8 students reported that they have difficulties because their *course books do not include any help for learning target culture.*

Item 12. *Do you think that you need supplementary materials in terms of cultural information throughout your language learning?*

Item 12 asked students whether they needed supplementary materials regarding cultural information during language learning process. 75 % of the students reported that they needed supplementary materials that include cultural information during their language learning process whereas 25 % of the students reported that they did not need them.

The students who needed supplementary materials were also asked to provide two supplementary materials they needed among 5 options, one with open-ended item. The results of the data analysis showed that majority of the students (i.e. 62) chose the option of *authentic materials and realias*. 55 students reported that they needed *realias* (objects) and 17 students needed *pictures of cultural items*. Only 4 students stated that they needed *explanations only*. It is important to supply students with a variety of different materials that include cultural elements for making students expose to different kinds of cultural information. Providing such visual supplementary materials other than course books may also create enthusiasm and motivation for learning the target culture.

Item 13. *What should be the main aim of presenting cultural information in language learning?*

Item 13 asked students what the aim of presenting cultural information in language learning should be and to choose only one aim, that is, one option among six options. Table 3 below provides a visual presentation of the percentages of students' responses regarding different aims.

Table 3. Aims of presenting cultural information in language learning

Main aims	Percentage %
Awareness	30.2
Successful Communication	22.9
Intellectual development	19.8
Insight into own culture	11.5
Familiarization	9.4
Comparison	6.3

Majority of the students stated that the main aim of presenting cultural information in language learning is '*developing awareness of other cultures and people*'. The finding that the main aim of presenting cultural information in language classrooms was to create cultural awareness for many ELT students suggests that they exhibit an understanding of the target culture and consider culture instruction as a part of language learning, which also yielded students' positive attitudes towards developing cultural awareness.

Apart from that, for 22,9 % of students, the main aim was to create *more successful communication*. Following these, 19,8 % of students chose option 3, which means that, the main aim should be the *intellectual development.* A small group of students stated that the main aim should be *comparing their own cultures with the culture of UK and US.*

Item 14. *What should be the role of the teacher in increasing your awareness of the target culture?*

In item 14, students were asked to choose two options among five options regarding the role of the teacher in increasing their awareness of the target culture.

Table 4. Teachers' role in increasing cultural awareness

Teachers' role	Frequency
Dis/similarities	52
Arousing interest and promoting target culture	45
Respecting the target culture	43
Personal experiences with cultural information	27
Only when I need	4

As presented in Table 4, based on 52 students' perceptions, teachers' role should be mainly *to present differences and similarities between their own culture and the target culture.* Following this, the option 3 '*to arouse interest and promote target culture*' was found to be the second most frequently chosen option as the teachers' role by 45 students. Another role, which is *encouraging students to respect the target culture*, ranked the third. As the least frequently preferred option, to *provide cultural information only when students needed* was supposed to be the teachers' role by only 4 students.

Item 15. *Should cultural information be assessed?*

In item 15, students were asked whether cultural information should be assessed or not and to choose an appropriate option which explains their reasons for their answers.

The results of the data analysis indicated that 60 out of 96 students (70%) responded Yes, which means that more than half of the students showed positive attitude towards cultural assessment and reported that culture should be assessed in language learning process. In contrast, 26 students (30%) chose the option No and reported that cultural information should not be assessed. Unlike the present study, most of the preparatory school students in Çalışkan's (2009) study and EFL teachers in Önalan's (2005) study disagreed with the assessment of culture.

In addition to this, students were asked to provide a reason for choosing Yes or No option. On one hand, among students who responded Yes, 59 out of 60 students chose the option 2, which means that

culture and language are inseparable. To put in other words, almost all of the students who responded that culture should be one part of assessment stated as a reason that these two concepts are not independent of each other. On the other hand, most of the students who stated that culture should not be assessed reported that they needed to improve speaking, reading, writing and listening skills rather than cultural knowledge.

Apart from the analysis of questionnaire items in multiple-choice test format, the analysis of the scale items is indicated in the following section.

3.2. Part 2: The Analysis of Participants' Responses to Scale Items

In the 2nd part of the questionnaire, students were asked to rate 13 statements from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). This scale was used to measure their attitudes towards culture and its integration into language classes to support the findings obtained from multiple-choice test administered to students in the 1st part. The direction of the statements consisting of 1st, 3rd, 5th, 7th, 8th, 10th, and 13th items was positive in the scale whereas the direction of the rest of was negative. Table 5 below displays the average mean scores obtained from student responses.

Table 5. Overall Mean Scores for Attitude Scale

No.	Items	Means	SD
1	EFL teachers should have culture teaching objectives to linguistic goals.	4,07	,743
2	Learning a foreign culture harms the native culture.	1,92	,981
3	I should learn about target culture.	4,10	,852
4	EFL teachers should focus only on the teaching of language, not culture.	1,96	,939
5	Cultural content is an element of the foreign language teaching curriculum.	3,91	,895
6	EFL content should exclude English/American culture.	2,65	1,259
7	Learning cultural components explicitly fosters our proficiency in the language.	3,85	,699
8	EFL teachers should be well equipped with cultural patterns of the language they teach.	3,96	,807
9	English can be taught without reference to British/American culture.	2,31	1,053
10	Learning the cultural elements of the target language should be a must for the learners.	3,35	,943
11	I find it unnecessary to learn the British/American culture.	2,06	1,019
12	I feel uncomfortable when a question on foreign language culture is asked in the classroom.	2,18	,906
13	Learning about British/American history helps us improve our language skills.	3,72	1,073

As seen in Table 5, statements that represented positive attitude were rated high by students whereas the statements that represented negative attitude were rated as lower. Based on these findings, overall, ELT students exhibited positive attitudes towards culture, embodiment of cultural elements and cultural patterns of language in language education.

One of the items, which had strikingly high average score, 4.10 in a 5-point Likert type scale, was the 3rd statement, that is, *'I should learn about target culture'*. This showed that students overall were found to support the necessity of learning culture. Other than this, the 1st statement *'EFL teachers*

should have culture teaching objectives to linguistic goals' ranked the second, which suggests that students were found to have positive attitudes towards inclusion of cultural goals in language learning objectives. Then, the 8th statement *'EFL teachers should be well equipped with cultural patterns of the language they teach'* was in the third rank. This means that students were found to agree with the idea that language teachers should have all necessary knowledge on cultural patterns of language. Thus, they were found to have high positive attitudes towards EFL teachers who have sufficient cultural awareness and cultural knowledge of the language. In contrast to these, the 2nd and the 4th statements**,** *'Learning a foreign culture harms the native culture'* and *'EFL teachers should focus only on the teaching of language, not culture'* respectively were found to have the lowest mean scores, which showed that students did not agree with the idea that the target language culture is harmful for our native culture and they disagreed with the idea that culture should not be taught by EFL teachers.

In sum, the findings obtained from the analysis of scale items supported the findings obtained from multiple-choice test in Part 1. ELT students seemed to agree with the idea that culture should be taught and EFL teachers should be well-equipped with cultural knowledge and introduce cultural information in language teaching. In addition, even if culture was not the primary concern of participants in language learning compared to other aspects of language, they agreed with the idea that culture learning contributed to the improvement of language skills and language proficiency.

3.3. Part 3: Demographic Information Results

Table 6 demonstrates the frequency and percentages of participants based on the demographic information (i.e. gender, birthplace, experience abroad, and the type of high school they graduated from) obtained from their responses to four questions in the survey.

Table 6. Demographic information about the participants

Gender	N	%
Female	54	56
Male	42	44
Birthplace		
Aegean	23	27
Central Anatolia	19	22
Black Sea	12	14
Marmara	12	14
Mediterranean	10	12
Southern East	6	7
Other than Turkey	3	4
Experience Abroad		
Yes	58	62
No	35	38
High school		
Anatolian High School	51	53
Anatolian Teacher High School	24	25
Regular	11	11
Private	2	2
Intensive Foreign language	1	1
Other	2	2

To determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between each of these four demographic features regarding students' responses to the questionnaire, one-way ANOVA was conducted. Table 7 demonstrates the statistical test results.

Table 7. One-way ANOVA results for each demographic variable in relation to the questionnaire results

High school	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	.124	5	.025	.311	.905
Within Groups	6.063	76	.080		
Total	6.187	81			
Abroad					
Between groups	.006	1	.006	.079	.779
Within Groups	6.380	83	.007		
Total	6.386	84			
Birthplace					
Between groups	.789	12	.065	.848	.602
Within Groups	4.863	63	.077		
Total	5.649	75			
Gender					
Between groups	.240	1	.240	3.224	**.076**
Within Groups	6.336	85	.075		
Total	6.576	86			

As depicted in Table 7, the findings of the study yielded no statistically significant difference in the attitudes of students towards culture and its integration into classroom in terms of all demographic variables except gender. Regarding high-school type, all of the students who were graduates of different high schools demonstrated positive attitudes. As for the analysis of the effect of having experience abroad on their perceptions, both groups who went abroad and who did not go showed positive attitudes towards culture integration in language learning. In addition, regardless of their birthplaces, students were found to demonstrate positive attitude towards culture.

Finally, the current study yielded gender effect on attitude. There were statistically significant differences between male and female students in terms of their perceptions of cultural information in language classrooms. Specifically, post-hoc analysis of data revealed that female students were found to display more positive attitude compared to male counterparts. This suggests that male students showed less positive attitudes than female students which had been evidenced in the literature in the study of Çalışkan (2009) which revealed more positive attitude of female English language teachers' attitudes. On the contrary, in Kahraman's (2016) study, both male and female participants have similar positive feelings towards target culture and culture learning.

4. Conclusions and Implications

This study aimed to explore the ELT students' cultural awareness, their attitudes and ideas towards the concept of culture, embodiment of culture into the language teaching and their opinions on the place of cultural elements in their own language-learning environment. For these purposes, the responses of students to a questionnaire were analyzed and various insights were provided into their thoughts about their cultural awareness, their perceptions of the role of teachers, textbooks, materials, tasks and activities that transmit cultural information, the assessment of culture and the allocated place

for culture in language learning process, dis/advantageous aspects of culture incorporation in EFL classes, and their ideas on the issue of teaching target culture to Turkish learners of English.

One conclusion drawn from the findings of the study is that majority of the ELT students displayed positive attitudes towards the incorporation of culture into language learning process in terms of their reactions to the cultural knowledge they are introduced through teachers, materials, and course books and their perceptions on the assessment of culture in language classes.

Another conclusion that was reached based on the responses of students is that cultural awareness has an essential importance in developing positive attitudes towards other people with different cultural values, beliefs and behaviors. Most of the ELT students favored learning the target culture to have an awareness of and to communicate with people from other cultures and to have a better control of the target language. In addition, majority of students agreed with the idea that the main aim in presenting cultural elements during language learning process should be to develop the cultural awareness towards other cultures and different groups of people. It is important to have cultural awareness to welcome other cultures that might be unfamiliar to us and to respect and develop sympathy towards the existence of these cultures. Awareness is where the intercultural communication starts (Hofstede et al., 2010:419). When we interact with other cultures in different environments, we begin to recognize our own culture, cultural identity as well as the target culture via the differences and similarities we observe. Sometimes we feel that we do not share their beliefs or values and have an understanding of the values that differ from our own culture. We learn to respect those differences and try to experience the new environment. In this sense, having the awareness of different cultural and societal values both enables us to conform to or sympathize with these values and provides an understanding of the language patterns as well as form and style of their languages in which the culture is highly reflected.

Considering all these points, it is of utmost importance to embed culture teaching into language instruction as language teachers and to set cultural goals in language learning contexts to develop an understanding of cultural expectations, behaviors, knowledge, language use and skills of members of a particular group of people. While setting cultural goals, our main concern should be to consider to what extent culture should be integrated, what cultural aspects should be taken into account and how it could be introduced to students. In this respect, needs and wants of language learners should be considered through careful selection and planning of cultural resources by language teachers (Corbett, 2003). Moreover, language proficiency and age of learners should also be taken into account before presenting cultural information in language classes (Önalan, 2005). Learners may wish to have immediate contact with the speakers of target culture or have interests in the films, art, music, literature or other products produced by that culture, which have an impact on the goals of the course as well as materials and activities selected (Corbett, 2003: 36).

Apart from that, students should be given opportunity to make a comparison between their own culture and the target culture with a focus on cultural dis/similarities through careful selection of activities. In this sense, it is argued that cultural differences manifest themselves in terms of four aspects (Hofstede et. al., 2010: 7-9). Accordingly, these aspects consist of *values* as the core of culture, *rituals* such as political and business meetings, respecting others and greeting them, *symbols* such as pictures and gestures via verbal or non-verbal communication and *heroes* who are, either alive or dead, the models for behavior. Apart from that, another point to consider while setting goals is to help our students understand the cultural elements that are specific to each culture such as people, time, place and circumstances (Önalan, 2004). In this sense, teachers may provide learners with the cultural information that help them discover the contextual clues as well as their meanings through appropriate content, realias, pictures and videos (Sarıçoban & Çalışkan, 2011).

Besides, a number of other cultural goals that were proposed by Lafayette (1978) are listed as in the following:

- To evaluate the validity of generalizations about foreign culture

- To value different people and societies

- To act appropriately in everyday situations

- To recognize/or interpret the culture of additional countries that speak the foreign language

- To recognize/or interpret passive everyday cultural patterns (e.g. marriage, customs, education and politics)

(Lafayette, 1978: 6-7)

It should not be forgotten that mastery of a foreign language does not only require competence in linguistic knowledge and language skills but also an understanding of cultural components of target community, cultural similarities and differences across different cultures, and the cultural setting in which the language is used. As the results have revealed, when students think of culture, they focus on the communicative aspects, daily lifestyle, food, clothes, art and traditions which got higher preference by the speakers for inclusion in language classrooms. This leads us to another conclusion that these aspects were introduced to the participants in classroom settings and they agreed with the idea that communicative aspects related to other cultures should be supplied. Then, teachers could go one step further and incorporate other aspects of culture such as social, institutional, economic, and political aspects that also underlie behaviours of people belonging to these cultures. In addition, while developing teaching materials, textbook designers need to take into consideration the aforementioned cultural goals and perceptions of students and teachers about the cultural elements involved in teaching so as to include appropriate cultural elements in the materials. Through all of these, awareness of students could be raised in identifying not only the way how culture influences belief system, assumptions, traditions and ideas, but also the intercultural understanding of communication, and cross-cultural differences and similarities. For cross-cultural communication and intercultural understanding, we need to adopt intercultural language teaching, to develop our students' both linguistic and intercultural communicative competence and to enhance our students' cultural knowledge and skills to break the cultural barriers across different societies.

Finally, teacher education programmes could provide any opportunity for prospective teachers to enrich their knowledge about the target culture and to develop intercultural approach to language teaching. As already mentioned by Atay (2005) and Kahraman (2016), it is highly important and necessary for teacher educators to guide prospective teachers on how to apply this cultural knowledge in language teaching and meet the expectations of language learners in today's changing world.

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İngiliz dili eğitimi bölümü öğrencilerinin kültürel farkındalığı ve dil öğretiminde hedef kültür öğretimine karşı tutumları üzerine bir çalışma

Öz

Kültür ve dil birbirinden ayrılamaz çünkü her ikisi birlikte, kullandığımız dil yapısında ve yaşadığımız toplumda var olan değer, davranış ve tutum gibi kültürel özellikleri yansıtırlar. Bu anlamda, kültürlerarası anlayış ve diğer kültürlerle uyum sağlama açısından kültürel ögelerin dil öğretimine entegre edilmesi oldukça önemlidir. Bu kapsamda, bu araştırmanın amacı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünde okuyan Türk öğrencilerin kültür öğrenimine ve hedef dil öğretiminde kültür öğretimine karşı tutumlarını ve kültürel farkındalıklarını incelemektir. Ayrıca, doğum yeri, cinsiyet, yurtdışı tecrübesi ve mezun olunan lise türü gibi değişkenlerin öğrencilerin tutumları üzerine etkisi olup olmadığı da araştırılmıştır. Araştırmanın verileri üç bölümden oluşan (demografik bilgi, çoktan seçmeli sorular ve 5li Likert ölçeği) bir anket aracılığıyla 96 öğrenciden toplanmıştır. Veri analizinde, betimleyici istatistik (frekans ve yüzde analizi ve ortalama) ve tek yönlü varyans (one-way ANOVA) analizi için SPSS kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, ankette yer alan açık uçlu sorular nitel olarak kodlanmış ve incelenmiştir. Araştırma bulguları cinsiyet dışında doğum yeri, lise türü ve yurtdışı tecrübesi gibi özelliklerine bakılmaksızın bütün öğrencilerin hedef dil öğreniminde kültür öğrenimine karşı olumlu tutum sergilediklerini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Cinsiyet açısından, kız öğrencilerin erkeklere kıyasla daha olumlu tutum içerisinde oldukları saptanmıştır. Buna ek olarak, çalışma sonuçları, öğrencilerin özellikle farklı kültürlerden olan insanlara karşı kültürel farkındalık geliştirmek ve onlarla daha iyi iletişim kurmak amacıyla hedef kültürü öğrendiklerini göstermiştir. Bu bulgular ışığında, öğrencilerde kültürel farkındalık yaratmak ve öğrencilerin dil öğretiminde hedef kültürün de öğretilmesine karşı olumlu tutum geliştirmelerini sağlamak amacıyla yabancı dil öğretmenleri, öğretmen yetiştirme programları, ve öğretim materyalleri ve kitap yazarları için gerekli ve önemli tavsiyelerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Kültür öğretimi; kültürel farkındalık; hedef kültüre karşı tutum; İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler; İngilizce öğretmen eğitimi

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An investigation on the last year EFL university students' ideas on using story in teaching English to young learners

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Abstract

The teaching of English to non-native English Young Learners requires more attempts rather than teaching learners in older ages. Nowadays, technology has offered many benefits for EYL teachers. Technology, in one side, is helpful instrument for the teachers in dealing with EYL. In the other side, easiness offered by technology may bring consequences on the EYL teachers' creative competence. EFL university students in the world are now habituated with technology-based teaching and learning media. They are demanded to improve the skill to use those media and due to the demand, their creativity in developing method and technique to teach EYL without technology aids is in a serious jeopardy. At least, they will deal with classic difficulty in teaching EYL for example by using only a written story; the difficulty meant is lacking of idea. This research was accomplished to investigate it. By employing written submission, data from eight last year EFL University students revealed their ideas on using story in teaching EYL is under expectation. By employing descriptive interpretation on their written submission, it is indicated that their ideas are heavily tailored to use technology aids.

1. Introduction

The practice of teaching English towards the speakers of other language is a challenging process which requires strategic and creative attempts; one of the attempts is creatively using materials. As the teaching of English is now on the same level with the teaching of other sciences, putting learning process merely as communication learning is not enough. Language learning is now developed and practiced in many technical learning fields (say laboratories, computer-based classroom, etc.) which show that English teachers and the learners face increasing challenges. The development of language teaching and learning presents both advantageous result and disadvantageous one. Advantageously, the development of language teaching and learning practice results in more comprehensive development in language mastery. The other result is difficulties faced by both teacher and learners; the development requires other development in some respects like computer skill, facilities, and so

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forth. Even the use of course book, especially in Teaching EYL, has double sided effects (see Puskas, 2006, p. 22-24). Relevant to this issue, teaching English to young learners becomes not easy. Not only do the learners face difficulties in learning in such technical fields, but also the teachers face difficulties in "simplifying" the teaching and learning material delivery.

EFL university students, who will occupy English teacher profession in the future, are prepared to teach English in "modern" way. Although *English for young learners* is presented in schools even in the elementary school (Baksh, 2016, p. 120) where the students are very young, but the EFL students seem to be costumed to teach in modern arena (where the young learners may be not experienced enough to follow the process); as a result of globalization and technology development (examples can be seen in Van Scoter (2004). It looks like they are educated to "catch the train". Young learners, in the other side, are still young learners. We are saying that teaching English for young learners need to be as simple as possible to attain the same result as teaching in "difficult way". Therefore, the EFL students should be taught how to teach based on creativity. Too habituated with computerized teaching strategy like computer, internet, website, e-learning, and so on, could make the students' mind absent from how to teach without all of those devices and media.

We develop the way of teaching English or other languages such way because we want to be more efficient and we want to put language learning just like natural sciences learning. We also want to understand language more than yesterday. However, we are also leaving the natural aspect of language learning, which is human communication in natural setting. In some respect, it can be said that computer is not making language learning easier. It makes language learning complicated (think about teaching English for young learners today).

Considering the issues raised in the paragraphs above, it is important to go back for a while and see whether our EFL university students are able to teach English to young learners by using "traditional" method and materials like stories, pictures, things around, and so on. We can ask how the students use Google or at least how to use digital dictionary installed on their phone in getting materials and developing the way they deliver the material, or teaching others. Imagine that in a context where those are all inaccessible and they will not run any teaching and learning process due to the lack of creativity and stuck on technology.

It is important to know how the students (or teachers) of English education developing ideas in using materials without technology-based help. Technology may help them very much in the learning process today, but it is possible that technology may ruin their days of teaching English for young learners tomorrow. Therefore, through this research, we are going to see how creative the students are, in using stories in teaching English to young learners.

1.1. Literature Review

In this section, we present reviews on relevant concepts, theories, and research findings related to the practice of English teaching and learning especially to young learners.

1.1.1. Teaching English (as foreign language) to Young Learners

Young learners, in learning language, tend to learn it naturally as a skill mediating them to live. However, the learning of first language and foreign language take different process for young learners. In this case, teaching English as foreign language to young learner is not as easier as to teach adolescents or adults. The teachers need to understand the characteristics of young learners in learning language which is also different from learning or acquiring other skills.

Most experts in this field write how to teach English or other languages to young learners or children. However, most of the texts discuss English learning as the first language and not as foreign

language. We need to understand that children in playgroups or kindergarten bring their home culture including the language they acquire and use every day. Even, in Britain, where English is native language, children do not start to learn English until they start at an early years settings or formal settings (Crosse, 2007, p. 2). It can be imagined that children in other countries (like Indonesia) where English is treated as foreign language will learn English as they learn other "foreign" sciences like how to use computer or playing music instruments. Bringing their home culture, their mother tongue, teaching a foreign language like English can be so much challenging; the children are habituated to use their mother tongue and replacing it for a moment needs strategic and creative attempts. Moreover, in this age, they could not understand the importance of why they should learn it or have it. They may not critically think why they should change *mama* to *mother* but the question remains in their head. The other thing is that, they don't use the new vocabulary at home unless their parents also speak English. This could result in weak or low learning result.

The difficulties mentioned above are skepticisms could exist in English teachers' minds, especially which do not have much understanding of how young learners are learning or how their cognitive ability develops. If the teachers or EFL university students learn young learners learning characteristics, then they could employ some creative attempts to teach the young learners English. Therefore, they need to understand young learners first then understand how they learn.

1.1.2. Young Learners Age

Young learners are categorized into chronological age span from 5 years old to 10 years old. Scott & Ytreberg (2004, p.1) divided young learners into two main groups: 5-7, and 8-10 years old. They say that there are differences in what the children in group one can do and what the children group two can do. They distinguish the children in age groups because they consider that different age group has different characteristics.

In teaching English as foreign language, "young learner" could be interpreted as age and also experience. It can be assumed that a 15 years old student who never learns English before can be categorized as young learner. However, there is no consensus among experts about this assumption until today. Therefore, the age classification for this is applied both in the teaching of English as first language and as foreign language.

Slightly different to Scott & Ytreberg (2004), Linse (2005, p.2) state that "young learners are defined as children between the ages of 5-12 years old". Linse also said that teachers of young learners need to adjust educational experiences to meet the developmental stages of the individual child. This statement implies that Linse also agrees if young learners are categorized into several stages and therefore the teachers should pay attention on the characteristics, needs, experiences, and practices appropriate for the children (in any stage).

Cameron (2001, p. 15) also classified children into two stages. The first stage is children with ages between 7-8 years as younger children. And the second stage is children with ages between 12-14 years as older children. Cameron also mentioned that the children in different stage will learn language differently with the other stage (p.13).

The discussion about children classification by age above points to a common hypothesis called critical period. The young learners are considered to be in a critical period of learning. This is the reason that many experts believe that young learners learn language better than adult because in this period their brain works better.

This is noted by Cameron:

The Critical Period Hypothesis is the name given to the idea that young children can learn a second language particularly effectively before puberty because their brain are still able to use the mechanism that assisted first language acquisition. (Cameron, 2001, p.13).

In short, the students considered as young learners are they in the age between 5 years up and 15 years down. In Indonesia, children start to learn in kindergarten from age 5-7, and they come to elementary school at age 7. They normally completed elementary school in 6 years. It means that they will pass elementary school at age 13. Therefore, in this research, we convert age into school level and we consider young learners as the children in kindergarten and elementary school.

1.1.3. Young Learners' Learning Characteristics

In this subsection, we are going to describe some relevant learning characteristics of young learners.

According to Scott & Ytreberg (2004, p. 1-4), young learners have some learning characteristics which are different from one stage to other stage. From age 5-7:

- They can talk about what they are doing;
- They can tell you what they have done or heard;
- They can plan activities;
- They can argue for something and tell you why they think what they think;
- They can use logical reasoning;
- They can use their vivid imagination;
- They can use a wide range of intonation patterns in their mother tongue;
- They can understand direct human interaction.
  Whereas, from age 8-10:

- Their basic concepts are formed. They have very decided views of the world;
- They can tell the difference between fact and fiction;
- They ask question all the time;
- They rely on the spoken word as well as the physical world to convey and understand meaning;
- They are able to make some decisions about their own learning;
- They have definite views about what they like and don't like doing;
- They have a developed sense of fairness about what happens in the classroom and begin to question the teacher's decisions;
- They are able to work with others and learn from others.

From the description above, it can be tentatively concluded that at the first stage the young learners are considered to have basic linguistic competence to convey meaning or will and they have basic competence to render verbal interaction into understanding. They are able to encode and decode meaning and language especially language used in their level. At the second stage, they develop their cognitive ability to conceptualize the meaning and transfer it into language use or communication. However, it is easier for them to interact through spoken language. It implies that in this stage, although their cognitive ability has been developed, perhaps teachers need to consider again the plan to teach writing skill.

It is also assumable that the children in these stages should not be demanded to cope with abstract ideas like grammar or translation. They should be practiced in concrete ideas like stories, family plan, or school life. This has to do with their ability to process the information in their mind. They have too little experience to think abstract ideas and it is not wise for EYL teachers to force them achieving it.

1.1.4. English Materials for Young Learners

Harmer (2007, p.81) mentioned that the age of our students is a major factor in our decisions about how and what to teach. Moreover, he stated that people of different ages have different needs, competences, and cognitive skills; we might expect children of primary age to acquire much of a foreign language through play, for example, whereas for adults we can reasonably expect a greater use of abstract thought.

Experts believe that young children learn language faster than adults (Crosse, 2007; Linse, 2005; Cameron, 2001; Harmer, 2007). However, as their learning characteristics said, it does not mean that the teachers can expect the same result as they teach adult learners. It is due to the limitation that each age has. As mentioned above, there are two things to consider in teaching young learners: the materials and the strategies used by teachers to teach them.

1.1.5. Pictures

Pictures or photos, whether printed or digital, are profound materials usable in teaching English to young learners. There are several benefits of using pictures for young learners since pictures can help them visually understand the reference of words without the real existence of the reference.

Commonly, pictures are used to teach vocabularies to young learners. We can see that pictures (mostly labeled pictures) are stick on the wall of kindergarten or playgroup. These pictures help the teachers to introduce words denoting things, people, or activities to the children. Most of the young learners' teachers use comics or series pictures to tell stories. This is beneficial since the series pictures help students to imagine the chronology of the story being told. The young learners even can retell the stories by employing only the pictures without reading the words.

One use of pictures in teaching young learners is flash cards. Budden (2004) mentioned some useful activities with children by using flash cards, among others: memory activities, drilling activities, identification activities, and TPR (total physical response) activities. By using flash cards, teachers can train the students to memorize words, recognize words, and identify things, and so on. Even, she mentioned that images 'stick' in students' mind.

Pictures used in teaching EYL are not always in printed version. Digital pictures like photograph saved in the phone or pad, or tablet, can be used as well. Pictures can be provided by teachers or by the learners themselves. For example the learners are allowed to take pictures or photograph by using just a cheap digital camera or phone camera and then they are requested to tell stories based on the pictures they took. By this way, the students use a mix of new and traditional tools in meaningful ways to explore, create, and develop their skills.

Related to the use of digital image in EYL learning, Van Scoter (2004) stated that:

> The power of using digital cameras and images with young students lies in their ability to engage students. The images stimulate curiosity and provide rich opportunities for language and literacy. They provide tools, allowing students to see and reflect on activities as they happen and offering new ways to record and document learning. Further, working with digital images is motivating, empowering, and fun (p.34).

In short, the use of pictures or images, whether printed or digital, is proven useful to engage young learners in learning activities since it is motivating, empowering, and fun.

1.1.6. Games

Using games in teaching young children is useful to avoid boredom in learning. It is well known that children are easy to be bored, mostly when they are doing things other than playing. Besides the easiness to enter boredom, they are also easily distracted. Therefore, using games to avoid boredom

and distraction from learning is a kind of appreciation towards young learners' nature. This is in line with Puskas (2016,p.46) who mentioned that:

> Playing games is a natural part of childhood and growing up. It is very natural way children explore the surrounding world and gain knowledge. Through games, children are given real opportunities to discover and understand procedures and phenomena.

In teaching English or other languages to young learners, especially by using games, teachers should consider that communication and interaction are the nature of language use. Games used by the teachers should expose the students' communication and interaction so that the students' skill in using language develops through the game.

There are many games can be used to teach English to young learners. Role play, hot potatoes, memory challenge, and some other infamous games can be utilized appropriately in the classroom. However, though games are very popular among young learners, they should not be overused. They should be chosen appropriately to students' level, interest, and context. Furthermore, it must be concerned with the presented topic (Bakhsh, 2016, p.125). It is also important that the teachers can manage and control the young learners during learning by playing games.

1.1.6.1. Stories
In teaching languages, storytelling is one of the popular methods used by most educators or teachers, especially in teaching language to young learners. Also, children like story very much that is why in most cultures telling stories (mostly fables) before children go sleeping is an enduring parents' work.

Using story is beneficial in teaching language to young children. This statement is based on the reasons that story itself is constructed and told by using language. Moreover, story stimulates children's imagination and forces creativity. Since the development of language comes along with the development of thought, then storytelling does not only develop language but also creative and imaginative thinking skill.

Children are also imaginative and they learn language features like tenses by adapting and matching the words and their references by following the story plot imaginatively. Therefore, storytelling gives big chances for children to acquire language, not only words form and meaning but also the use of those words. This is in line with Mart (2012:103) by quoting Winch that the stories provide wonderful opportunities for children to see language in action.

Children learn things unconsciously. This includes learning language through stories. When teachers tell story, the children do not only following the story for joy but they are also engaged in unconscious learning process. Through storytelling the children see how language is used to communicate, causality and other types of events relationship, and even personality.

However, due to the learning purpose, story to tell to the children is appropriately selected by considering the moral content, linguistic features, and length. By choosing right story and deliver in right way, the teacher provides for the children a bridge to eliminate the distance between language learning and language use. The use of story in teaching English to young learners can be found in detail through Mart (2012).

Based on the brief explanation above, the question of what to teach and how to teach can be answered. By considering the nature of children learning that seriously takes joy and comfort as important elements, language skills and literacy can be taught to the children through games, stories, and other joyful learning activities.

1.2. Research Questions

This research is accomplished to investigate the last year EFL University students' ideas on using stories in teaching English to young learners. Therefore, the question of this research is formulated as follows:

What idea do the EFL University Students have to teach English to young learners by using story?

The question stated above requires answers not only on what they can teach to young learners but also how they will teach it and what difficulties they may deal with in teaching young learners English as foreign language by using story. This information is gathered from each student to ensure that they really understand the ideas they give.

2. Methods

This research is designed as a descriptive qualitative research. It is based on the nature of the purpose and data types of this research. Since this research is naturalistic and is accomplished to search and to find understanding in specific context, then this research is qualitative. This is in line with Nunan & Bailey (2009) that qualitative data have to do with meanings (and understanding on the meanings).

2.1. Research Participants

This research involves 8 EFL students who are purposively taken from a university in Indonesia. Those participants are taken by considering some relevant assumption among others:

- They are the students of English Education Program who are taught English as foreign language and also are taught how to teach English as foreign language;

- They are last year students who are assumed to have English learning and teaching practice experiences, and they have attended 90% subjects in their program;

- They are high achiever students with grade point average ranged from 3.00-4.00 (the highest GPA in Indonesia is 4.00); and

- They are willing to be actively involved in this research.

These considerations are taken into account to keep the reliability of this research finding. These are also attempts to gain valid and responsible information. Furthermore, the participants (EFL University Students) name are not written but coded according to the initial letter in their names.

2.2. Instrument

The researcher uses written submission by the participants which contains three open-ended questions regarding the use of story in teaching English (as foreign language) to young learners. The questions are developed by studying the related literatures reviewed.

2.3. Data Collection Procedures

The researcher visited the university and communicates the purpose the research. The participants taken from each university are selected by the head of the English education program. They are then placed in a room and being given three open-ended questions. They are demanded to write the answers on the provided sheet. Given 60 minutes, the students submit their written responses to the researcher.

These written submissions are the data contain their ideas to be investigated and explored. This technique has been used by Mart (2012) with different question. This study only adopts the kind of instrument with some adjustments by considering the purpose of the study.

2.4. Data Analysis

Data from the written submission are analyzed by employing *Meaning Condensation* explained by Nunan and Bailey (2009). This technique is used by finding pattern in the written submission. The texts are read to find the topical ideas findable by searching keywords used by the participants within their work. Those are then paraphrased and noted as the key points in their text. The findings are then discussed and interpreted in light with the relevant theories. Finally, their ideas are listed as the potential activities and strategies in teaching English to young learners through the use of story.

3. Results

The respondents submitted their answers toward the following questions:

a. What will you teach to the young learners by using the story?
b. How do you teach it?
c. What difficulty you may deal with when teaching it?

The answers towards those questions are considered as *ideas* they have to teach English to young learners by using stories. By employing meaning condensation technique as mentioned earlier, the written submission reflects at least three items that can be mentioned as follow:

a. Vocabulary;
b. Word-Reference Matching;
c. Reading;

Through the written submission, the researcher found that some students express their ideas that using story is beneficial in teaching English to young learners in more than one area of skill or language item. By percentage, each item has following quality:

Table 1. Percentage of language items can be taught by using story

No	Items	%
1	Vocabulary	50
2	Word-Reference Matching	30
3	Reading	20

It can be seen that *vocabulary*, *word-reference matching*, and *reading* place the higher position than the other items. However, in the discussion section, the researcher briefly elaborated the ideas behind the items by trying to grasp it from the written submission and relating them to the available theories and concept in this context.

4. Discussion

This part explores the data collected through the written submission which have been condensed into 3 items as mentioned in the previous part. The exploration and elaboration are not self-

explanatory rather than interconnected to the theories and concepts available contemporarily. However, it is crucial to be mentioned here that due to the size of the participants (which is too small), the information projected on the following pages should be considered as tentative projection of ideas rather than absolute answers towards the research question. The next important information to say is that the cited responses are grammatically corrected by the researcher to avoid misunderstanding.

4.1. Teaching Vocabulary through Story

50% participants agreed that the story is useful in teaching vocabulary to young learners. The participants considered that since children are interested on story, they are able or motivated to memorize words, even difficult ones. Here, one of the participants wrote:

> "…for more understanding to the meaning of the story, the students are asked to choose the difficult words to memorize." (TS).

The respondent proposed the teaching of EYL by using story is started by giving written story to the children and then reading the story together. The children may find some difficult words and those words are memorized by them. However, it seems like the respondent imagined the children as the native speaker of English. The problem is clearly seen that for non-native English children may find all words are strange words. Therefore, it is assumed that asking the children to memorize difficult words is even more difficult for the children. It might be easier to introduce some words used in the story (mainly nouns and verbs) rather than memorizing difficult words since all words are "difficult words" for untrained non-native English children.

The other respondent wrote that:

> "…there are two kinds of thing that I can teach to the kindergarten [students]. First is pronunciation and second is vocabulary… I will ask them to repeat the word with the right pronunciation… I will tell the learners the words and the meaning and we are going to memorize it." (IED).

This respondent is aware that vocabulary and pronunciation (spelling as well) cannot be separated in the teaching of English. She emphasized the repetition of pronouncing the words that the students are learning and this can be considered as more than memorization but also as a phonological training to the students. In the last, she points out that knowing the meaning of the word is easier than memorizing and pronouncing the word.

The respondent also reports a problem that the teacher may deal with when teaching young learners. She wrote:

> "We have to understand more that teaching young learners is more difficult than adult learners. We have to understand that they do not focus like adult. They may focus only 5 or 10 minutes and after that they will not in focus. I will teach them indirectly after 5 or 10 minutes, such as telling them while they are playing and do not force them." (IED).

The respondent mentions the ability of the young learners to focus on the material being delivered by the teacher. It is true that young learners have low focus ability since their natural learning approach is by playing. This confirms Puskas (2016) that young learners learning by playing. The ability to focus on certain point in certain duration needs a conscious attempt and this is inharmonious with Mart (2012) who mentioned that young learners tend to learn unconsciously.

The other respondent coded MT tries to explain how he will teach vocabulary through story. However, he tends to consider more exposure in the learning process. Here he wrote:

"Firstly, I will ask to the students to read the story. Then I will teach vocabulary by using dictionary. However, before I start to teach, I will ask them to open their own dictionary. So, our learning will be effective." (MT).

It is hard to imagine that the young learners who are not English native speakers can read the story written in English unless they have been trained before. It is also difficult to imagine that they can utilize dictionary as teenager or adult do. Scott & Ytreberg (2004) mentioned that even learners in 8 years old still rely on the spoken words. It means that reading the story and dictionary is a difficult way of learning vocabulary for them.

This respondent wrote about the difficulties he may deal with in teaching young learners as follow:

"They sometimes ignore what I say. I must repeat my sentence again and again because they don't understand what I say. The class is noisy." (MT).

The most probable reason of the young learners ignorance towards the teacher or the material is that the way the teacher deliver the learning material is not engaging the students' learning motivation. Teaching young learners by using written text such as printed story and dictionary is considerably boring. The students, as mentioned by Mart (2012) and Scott & Ytreberg (2004) could try to find "comfort zone" to escape from the boredom. Therefore, it is reasonable that they will not understand what the teacher is saying as the logical consequence of the ignorance toward the teacher.

Relatively different to MT, respondent coded IAK wrote:

"Illustrated storybooks provide an ideal resource for helping children to learn English… storybooks present familiar language and memorable context and high quality illustrations help children to understand as they match what they hear to what they see." (IAK).

For IAK, teaching the young learners by using illustrated story such as comic is better than what MT mentioned. This is very useful in teaching vocabulary since the young learners are able to memorize the context of the word or the reference of the word. Visual aids like storybooks are very beneficial and easier to be used rather than written story and dictionary as MT imagined.

Summary:

In sum, the respondents have a sort of ideas of using story to teach vocabulary to the young learners. They also point out the procedures they may apply in doing it. They are also aware about the problems that they may deal in the situation which refer to the nature of children like the lack of focus or too easily distracted by environment. However, overall, they do not pay attention much on the difference between English-native children and non-native ones. Therefore, by considering the procedures they mention in the discussion above, the problem that they may deal in the field can be much more challenging than they know.

4.2. Teaching Word-Reference Matching

30% of the participants mentioned that they may teach the young learners the association between words and the references. Theoretically, stories are beneficial in the teaching of foreign languages (especially English) to young learners because stories provide appealing materials for young learners linguistically, psychologically, cognitively, socially, and culturally (Celce-Murcia, in Kalantari & Hashemian, 2016). Since memorizing what reference a word stands for is a cognitive and linguistic process, then this idea is supported by theory.

Knowing the reference of a word is an activity of creating association between word and world. Semantically, this activity can be called as making sense or making meaning of language. This assumption is supported by Lugossy (in, Fojkar, Skela & Kovac, 2013, p.21) that stories function as schemata on the basis of which we make sense of the world. Through story, teachers can train the

students to remember the words used in the story and the referent exist in the world. However, since stories are also fiction, not all words have real referent and this can lead the learning process to failures.

A participant coded IAK mentioned that:

> "High quality *illustrations* (in illustrated storybooks) help children to understand as they match what they *hear* to what they *see*." (IAK).

The keywords of the idea above are 'illustration', 'hear', and 'see'. Those keywords make sense that the participant was thinking about a comic or a story which contains pictures. Moreover, the participant was also thinking that the students do not read the story; the story is read by the teacher. The teacher, while reading the story for the students, also points or shows what the word means. The problem is that this method is only useful for concrete things but useless for abstract things; however, this method can train the students not only to match noun and the reference but also verb and the observable physical action (run, eat, cry, etc.).

The other participant coded RAK mentioned that:

> "…teacher provides some papers contain animal or plant pictures that connect to the story… when the story points at the words…the students point at the real example like grass or tree." (RAK).

This participant is in line with the previous participant. They were thinking about illustrated storybook. It can be seen that these participants more rely on the pictures rather than the text of the story. They actually could eliminate the pictures from their method since pointing to a related object while mentioning a word during telling the story is in fact enough.

The last participant to mention here, coded HAD mentioned that:

> "…teacher can invite the students to watch animated video which tells a story. After watching the video, the teacher takes out cards and some words and then the children can learn to match the cards and the words." (HAD).

It can be seen that this participant relies on the multimedia material (video) as media used to teach the students English. Although the participant mentions that the cards are also used to train the students to match words and their references, it also shows that story alone cannot help the participant.

Summary:

In sum, these participants have sort of ideas of how to teach semantic or the reference of words. This is actually in line with teaching vocabulary by using story elaborated in the previous part. However, in this part, participants still rely on multimedia technology to help them teaching. This can be assumed as a form of dependency on the technology.

4.3. Teaching Reading

Two of the participants coded as TS and AB mentioned reading as a skill that can be taught to the young learners through story. The idea is about to have double side. Firstly, since story meant here is written text then reading comprehension is likely to be the relevant skill to teach. However, secondly, as the students are young learners, the meaning of "reading" here cannot be assumed as reading comprehension. They could mean spelling rather than reading.

AB mentioned that:

> "The young learners will be introduced to vocabulary and by so doing they will be able to understand the text and will be more engaged in the reading task." (AB).

This participant did not elaborate how to teach reading by using story but it can be assumed that the students are easily engaged in the reading task because they have been introduced to vocabulary of the story. By looking at this point, AB might mean spelling task because vocabulary reading for young learners is closer to spelling rather than reading comprehension.

Whereas TS in his submission wrote that:

> "…instructions like memorizing the words, phrases, or idioms from the story, the students are learning reading and spelling by heart. Therefore, besides understanding the story, the students also can get other benefits simultaneously." (TS).

It is very difficult, if not impossible, to realize that the young learners in that age can be taught reading comprehension. Some notes mentioned by experts like Scott & Ytreberg (2004) that learners in 8-10 rely on the spoken information rather than written one. Especially for the non-native English learners, English written story must be difficult to be taken into learning reading.

Summary:

Ideas proposed by these participants are seemed to work if the young learners are the native English speakers. Although grammatical appearance on the story could be more complex than the linguistic competence they have, reading the text is still reasonable. However, since the participants should consider that the young learners meant in this study is non-native English speaker, therefore the ideas they proposed is hard to be realized.

5. Conclusion

The results discussed in the previous part have leaded us to the conclusion that can be described briefly:

The participants involved in this research could propose some ideas of how to use story to teach English to young learners. Most of the participants agree that story is beneficial to be used in teaching vocabulary, semantic reference (word-reference matching), and spelling. They wrote that students of young age are interested in story and they are more engaged in the learning process. In some cases, they still rely on the multimedia or non-text story as videos or pictured story-books. This idea shows us that the participants deal with difficulties in dealing young learners without high technology instruments.

It can be noticed that the participants are not aware enough that non-native and native English young learners are different in terms of the basic linguistic competence they already have. Therefore, idea like teaching reading by using story is mentioned.

In describing the possible difficulty they may deal in the classroom, the participants are highly aware that the young learners are lacked of focus. This phenomenon is considered as general difficulty that teachers may fight in teaching young learners any subject.

Since this research took limited subjects to be involved as participants, the elaboration of the ideas is also limited. Therefore, further research involving more participants in the wider areas and context must be needed.

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İnglizce öğretmenliği son sınıf öğrencilerinin çocuklara İngilizce öğretiminde hikaye kullanma konusundaki fikirleri üzerine bir araştırma

Öz

Anadili İngilizce olmayan çocuklara İngilizce öğretimi ileri yaşlardaki kişilere öğretmekten daha çok çaba gerektirir. Günümüzde teknoloji, çocuklara yabancı dil öğreten öğretmenler için birçok fayda sunmaktadır. Teknoloji, bir taraftan, çocuklara yabancı dil öğreten öğretmenler için yararlı bir araçtır. Öte yandan ise, teknolojinin sunduğu bu kolaylık, öğretmenlerin yaratıcılıklarını olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir. Dünyada İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümünde eğitim gören üniversite öğrencileri artık teknoloji temelli öğretime ve öğrenim araçlarına alışmış durumdadır. Öğrencilerin bu teknolojiyi kullanma becerilerini geliştirmeleri istenmektedir ve bu talep nedeniyle İngilizceyi teknoloji yardımı olmadan öğretmek için yöntem ve teknik geliştirme konusundaki yaratıcılıkları ciddi bir tehlike altındadır. En azından, örneğin, sadece bir yazılı hikâye kullanarak İngilizce öğretmede klasik zorluklarla yani fikir eksikleriyle baş edeceklerdir. Bu çalışma, bu konuyu araştırmak için düzenlenmiştir. İngilizce öğretmenliği son sınıfta okuyan sekiz öğrencinin çocuklara İngilizce öğretiminde hikâye kullanma konusundaki fikirlerini yazılı olarak belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Öğrencilerin yazılı sunularında, fikirlerinin ağırlıklı olarak teknoloji yardımcıları kullanmak üzere uyarlandığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Öykü; İngilizce öğretimi; çocuklara yabancı dil öğretimi, fikir öğretme

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Foreignization and Englishization in Turkish business naming practices

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Abstract

This paper investigates the effect of foreignization and Englishization on business naming practices in Turkey. The question that is addressed is in what new ways foreign elements and English lexical items influence the naming of store signs in the language. In previous work, it was argued that there are roughly three main ways in which foreignization and Englishization surface in Turkish business naming: (i) foreign signs such as non-English (e.g. German and French) and English signs, (ii) hybrid signs that include a combination of Turkish and English words, and (iii) Englishized Turkish signs that include businesses that adopted artificially created signs using English orthography to represent Turkish phonology (Üstünova et al., 2010; Selvi, 2011). Based on new data, I show here that there is a new and creative practice that manifests itself in a different way. This new procedure could be dubbed as *consonant gemination* since it copies the consonant in the middle of the word, and the new word is usually accompanied by an English word. The practice has important consequences since it changes both the syllable structure and the pronunciation of the word. Further work will shed light on whether this would give rise to other types of business naming practices and whether it will have a long-term effect in the phonology and spelling of Turkish words.

1. Introduction

This study is concerned with the ongoing influence of foreignization and Englishization on business naming in Turkey. More specifically, it will be argued that foreignization, which is used here in a rather broader sense, and Englishization, meaning the use of English lexical and functional words, continue being used in creative new ways in the Turkish business context. It is a well-known fact that business naming across the world is widely influenced by foreignization, especially by way of the use of English (Haarman 1984; Ross 1997). The effect of the English language on Turkish business discourse, especially on different types of store-naming, is no different and is widely discussed in previous analyses. Selvi (2007, 2011), for instance, notes that the practice of store-naming using foreign elements in Turkey could be grouped into three major categories. The first category contains foreign signs such as 'Auto City' (a car dealer) and 'Café des Cafés' (a restaurant), which could be either in English or in

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some other language. The second category includes hybrid signs like 'Happy Hamile' (a store selling clothes for pregnant women) and 'Florya Home Center' (a shopping mall) with a combination of Turkish and non-Turkish lexical items. The third category, on the other hand, includes Englishized Turkish signs which are in fact artificially created signs such as 'Chilek' (representing the Turkish letter 'ç' using the English spelling convention 'ch') and 'Dishy' (representing the Turkish letters 'ş' and 'i' using the English spelling conventions 'sh' and 'y' respectively). These signs make use of English orthography to represent Turkish phonology and adds an aura of "foreignness" to the store name. In this work I argue that in addition to the existing business naming practices outlined above, there is a new strategy that makes use of consonant gemination, creating another consonant in the middle of the word. In addition, this new word occasionally appears with elements from English, either lexical or functional. In that sense, it could be considered to be a hybrid strategy and it is possible to classify it into a new fourth category. This new practice has certain repercussions in terms of the phonology Turkish since, besides a change in spelling, consonant gemination leads to a change in the syllable structure and the pronunciation of the word, something which is not observed in the other categories. These changes bring to mind the question of whether consonant gemination and the use of English words would have a long-term effect on the Turkish language in terms of language change, a question that needs to be addressed in future work.

The structure of the paper is as follows: Chapter 2 provides a broad overview of previous work on foreignization and the use of English in store-naming all around the world. This chapter also includes an outline of earlier work on the influence of English on business naming in Turkey. In Chapter 3 I introduce a new set of data and show the new way of business naming practice that is becoming more and more widespread in the country. The term adopted to identify the new strategy is consonant gemination since it basically targets consonant sounds in the middle of the word which may or may not appear with an English element. It is also shown in this chapter that the new practice has certain repercussions in terms of Turkish phonology since this strategy has some effect on the pronunciation of these words. Chapter 4 briefly concludes the paper and provides some suggestions for future work.

2. Background

2.1. Foreignization and Englishization in business naming

The use of foreign elements, especially lexical items from English, in business naming in non-English speaking countries around the globe is not a new phenomenon. The store-naming analyses in those countries go back as far as Haarman (1984) and Thonus (1991), if not earlier. The questions that are generally addressed in those studies are why and in what ways English is used in the business naming processes in countries where English is a foreign language. In her seminal work, Thonus investigates the effects of English on business naming in various cities in Brazil. Following Kachru (1982), she refers to the phenomenon as an example of Englishization and argues that there are basically two major strategies employed in the Brazilian business context: (i) a sophisticated use of English constructed upon conscious and meticulous selections of words such as 'Hotdog' for a pet store, and (ii) a choice free from the context in which business names are used, for example 'Stroke' for a fashion store. One of the conclusions Thonus reaches is that the underlying reason for using English signs is mainly to attract average Brazilian customers and sell both the product and the service which is "different and worthwhile" (1991). In that sense, using English could be thought of as a smart strategy for a business owner who wants to stand out amongst others and bring more customers to the store.

In a similar study, Ross (1997) investigates the practice of business naming in Italy. Ross is generally concerned with the possible reasons for the widespread use of English store signs in the Italian business context. He argues that using English in store-naming cannot be due to the instrumental value of English.

Even though a big city like Milan is a major tourist attraction in Italy, its popularity cannot be compared to that of other cities such as Florence and Rome. Thus Ross argues that English signs cannot possibly serve as a facilitating tool for non-Italian speaking people visiting the city. Instead, he proposes that the [simple reason for most of these shop signs [in Milan] is that English is today seen as an attractive and fashionable language. An English name lends an aura of chic prestige to a business, suggesting that it is part of the international scene, following the latest trends, up-to-date with the newest ideas] (Ross, 1997). He concludes that Englishization of shop signs in Milan is just another way of exhibiting appreciation of the lifestyle and values associated with the American culture which is considered by many people to be a sign of prestige, style and modernity.

McArthur's (2000) study is rather different in the sense that he investigates the use of English in store-naming in multilingual environments such as Zurich, Switzerland and Uppsala, Sweden. It focuses on certain locations in the downtown areas of these cities. His findings show that out of thirty-one store signs in Zurich, four businesses use English-only signs, followed by seven English-German signs and two English-French signs. McArthur interprets these results as an indicating a significant inclination towards English in the Swiss context despite the low number of English-only business names in the city. On the other hand, when we consider the Swedish case, we see that it exhibits remarkable similarities to the previous one in terms of the findings. The results show that the use of English in business naming includes twenty-two English-only signs, eight English-Swedish signs and one English-French sign. In addition, the findings indicate a number of multilingual signs including two trilingual signs containing English and three quadrilingual signs including English. This study is an important one in terms of illustrating the dominance of English in store-naming regardless of the language(s) it co-occurs with, whether it is German, French or Swedish. Another important conclusion to be drawn from this study is the reflection of the multilingual society on store-naming with multiple languages on shop signs, only one of them being English.

Another work on the Englishization of business names is reported in MacGregor (2003) who conducted a study on store signs in Tokyo, Japan. MacGregor analyzed one hundred and twenty shop signs in an area close to downtown Tokyo. His initial hypothesis was that Japan is still a monolingual country and hence is free from the widespread influence of English. However, the results of his study show that out of one hundred and twenty shop signs, thirty-one of them were English-only and twenty-nine constituted the English-Japanese hybrid signs. This means that nearly half of the signs analyzed was under the influence of English. It is also noted that the dominant store types with English-only shop signs were women's clothing stores (9 shops) and hairstylists (4 shops). These stores belong to the fashion industry which, in the Japanese society, is considered to be under the greatest influence of the western world (Haarman, 1984).

Stewart and Fawcett (2004), on the other hand, investigate the use of foreign languages in six towns in the northwestern region of Portugal. Their data includes two hundred and seventy-one shop signs analyzed in six small Portuguese speaking towns. They found that even though store signs in small towns in the country are predominantly monolingual, a total of twenty-seven signs are in English. They also report that two-thirds of the English store names were labeled 'Snack Bar', even though they remain skeptical as to why this is the case. Other names they encountered include those such as 'Fashion and Style', 'Black-Gate Bar' and 'Handicraft's'.

More recently, Dimova (2008) analyzes what she calls the pervasiveness and creativity of the English language in commercial nomenclature in Macedonia. Her analysis includes a big set of data containing over nine thousand entries from the online Macedonian Yellow Pages. She reports that English names were significantly more likely to be found in Skopje, the capital of Macedonia, than in all the other cities, and businesses that adopted an English name primarily belong to media, leisure or entertainment industries. Also, she notes that orthographic, formative, and semantic types of creativity were among

those that were identified in the processes of transliteration and word/phrase formation. She concludes that the reason why English is the most dominant foreign language used in commercial names is due to its associations with globalization and modernity.

To sum up, the use of English in business naming practices is a well-studied phenomenon and is widespread across the world. It was shown that one of the reasons for adopting a full or partial English business name over the local language is the fact that it is the representative of the western world and its status as an international language. Additionally, it is often associated with concepts such as quality and modernity, two important characteristics one would look for in today's business world. In the next section, I will shift the focus to a particular country, specifically Turkey, and provide a brief overview of foreignization and the use of English in business naming.

2.2. Business naming practices in Turkey

The use and influence of foreign elements and the English language on Turkish is well-attested in previous work. Research indicates that its origins can be traced back to the early 1950s (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). This coincides with the time when English began to replace French in certain areas. Up until that time, French had been the dominant foreign language, especially in the final years of the Ottoman Empire and during the first three decades of the modern Turkish republic. Before the Second World War, French used to be taught at schools and was the language of business and diplomacy in the country. Beginning in the 1950s, English began to be taught in public schools as a foreign language. Additionally, international relations with the western world, especially with the United States, gained momentum since the US had then become the new military and economic power in the world (Doğançay-Aktuna 1998; Büyükkantarcıoğlu 2004; Selvi 2011). English still continues to be the most widely taught and spoken foreign language in Turkey today. The earlier studies about the influence of English on business naming in Turkey go back as far as studies in the 1990s. Yaman (1990) and Üstünova (1996) were probably the first to investigate the effect of English on the store signs in Ankara and Bursa respectively, while Alkibay (1996) looked into the adoption of non-Turkish words in business naming throughout Turkey.

In terms of variation in the methodology employed, one could cite Doğan (1999) since, in addition to personal observation, he made use of different techniques while gathering data such as interviewing. Doğan's data include a total of one hundred and five store signs both in Turkish and in different foreign languages. He reports that out of one hundred and five shop names, more than half (%51) had a foreign name, demonstrating a general tendency towards the foreignization in store naming. He notes that the important factors that contribute to business naming practices both in English and Turkish contain personal reasons (32%), commercial benefits (17%), ideological reasons (17%) and a sense of being different (15%). On the other hand, the business owners who adopted a foreign name for their business stated that it was because of being interesting (17%), a tendency to relate to the culture (15%), a preference for being different (9%), the suitability with the business (9%), being a brand name (9%), being impressive (8%), and a personal choice that is not their own (4%).

In a different study, Gözaydın (2000) investigates store naming in a big shopping mall called Karum (meaning water front or harbor in the Assyrian language) in Ankara, the Turkish capital. His data included one hundred and eighty-eight shop names in Karum and his findings indicate that only thirty-eight stores (20%) have Turkish-only signs. On the other hand, the remaining one hundred and fifty stores had non-Turkish signs (94 stores) or foreign-Turkish hybrid signs (56 stores). He notes that the reason for the high number of foreign names in that particular shopping mall is not because of the franchising of business places since they only account for 8% of the stores in the mall. The reason behind

foreignization is accounted for by referring to the attitudes and perceptions of business owners attempting to impress their customers.

Aydoğan (2001) studies the widespread use of English in the business naming practices in the tourism industry. This is taken as an interesting endeavor since tourism is generally thought of as an international industry. It is also one of the most significant areas to represent a country at the global level. His data includes three hundred and eighteen hotel names spread around Turkey. The results indicate that only thirty hotel names (9.5%) are in Turkish, whereas the remaining two hundred and eighty-eight hotels (91.5%) were in a foreign language such as 'The Holiday Resort Hotel' and 'Sugar Beach Hotel' or Turkish-foreign language hybrids like 'Maviköy Holiday Village' and 'Martı Lapezla'. Aydoğan takes these results as indicating the dominance of non-Turkish signs in the process of hotel naming in the country. He concludes that the imbalance in the language use is "not favoring the Turkish language as it causes a disadvantage for the Turkish language".

Demircan (2001), on the other hand, argues that due to the post-modern structure of the world, different power centers seek to establish relations with various countries in an attempt to increase their interests and benefits. Because of this, Turkey has become a big market for foreign products and services. Since the dissemination of these good and services will be achieved through a world language, Turkish has also become a market of foreign words. Basically, Demircan's study includes a total of five hundred business places in different locations in İstanbul and his findings indicate that four hundred and forty-five of them have English words. He concludes that 27% of the businesses have chosen English names in an attempt to take advantage of public figures. Many of the names include those of singers, actors and TV shows. Additionally, 20% of the store owners stated that the products with English brand names are considered to be more prestigious by the customers. In other words, having a foreign name is considered to have privilege. In addition, 36% of business owners stated that they chose an English name because they find it commercially interesting, explaining why foreign branding is so much appreciated in the country.

More recently, Selvi (2007, 2011), in his work on business naming and the world Englishes in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, investigates the spread of English in the Turkish business discourse. Selvi is mainly interested in the linguistic characteristics of business naming practices with non-Turkish elements. He notes that it is possible to group the practice of store-naming into three major linguistic categories (Selvi, 2011). These three categories could be classified as:

(i) Foreign signs: Business places that employ non-Turkish lexical items. This category could be further divided into two sub-categories as English and non-English business signs.

a. Non-English signs: Business places that have non-English lexical items in their names. Some representative examples would be Café des Café (café), Pittoresque (jewelry store), Ares (hair stylist) and Monami (tailor).

b. English signs: Business places that have only English lexical items in their names. One Way Car Wash (car wash), Datasoft (information technologies), Blue Way (shoe store), and Free Style (clothing store) are some examples.

(ii). Hybrid signs: Business places that use lexical items from both Turkish and a foreign language. Examples include Happy Hamile (meaning 'Happy Pregnant', a clothing store for pregnant women), Ankara Home Center (department store) and Cep Land (meaning 'Pocket Land', a mobile phone store).

(iii). 'Englishized' Turkish signs: These include business places that employ artificially created signs that make use of English orthography to represent Turkish phonology. That is to say, these signs do not in fact correspond to Turkish orthographic conventions. Therefore, they would appear to be meaningless to those who are not familiar with the English spelling system. Some examples of this category include the furniture store Chilek (representation of Turkish 'ç' by the English orthographic convention 'ch',

'çilek' meaning strawberry in Turkish). Another example would be the women's clothing store Dishy (representation of Turkish letter 'ş' by English orthographic convention of 'sh', and of Turkish 'i' by English 'y', 'dişi' meaning female).

Selvi notes that even though the store signs in the last category are less dominant in business naming, their existence should be taken as a clear demonstration of the deep penetration of the English language into the Turkish business discourse. He also notes that the inescapable spread of English in the Turkish social life has caused a huge public debate concerning the current status of the Turkish language in the country. He goes on to say that it is also not surprising that the business naming phenomenon is in the center of these lively discussions. That is to say, the Englishization of Turkish shop signs is considered to be a good representative of the debilitating consequences of foreignization of the Turkish language, culture, and social structure.

As can be seen from the discussion above, foreignization in the form of Englishization as well as the use of words from other foreign languages in business naming is widespread in Turkey. It was shown that the practice manifests itself in different ways and for various reasons. However, it should also be noted that the linguistic categorization that Selvi provides is not the only way to refer to foreignization and Englishization in store naming. It appears that the use of foreign elements and English in Turkish business naming is still in effect and surfaces in various creative ways. In the next section, I will introduce a new (hybrid) way of foreignization and Englishization in the business naming practices in the country.

3. Foreignization and Englishization: A new hybrid form

As noted above, there is an ever-increasing tendency among Turkish business owners in recent years to refer to what is called foreign or Englishized Turkish signs in the business naming process. This new practice manifests itself in various innovative ways probably because business owners often seek new strategies to stand out among their competitors and draw more attention to their businesses in an attempt to look more different and attract more customers. That is why new creative forms are frequently discovered and are occasionally used along with the existing ones. Among these, there is a particular practice which is somewhat different from those described in the previous section. Basically, this new practice is used for the purpose making the store name look less Turkish and more foreign or English-like. It applies to the original Turkish words, inserting an extra consonant in the middle of the word. More specifically, it creates an identical consonant in the middle of the word. The new word sometimes co-occurs with an English lexical or functional element in an attempt to make it look even more different. The use of a similar form was first reported in Üstünova et al. (2010) and was described as one of those attempts to change the shape of both original Turkish words and borrowed words by "tempering with" letters. Their data include business names in which Turkish letters were replaced by letters that represent the English orthography and punctuation, as shown in (1a), (1b) and (1c) below.

(1) a. Ali > Aly, Saatçi > Saatchi
    b. Cemali's, Aly's, Kuzu's
    c. Gece > Gecce, Oda > Odda

The examples in (1a) show the fact that the English spelling conventions are replacing their Turkish counterparts in business naming. Similarly, in (1b) we see an instance in which the English possessive construction is applied to Turkish at the cost of losing the genitive-possessive construction proper in the

language. On the other hand, (1c) is an example where the original word is changed by adding an extra letter in the middle of the word. As noted above, Üstünova et al. take this as an attempt to change the shape of Turkish words by making various modifications. However, in their analysis, there is no mention the presence of English elements accompanying the newly created word. Moreover, as I will show in the next section, this practice has more significant linguistic repercussions and seems to have become one of the most common ways of creating business names in the country.

The data collection process for this study started as a personal observation. However, following Dimova's (2008) study, several online yellow pages containing substantial lists of different types of businesses throughout Turkey were used in order to perform a more thorough research and a more systematic and careful data collection process. Table 1 illustrates the findings.

Table 1. Foreignization and Englishization in business naming

Turkish word	Business name	Business Type	Location
Kasap (butcher)	Kassap	Butcher's	İstanbul
Makas (scissors)	Makkas	Hair Stylist	İstanbul
Oda (room)	Odda	Hotel	İstanbul
Elmas (diamond)	Ellmas	Tailor's	İstanbul
Meze (appetizer)	Chef Meze	Restaurant	İstanbul
Pabuç (shoe)	Pabbuç	Shoe Store	İstanbul
Dürüm (wrap)	Ye Dürrüm	Restaurant	İstanbul
Askı (hanger)	Asskı	Clothing store	İstanbul
Hamam (Turkish bath)	Hammam	Restaurant	İstanbul
Şeker (sugar)	Şekker Home	Fabric store	İstanbul
Bebek (baby)	My Bebbek	Kids store	İstanbul
Tava (pan)	Tavva	Restaurant	İstanbul
Aşk (love)	Aşşk Kahve	Coffee shop	İstanbul
Karga (crow)	Karrga	Advertising agency	İstanbul
Durak (bus stop)	Durrak	Coffee shop	İstanbul
Pastacı (cake maker)	Passtacı	Coffee shop	İstanbul
Misket (marble)	Missket	Restaurant	İstanbul
Hamur (dough)	Hammur	Restaurant	İstanbul
Tavuk (chicken)	Tavvuk	Restaurant	İstanbul
Dana (calf)	Danna	Restaurant	İstanbul
Simit (bagel)	Simmit	Pastry shop	Ankara
Kebap (Kebab)	Kebbap	Kebab place	Ankara
Elma (apple)	Ellma	Advertising agency	Ankara
Tabak (plate)	Tabbak	Restaurant	Ankara
Kahve (coffee)	Çakıl Kahhve	Coffee Shop	İzmir

Köfte (meatball)	Köffte'CM	Restaurant	İzmir
Bahçe (garden)	Bahhçe	Wedding Hall	İzmir
Börek (pastry)	My Börrek	Pastry shop	İzmir
Gece (night)	Gecce	Clothing store	Bursa
Moda (fashion)	Modda	Furniture store	Bursa
Lokma (morsel)	Lokkma	Restaurant	Antalya
Pide (flat bread)	Pidde	Restaurant	Antalya
Keyif (joy)	Keyyif	Coffee shop	Çanakkale
Biber (pepper)	The Bibber	Restaurant	Sakarya
Fırın (oven)	Pazar Fırrın	Patisserie	Manisa
Sofra (table)	Keyf-i Soffra	Restaurant	Muğla
Mutfak (kitchen)	Muttfak	Restaurant	Bilecik
Yemek (food)	Yemmek	Online website	N/A
Bukle (lock)	Bukkle	Online jewel store	N/A
Defter (notebook)	Deffter	Online store	N/A
Kitap (book)	E-Kittap	Online bookstore	N/A
Saksı (pot)	Sakksı	Online florist	N/A
Tuzluk (salt shaker)	Tuzzluk	Online website	N/A
Sepet (basket)	Seppet	Online shop. center	N/A
Zinncir (chain)	Zinncir	Online employment website	N/A

As noted above, this new strategy takes a Turkish word and doubles the consonant in the middle of it. Moreover, the newly created word is sometimes accompanied by an English lexical or functional word that precedes or follows it. In that sense, it could be considered to be a hybrid strategy and a subtle way to make the new word look less Turkish and more foreign or English-like. Table 1 illustrates a sample of the forty-five businesses that adopted this strategy. The second column shows the original Turkish word along with its meaning in English. The third column, on the other hand, displays the business names with consonant gemination and Englishization whenever it applies. The fourth and the fifth columns show the businesses types and their geographical location respectively. Note, however, that this is still an ongoing research and the data presented in Table 1 is by no means an exhaustive list containing every business in Turkey that adopted the strategy in question. Nevertheless, one could argue that it is still a sufficient amount of data representing the phenomenon in the country. In the next section, I will have a closer look at the specifics of the data and analyze it in some detail.

3.1. Analysis of data

3.1.1. Non-linguistic findings

First of all, there are a total of forty-five businesses that were gathered in the online data collection process.[†] The data illustrate the fact that businesses related to food and gastronomy outnumber other types of businesses in adopting consonant gemination and Englishization. This category contains restaurants (16 stores), coffee shops (5 stores), patisserie/pastry shops (3 stores) and a butcher shop (1 store). A closer look at the data, on the other hand, will also reveal the fact that different types of businesses in various industries have also adopted the strategy. These are businesses as diverse as clothing stores (2 stores), advertising agencies (2 stores), one furniture store, one fabric store, one shoe shop, one kids' store, one wedding hall, one hotel, one tailor and one hair stylist. Moreover, the data show that the strategy is also used in online business naming, with eight websites doing various kinds of businesses. This clearly indicates that the use of consonant gemination and Englishization is not something that is only employed by certain business types.

Another important fact that can be observed from the data is that the majority of the businesses that adopted the strategy is located in metropolitan cities such as İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir and Bursa. However, it also illustrates that using this new strategy is spreading to smaller Anatolian cities (cities on the Asian side of Turkey) including Antalya, Konya, Manisa, Muğla, Bilecik, Sakarya and Çanakkale, even though the number of the businesses that adopted the strategy in these cities currently constitutes the minority. Thus one could say that the practice is not just limited to big industrial cities anymore, but rather is becoming more common in other less populated areas of the country.

3.1.2. Linguistic findings

In addition to the facts about various business types that have adopted the strategy and their geographic location, Table 1 also illustrates some interesting linguistic facts. For instance, it is evident that consonant gemination applies primarily to two-syllable words as the data above include only one instance of consonant gemination applied to a one-syllable word. This, however, does not mean that it would never apply to more one-syllable words or to any multi-syllable words in the language. As far as the phonology of the word is concerned, if the first syllable of the word is a closed syllable (a syllable that ends in a consonant), it is always the consonant of that syllable that undergoes consonant gemination. In other words, the consonant of the second syllable never goes through the gemination process. Consider the data in (2) below.

(2) a. bah-çe → bah*h*-çe

　　b. köf-te → köf*f*-te

　　c. sak-sı → sak*k*-sı

The examples in (2) illustrate the process of consonant gemination in the first syllable of the word. It should also be noted that since there are two consonants in the coda position of the first syllable, the way the word is pronounced has undergone some change as well. Unlike English, Turkish distinguishes between short and long consonants, meaning that if there are two adjacent consonants in a word, both

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[†] The websites used in the data collection process are:

　(i)　　　www.turkiyesarisayfalar.com
　(ii)　　 www.sarisayfafirmalar.com
　(iii)　　www.istanbul.net.tr

of them need to be articulated. Thus the outcome of consonant gemination is two adjacent consonants in the middle of the word. The word is now pronounced differently as the coda position of the first syllable contains two consonants and it would take longer to articulate both of them. In short, consonant gemination has caused a change in both spelling and pronunciation.

Conversely, if the first syllable of the word is an open syllable (a syllable that ends in a vowel), the consonant that is doubled is naturally the one in the second syllable, as illustrated in (3).

(3) a. ta-bak → ta*b*-bak

b. ki-tap → ki*t*-ta

c. dü-rüm → dür-rüm

This one seems to be even more interesting in terms of phonology, since it derives a closed syllable out of an open one, as shown in (3a-c). The newly created consonant occurs in the coda position of the first syllable. Similar to the case in (2) above, it changes the pronunciation as well as the spelling of the word, as shown in (4).

(4) a. ta-bak [tʰabak] → tab-bak [tʰabbak]

b. ki-tap [kʰitap] → kit-tap [kʰittap]

c. dü-rüm [dyrym] → dür-rüm [dyrrym]

The examples in (4a) and (4b) show that geminate consonants in Turkish derived by consonant gemination need to be pronounced separately, as shown in (4a) and (4b). Since the process changes the structure of the syllable, its phonological effect is even more noticeable. The data in (2) and (4), therefore, illustrate the fact that the process changes both the spelling and the pronunciation of the word it applies to.

In addition to the process of consonant gemination, a different strategy sometimes co-occurs along with it. It is what is referred to as Englishization where the newly created word is occasionally accompanied by an English lexical or functional words. Consider the examples below.

(5) a. Şekker Home

b. My Bebbek

c. Chef Mezze

d. The Bibber

The existence of such examples clearly indicates the influence of foreignization in the form of Englishization in the Turkish business context. The above data also show that it is not only English lexical words that are the primary source of business naming, but functional words have started to be used in the process too.

4. Discussion

It was shown in Section 2 and 3 that foreignization and Englishization are two productive processes that are used in business naming practices both locally and internationally. It was also shown that these practices are sometimes used individually or are combined in different and innovative ways. The novel practice analyzed in this work was adopted by Turkish business owners in recent years and it is in fact not so distinct from those mentioned in previous analyses. Similar to the use of hybrid signs in Turkish business naming practices that are reported in Selvi (2007, 2011) and Üstünova et al. (2011) the new practice is a hybrid in a different from. Basically, it is a combination of two different processes. It is used in order to create an interesting and perhaps trendy business name that would stand out among others and attract more customers. Interestingly, it utilizes both foreign elements and English lexical items, making full use of practices that are available. Note also that the new practice shows resemblance to those adopted and used worldwide. For instance, the use of hybrid signs in Japan as reported in MacGregor (2003) and multiple languages in Switzerland discussed in McArthur (2000) are already well-known phenomena. Also, the current work shows certain parallels with Dimova's (2008) study as both analyses, in addition to the fact that using similar techniques in gathering data, report on the orthographic and formative creativity in business naming in an attempt to look more modern and global in a local setting. In that sense it would be reasonable to argue that the current practice could be regarded as a creative interpretation of the existing ones. Further research will surely reveal whether there will be new and innovative practices to be added to the current list and whether such practices could have a long-term impact on the phonology and spelling of the Turkish language.

5. Conclusions

In this paper I demonstrated that the practice of foreignization and Englishization in the business naming process is ongoing and manifests itself in various new and creative ways in Turkey. The term coined to identify this new procedure is consonant gemination since it targets consonants in the middle of a word and creates another one. An English word sometimes co-occurs with the newly created word. The reason for employing non-Turkish signs, especially those in English, is probably because it evokes the sense of being interesting, different, and perhaps more appealing. Therefore, business naming is not just the practice of borrowing foreign words from other languages but rather adapting Turkish words to English spelling and orthography. More importantly, it was noted that this particular strategy has significant phonological consequences in that it converts short consonants into long ones. It also creates a closed syllable out of an open one, changing the spelling and the pronunciation of the word.

The practice of consonant gemination and the presence of English words is a good example to illustrate the extent to which the influence of foreign elements and the English language influences Turkish. An area of inquiry to pursue further would be to investigate the consonant gemination strategy in other environments such as at the beginning or at end of the word. Such practices already exist and some examples would be 'Çuvall' (a clothing store in İstanbul) which derived from the word 'çuval' (sack), 'Mahall Bomonti' (the name for a construction project) that derived from the word 'mahal' (place) and 'Keyff' (a restaurant in Izmir) that derived from 'keyif' (pleasure). In addition, there are new business names where the vowel and not the consonant gets geminated in different places of the word. Such examples are 'Keebap' (a restaurant in Istanbul) that derived from the word 'kebap' (kebab) and 'Ustaa' (a restaurant in Ankara) that derived from 'usta' (master). Thus it seems reasonable, if not necessary, to observe whether this practices are also becoming widespread in business naming throughout Turkey. Moreover, it is equally important to do a similar study concerning the use of Englishization in product naming in Turkey to see if the process is spreading to other naming practices. Lastly, the question

whether consonant gemination would have a broader effect on Turkish in the long term remains to be investigated. Further research will shed more light on these issues.

Acknowledgements

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Türk iş yeri adlandırma uygulamalarında yabancılaşma ve İngilizceleşme

Öz

Bu makale, yabancılaşma ve İngilizceleşmenin Türkiye'de iş yeri adlandırma uygulamalarına etkisini araştırmaktadır. Ele alınan sorular, dilbilimsel yabancı unsurların ve İngilizce sözlü öğelerin Türkçe'de iş yeri adlandırmada ne tür yeni yöntemlerin olduğu ve bunların dile nasıl bir etki yapacakları ile ilgilidir. Önceki çalışmalarda, yabancılaşmanın ve İngilizceleşmenin üç ana yolun Türk işyeri adlandırma uygulamalarında olduğu savunulmuştur. Bunlar, (i) İngilizce olmayan (örn. Almanca ve Fransızca) ve İngilizce sözcükler içeren iş yeri adları, (ii) Türkçe ve İngilizce kelimelerin birleşimini içeren hibrid iş yeri adları ve (iii) İngiliz yazım kurallarını kullanarak Türk fonolojisini temsil eden ve yapay olarak yaratılan Türkçe iş yeri adlarıdır (Üstünova ve diğerleri 2010; Selvi 2011). Bu çalışmada ise yeni verilere dayanarak bu uygulamaların dışında yeni ve yaratıcı bir uygulamanın olduğunu ortaya konmaktadır. Bu yeni yöntem, iş yeri adı olarak kullanılacak sözcüğün ortasındaki ünsüzün kopyalanmasından meydana gelmektedir ve bundan dolayı ünsüz ikizleşmesi olarak adlandırılabilir. Yeni oluşan sözcüğe genellikle İngilizce bir kelime de eklenmektedir. Uygulama sözcüğün hem hece yapısını hem de telaffuzunu değiştirdiği için diğer yöntemlere göre daha önemli dilbilimsel sonuçları vardır. Bu konuyla ilgili ileride yapılacak çalışmalar, bu uygulamanın daha farklı iş yeri adlandırma uygulamalarına neden olup olamayacağı ve Türkçenin sesbilgisi ve yazım kurallarında uzun süreli bir etkiye sahip olup olmayacağı konularına açıklık getirecektir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Yabancılaşma; İngilizceleşme; iş yeri adlandırma; ünsüz ikizleşmesi; Türkçe

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Analyzing the attitudes of translation students towards cat (computer-aided translation) tools

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Abstract

Translation profession has witnessed some technological innovations in recent years. The triggering reason behind these innovations has been the ever-increasing workload. Translation tools came to be seen as an aid to handle this workload. To this end, emerging translation technologies have come to front. There are many studies that take professional translators' views about these technologies into consideration. However, the studies dealing with the acceptance of these tools by translation students or investigating their attitudes towards these tools are limited. In this study, translation students' attitudes towards translation technologies are analyzed with pre-and post-test questionnaires based on some research questions. The analysis shows that there are some statistically significant differences between pre-and post-test scores obtained with the questionnaires applied before and after the training. This result supports the view that students develop a positive attitude after they are taught the benefits of using computer-aided translation tools and more classes should be allocated for translation technologies in translation training programs.

Keywords: Translation technology; translation training; translation tools; computer-aided translation; translation memory

1. Introduction

Technology has assumed a dominant and defining role in the translation industry. This means that it seems unlikely to resist the changes brought about by translation tools within the translation community. In order to stress the importance of these tools for translators, Bowker points out that translation tools have become a prerequisite for professional translators to survive in such a demanding translation market (2015:88). For this reason, seeing the market demands, many professional translators have learned to use these tools. They try to make use of the benefits provided by these tools. However, according to some translators these tools are a threat to their future rather than being an aid as they think that the machines will replace them professionally. In order to enlighten professional translators' fears and to investigate their attitudes or general views towards these tools or to gain an insight into the benefits of using these tools, some surveys were carried out. For instance, the study carried out by Dillon and Fraser (2006) concludes that younger translators have a more optimistic view about translation memory than

experienced translators. Nevertheless, there are not enough studies that take students' attitudes towards translation technology into consideration.

1.1. Literature review

The effect of technology on translation both as an occupation and as a process is undeniable. However, there is still not a consensus among translation departments over the teaching of translation tools despite the increasing need. That is, in some departments this need is covered by a person, fully competent to use and teach programs while in others the course is only elective or taught by a person, who himself becomes aware of the programs only after the course is given to him. To cover the need in this area and to standardize the lessons on translation tools, some projects have been carried out with the European Union funds. To name a few of them, Letrac (1998), Ecolore (2002), Ecolotrain (2005), Optimale (2010) are some of these projects. As stated by Balkul (2015) in his comprehensive thesis on the teaching of translation technologies in Turkey, the main aims of these projects are to integrate translation tools into the curriculum and to teach translation technologies in translation departments.

As for Turkey, Şahin (2013) draws attention to the fact that there is a lack of consistency among universities in regard to the integration of technology into their curriculum. However, the problem is not merely integrating the course into the curriculum. After the integration, there arises another important issue over teaching of translation tools as to which tool should be taught. This problem usually occurs on account of the financial restrictions over the purchase of the software. Yet, given the importance and necessity of teaching these tools is so clear under the real market conditions, the restrictions and limitations should be overcome by the effort of translation training programs, which define their main objective to train qualified translators for the market. This view is further stressed by Gümüş in her thesis that sheds light on the translation training programs in Turkey as follows:

"Employment in each professional context has specific requirements, which requires training translators for a global market with diverse technological requirements. This brings us to the conclusion that, although translator-training programs cannot allocate time to teach every single TM tool, they may incorporate in their curricula the basics of TMs and how they are used in producing translations" (2014: 33).

Bowker (2015: 93) enlarges on this issue by noting that "a fundamental understanding of the main principles of these tools is essential and to this end, it is preferable to use and teach at least two different tools". To this end, some CAT (Computer-Aided Translation) tools are offered as free academic editions or free personal editions in order to help the translation departments and academic staff working in this area, as well as freelance novice translators. To provide students with a range tools used in the real market, the trainer can assume the mediator and facilitator role and direct students to use these free academic editions.

Another issue that must be taken into consideration should be the students' reactions to using these tools. This is of great importance since some students may become introvert during technology classes resulting from his or her computer illiteracy or they may have not enough motivation to benefit from these tools. This problem can also be overcome by the teacher as when he or she assumes the facilitator role during the class (Kiraly, 2000). Yet, the studies that take students' attitudes towards translation technologies are limited considering the importance of the situation. For this reason, in this study the attitudes of translation students towards translation technology are investigated with attitude questionnaires developed and tested by the researcher for reliability and validity.

The purpose of this study is to test the relationship between teaching CAT tools and translation students' attitudes towards translation tools at Kırıkkale University. The study is to be performed with

pre-test and post-test experimental research design, in which undergraduate level English translation students at Kırıkkale University will constitute the main participant group.

1.2. Research questions

The study intends to analyze translation students' attitudes towards CAT (Computer-Aided Translation) tools according to the criteria defined above.

The research questions are formulated as follows:

1.   Are there any statistically significant changes in the attitudes of translation students towards CAT tools after they take a course on CAT tools?

2.   Does the course on CAT tools significantly change the attitudes of translation students towards the relationship between the use of translation technology and productivity?

3.   Does the course on CAT tools significantly change the attitudes of translation students towards the relationship between the use of translation technology and their perception of translation quality?

2. Method

As stated above, the primary aim of this study is to analyze whether students' attitudes towards CAT tools change after they are given a course on these tools. Thus, the study was formulated as an experimental study with single group pre-test post-test research design. For the analysis of the collected data, statistical analysis methods were used, for which SPSS PASW 18 was employed.

2.1. Participants

Two groups of participants were included in the study. One of these groups was used during the pilot study and the other group was used in the main study. 63 students from different translation departments such as Arabic, Persian and French Translation and Interpreting departments at Kırıkkale University formed the first group, while 66 students formed the main study group who were the real subjects that would take the Computer-Aided Translation course offered by the English Translation and Interpreting Department.

The participants of the study have Turkish as the mother tongue and English as their foreign language, though there were some bilinguals coming from Germany and the USA. The number and gender of participants in the main study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Participant statistics and profile of the study

		Number			
	N	Valid	66		
		Missing	0		
		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	30	45,5	45,5	45,5
	Male	36	54,5	54,5	100
		66	100	100	

2.2. Instruments

The data about students' attitudes towards CAT tools was collected through an attitude scale developed by the researcher. The scale was applied with a questionnaire to see whether there is a significant difference before and after the course. The questionnaire uses a 5-point Likert type, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree, in which strongly disagree corresponds to 1 point while strongly agree corresponds to 5 points. Before the actual study, the scale was tested for its validity and reliability. To this end, the scale was applied to the 63 students that would not be used in the actual study. The reliability of the scale was ensured as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Pilot Test Reliability Score

	Reliability		
Case Processing Summary		N	%
	Valid	63	100,0
Cases	Excluded	0	,0
	Total	63	100

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,790	15

After the reliability of the scale had been ensured, the questionnaire was applied to students at the start of the term as a pre-test. A short brief on the questionnaire was given to the students and it was stressed that they didn't need to write their names and they were asked just to read all the items and answer the questions sincerely. The pre-test was followed by one term lesson on Computer-Aided Translation Tools.

2.3. Selection of the Items

The application of the pilot test was done only after the comprehensibility and coherence of the items had been ensured. To this end, first a pool of items was created building upon the most significant issues in the field. For this reason, some previous studies and surveys focusing on the advantages and disadvantages of using translation memory, computer-aided translation, translation technology were taken into consideration (Webb, 1992; Christensen & Schjoldager, 2011; LeBlanc, 2013; Reinke, 2013; Şahin, 2013). Then, these items were read by the students that would not be used in the main study and then expert opinion was taken. According to the feedback taken from the students, unclear items were defined. After unclear or ambiguous items were deleted and some were modified, the final form of the pilot test was created.

2.4. Data collection procedures

The study used quantitative data gathered by a questionnaire containing items regarding the attitudes of translation students towards computer-aided translation tools. The method of administration was a pre- and post-test method. The instrument was applied to the same students at the start and at the end of the term in order to see whether the students' attitudes changed within the course of instruction. By this way, it was possible to see whether there occurred a statistically significant change in the attitudes of

translation students towards CAT tools. After the post-test was conducted, the results were analyzed using SPSS PASW 18.

2.5. Instruction

This study was performed as a part of the Computer-Aided Translation course. It is a compulsory lesson for the 2nd year undergraduate students at Kırıkkale University. The course is given in one term and it takes 2-course hours in a week. As the curriculum was amended in the year when this application was performed and this course was newly put into the second year of the curriculum, 3rd year undergraduate students were also given a chance to take the course in that term lest they should graduate without taking this course.

Memsource Academic Edition was used as the main CAT tool while other programs such as Wordfast Anywhere, SDL Trados and Google Translators' Toolkit were also mentioned. The aims of the course are to familiarize the students with translation technology in general and to help students learn the basic components of the Memsource Academic Edition in detail. As stated by Li and Zhang (2010:561), "the application of CAT technology in translation curriculum contributes to cultivate the students' ability to resolve practical problems and technique translation problems".   For this reason, students are always given a floor to solve problems themselves and the trainer tries to integrate the students at every phase of the class.

As the main components of an ordinary CAT tool, TM (Translation Memory) and Terminology Management functions are stressed during the course. Furthermore, students can also have a chance to create projects themselves thanks to the availability of Project Manager users in adequate numbers provided by the Memsource Academic Edition. To see the benefits provided by the Translation Memory, students are allowed to align texts and import these texts into the TM. However, Machine Translation function is disabled for fear that students may tend to use raw Machine Translation and not to translate themselves.

In the first two weeks of the course, the theoretical aspects of translation technology were mentioned. The main differences between Machine Translation and Computer Aided Translation were stressed, as well. During the class students were always welcomed to ask questions or tell their opinions about the class. After the first two-weeks in the class, the lecturer showed how a typical translation project was created and how translation memory and term base were included in that project. Then, students got the opportunity to have hands-on training with the help of the lecturer in the computer lab. Not only purely technical texts such as a hair-straightener's manual or a user guide of a vacuum cleaner but also semi-technical texts such as WHO's Health Reports or UN's newsletters on Refugee crisis were used for translation.

For the last 4 weeks, the lecturer gave them a term assignment. For this assignment, the students were split into groups, each of which included a project manager, a terminologist, an editor and a translator. Each of these persons had a key role in the assignment. Each group was given three texts, two of which were to be used for the purpose of alignment and the remaining one was the target text to translate using TM (translation memory) which would be created using the alignment. The terminologist was responsible for collecting the terms to be used during the translation. The editor was responsible for creating TMs and converting the text into different file formats. As for the project manager, he/she was the person who was responsible for the smoothness of the phases and general coordination of the project. The project manager was asked to compile the works and submit the project as a whole. At the end of the term the same questionnaire was applied again as a post-test. The same procedures that were followed during the pre-test were performed again.

3. Results and Discussion

For the first research question of the study, the figures in Table 3 shows that the average points for the attitudes in the post-test are statistically higher than the average points in the pre-test (p < .05). Based on these statistics it can be said that the students developed a positive attitude towards computer-aided translation after the course. That the students learned the general benefits of using a translation tool had a profound effect on this result. It can be claimed that learning these benefits changed the situation of CAT tools in the minds of students.

Table 3. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Pre-test and Post-test
Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	pre-test	43,2576	66	9,08813	1,11867	,001
	post-test	49,8182	66	10,60030	1,30481	

As for the other questions of the study, the items regarding the questions were summed separately and compared for the pre-test and post-test. The second research question of the study is on the relationship between the use of translation tools and productivity. This relationship is a subject that is often mentioned in the translation field (Yamada, 2011) and there are some previous studies that investigated the views of professional translators on this issue (Bowker, 2005; Guerberof, 2008). However, the student perspective on this issue needs to be investigated in detail. For this reason, it was thought that the items in this questionnaire could be a starting point for further studies, as well.

The pre-test and post-test results regarding the relationship between the use of translation tools and productivity were compared using paired sample t-test again and given in Table 4.

Table 4. Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Results for Research Question 2
Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2- tailed)
Pair 1	pre-test	11,6515	66	3,23677	,39842	,022
	post-test	13,0606	66	3,20038	,39394	

As the figures show, the students developed a positive attitude towards the relationship between the use of translation tools and productivity. This is clear from the difference between the pre-test and post-test (0,022< .05). This increase of translation productivity and performance from students' perspectives was analyzed in a study conducted by Şahin (2013) with undergraduate students at a foundation-funded university.

This difference can be a result of the fact that students realized the benefits of learning how to use possibilities of translation technology including translation memories, search engines, term banks, corpuses. Moreover, the fact that they were given weekly and termly assignments to use these possibilities effected the students' attitudes towards translation technologies. By means of these systems,

students could search and find terms in parallel texts and align these parallel texts so that they could create their translation memories. Thus, the time allocated for term search decreased and the efficiency increased. To sum up, translation technologies, namely translation memory and term bases increase the speed of translation and this increase affects the perspectives of the students towards productivity.

The last question of the study was intended to consider the students' attitudes towards the relationship between the use of translation technology and students' perception of translation quality. For this purpose, items intended to measure students' attitudes towards translation quality were selected and compared for pre-test and post-test.

Table 5. Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Result for the Research Question 3
Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2- tailed)
Pair 1	pre-test	3,6212	66	1,90356	,23431	,006
	post-test	4,6970	66	2,37920	,29286	

As the results in Table 5 show, there is a statistically significant change in the attitudes of translation students between the pre-test and post-test. This means that students developed a positive attitude regarding the perception of the quality of translations done with translation tools. This change in the attitudes of students can be referred to the fact that students realized the practical benefits of translation tools especially quality assurance functions. By means of this quality assurance function, students learned how to use the spell-checker or how to be alert for non-translated segments.

4. Conclusions

This study reports on the attitudes of undergraduate level translation students towards translation technology with an attitude scale applied by the researcher at the start and end of the term within the English Translation and Interpreting Department at Kırıkkale University. Since translation market attaches great importance to productivity and quality in translations, being able to use translation tools is a key factor to make the translation process faster and ensure high quality translations. To this end, it is of great importance to teach undergraduate level students these tools.

As the data derived from comparing the pre-test and post-test results show, the students developed a positive attitude towards translation tool. This general research question of the study was supported by a second question on the relationship between the use of translation tools and productivity and a last question on the relationship between the use of translation tools and students' translation quality perspective. For all of these questions, students developed a positive attitude after they took CAT (Computer-Aided Translation) tools course. This can be explained by the fact that students realized the benefits and advantages of using a tool such as quality assurance function, aligning text for translation memory.

This study is important in that it aims at providing an insight as to integrating and designing courses on technology into the curriculum of undergraduate level translation programs. Another significance of the study is that it is one of the few studies that take students' views into account. For this reason,

building on the challenges faced during the course and focusing on the students' views, this study gives implications for allocating more time on translation technology course and teaching multiple tools.

The current study can be developed to cover more students at different universities or to take the students' level of foreign language into consideration in further studies. By this way, more comprehensive results can be attained. Moreover, the study can be supported by more variables such as students' level of general IT knowledge or being able to use specific software to increase the reliability rate of the results. Last but not the least, this study can be adapted to be used for language pairs other than English-Turkish so that views of the students studying translation in other foreign languages can be taken into consideration.

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Çeviri öğrencilerinin Bilgisayar-Destekli Çeviri (BDÇ) araçlarına yönelik tutumlarının incelenmesi

Öz

Çeviri mesleği son yıllarda bazı teknolojik gelişmelere şahit olmuştur. Bu gelişmeleri tetikleyen sebep gittikçe artan iş yüküdür. Bilgisayar Destekli Çeviri araçları artan bu iş yüküne çare olarak görülmeye başlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, her geçen gün yeni bir çeviri aracı ortaya çıkmaktadır. Profesyonel çevirmenlerin, gelişen bu çeviri araçlarına yönelik tutumlarını inceleyen bir dizi çalışma bulunmaktadır. Ancak bu araçların çeviri öğrencileri tarafından kabul görmesini veya çeviri öğrencilerinin bu araçlara yönelik tutumlarını inceleyen çalışma sayıca kısıtlıdır. Bu çalışmada, çeviri öğrencilerinin gelişen çeviri teknolojilerine yönelik tutumları bazı araştırma sorularına dayanarak oluşturulan ve ders öncesi ve sonrasında anket yöntemiyle uygulanan tutum ölçeği aracılığıyla incelenmiştir. İnceleme sonuçlarına göre ders öncesi ve sonrasında öğrencilerin çeviri teknolojilerine yönelik tutumlarında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklar gözlemlenmiştir. Bu sonuç öğrencilere Bilgisayar Destekli Çeviri araçları öğretildiğinde bu araçlara yönelik tutumlarının olumlu yönde değiştiği ve çeviri eğitimi veren programlarda bu teknolojilerin öğretimine yönelik daha fazla ders ayrılması gerektiği görüşünü desteklemektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Çeviri teknolojileri; çeviri eğitimi; çeviri araçları; bilgisayar destekli çeviri; çeviri belleği

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Ideology in the news through active, passive sentences and nominalization: A study on the terrorist attack in Ankara reported in British and American newspapers

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Abstract

This study focuses on the investigation of frequency and distribution of the active, passive sentences and nominalized structures in new reports about 'the terrorist attack in Ankara on October 10th' (2015) across British and American newspapers. In the light of this purpose, the following research questions are addressed:

1.How is the news about the terrorist attack in Ankara reported in British and American newspapers as far as active, passive sentences and nominalized structures are concerned?

2.What are the frequencies and distributions of active, passive sentences and nominalized structures in news reports across British and American newspapers?

The data of the study are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively by finding out the frequencies and distributions of the structures, and by explaining examples from the document analysis process respectively. American newspapers were found to present the agent more frequently compared to British newspapers. The results of the study show that there are instances of passivization in mitigating a claim about the agent, or attenuating to present the details of the events. The journalists use active voice in describing the actions and events whereas they prefer passive voice in presenting the actions in which the agent is unknown or irrelevant. As the newspapers examined within the domain of this study are the most circulating and leading newspapers, the choice of these structures and their potential role in conveying ideology have crucial role in presentation of the image of Turkey in external media (i.e. the news reported abroad about Turkey).

Keywords: Active and passive sentences; nominalization; ideology; news reports.

1. Introduction

The genre of news reporting has gained attention among the scholars studying in the field of sociology, political discourse and linguistics. Different writing styles and the choice of linguistic strategies in news reporting have been the subject of inquiry especially in linguistic research. News reporting is a crucial component of media discourse and it aims to inform large number of audience about the events. Therefore, media are the reflective of society, and in this respect, Oktar (2001)

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argues, "the media do not passively describe or record news events, but actively reconstruct them, mostly on the basis of their own ideological affiliations" (p.320). In order to examine the presentation of ideologies in media, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Systemic Functional Analysis (SFA) are two approaches commonly employed to have a deep understanding about this issue. One of the pioneers of CDA, Fairclough (1995) argues that ideology invests language "in producing or interpreting a text, and the ways they are articulated together in orders of discourse" (p. 74) through both lexical meanings and "presuppositions, implicatures, metaphors, and coherence, all aspects of meaning" (p.74). This variety in investing ideology yield to "establishing a categorical and authoritative and decisive image than with giving information" (Fairclough, 1995:75).

Having mentioned the relationship between media and ideology, it is worth emphasizing that language is the key component in expressing an ideology in media. In this respect, Xie (2013) indicates, "languages are 'meaning potentials' that provide users with choices, arranged as 'system networks', about how to express their thoughts. At the level of lexis, the ideological implications of this fact are widely recognized" (p.42). Considering the fact that language in the news conveys a certain ideology, it is important to have a clear-cut definition of ideology as it is a quite broad term covering social and political aspects. In the present study, Van Dijk's (1998) definition of ideology is adopted, he defined it as follows:

> Ideologies are representations of who we are, what we stand for, what our values are, and what our relationships are with other groups, in particular our enemies or opponents, that is, those who oppose what we stand for, threaten our interests and prevent us from equal access to social resources and human rights (residence, citizenship, employment, housing, status and respect, and so on) (p. 69).

Such a definition leads us to the importance of gaining a deep understanding about different interpretations of ideological constructions presented by media. In this regard, considering the representation of discourse in news media, Fairclough (1995) indicates, "it can be seen as an ideological process of considerable social importance" (p. 65). One of the most powerful sources among the media is news reports where news reports are presented to a large audience by carrying a certain ideological aspect. In this respect, Shojaei, Youssefi and Hosseini (2013) indicate that "framing social, political, cultural, economic, and ideological realities highly depends on the language use of the mass media in general, and printed news media in particular" (p. 859).

The ideology in news reports is conveyed not only through the linguistic devices such as lexicalization, intertextuality, stance markers, discourse connectives; but also through the use of direct quotes, pictures and historical commentaries. Among the linguistic features used to convey the ideology in news reports are active and passive voices and nominalized structures. It is worth presenting the definition of nominalization used within the scope of this study as it is one of the key concepts in the wholes study. Nominalization is defined as "a transformation which reduces a whole clause to its nucleus, the verb, and turns that into a noun" (Fowler, Hodge, Kress &Trew, 1979) and nominalization semantically denotes events, propositions, and states of affairs (Zucchi, 1993).

The use of active and passive sentences makes it impossible to report the events in a neutral way because "such choices, which the language system both enables and forces us to make in every utterance, are precisely the points at which the operation of ideology can and does occur" (Xie,2013: 42). Therefore, journalists have to make a choice among the active voice, passive voice or nominalized structures, because it is not possible to use them together in an utterance. Considering the fact that the representation of ideology shapes the audience and in turn the society and bearing the fact in mind that the preference of active, passive sentences and nominalized structures is not arbitrary, and the choice is based on a strategic manner. In this regard, the employment of active, passive sentences and

nominalized structures in news reports and their role in presenting an ideology should be analyzed. Conducting such an analysis is believed to provide us with a deeper understanding about the choice of these structures in the news reports about the terrorist attack in Ankara on October 10th in British and American newspapers in terms of the underlying ideological representations and interpretations. Thus, this analysis aims to investigate whether a single news item is presented differently in different newspapers from different countries based on the ideological perspectives or not.

1.1. *Theoretical background*

Linguistic research has focused on the examination of the relationship between language and ideology. The present study adopts the theoretical approach of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which is commonly associated with the works of Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1995) and Van Dijk (1993, 1996, 1998). CDA is a term used as a sub-branch of discourse analysis proposed by the scholars at the University of East Anglia. East Anglian scholars are commonly associated with this theoretical approach in the relevant literature. According to them, CDA, as a branch of linguistics, goes beyond the 'description of discourse to an explanation of how and why particular discourse are produced' (Teo, 2000:11). Discourse analysts commonly make use of the SFA (Halliday, 1994) in order to examine and explain the details of ideological preferences of the language users. In this sense, he suggests that language is a network of opinions, which provide the language users with the opportunity to make selections on an ideological basis. In parallel with this view, Van Dijk (1995) perceives discourse analysis as ideology analysis and he indicates, "ideologies are typically, though not exclusively, expressed and reproduced in discourse and communication, including non-verbal semiotic messages, such as pictures, photographs and movies" (p.17). Therefore, the component of discourse in examining the ideology covers a wide range of features from basic linguistic devices and word choices to semiotic choices.

In the relevant literature, it is a commonly accepted fact that media discourse is crucial in shaping the society by conveying an ideology, affecting the reality in social and political context (Ahangar, Sultani, Khoshkhoonejad, 2014). More specifically, news reports play an important role in representing the current issues in a society from national and international perspectives. As for their ideological role, reporting the news includes the selection, interpretation, and presentation of events to society, hence, "constructing reality in a manner corresponding with the underlying ideologies of the news producers and presenters" (Koosha and Shams, 2005:108).

Having mentioned the ideological roles of media discourse, it is necessary to understand what constitutes this ideology, how this ideology is shaped and the role of language in shaping this ideology. In the literature, characteristics of news language are said to be brevity, attribution, quotes, story structure, importance of the lead, stylistic consistency, rhetorical accessibility and local interpretation of globally accepted rules (Cotter, 2010). In terms of the language use in newspapers, Cotter (2010) indicates "while all journalists are very conscious of language use, and of assuming a special responsibility to upholding prescriptive norms, copy editors are especially prescriptive in their approach to the language of news stories, functioning as regulators not only for the profession but to safeguard the clarity and expressive power of the standard language in general" (p. 27). The language use here may include a variety of linguistic devices employed by the journalists. Voice is an important component among these structures conveying the journalists' position in the reported event, foregrounding or backgrounding the agent and action in a specific news. In this regard, voice includes the preference of the active voice, employment of passivization or nominalization and they carry a number of ideological functions. In the relevant literature, East Anglian group and their followers suggested that nominalization and passivization have ideological functions such as deleting agency,

reifying, positing reified concepts as agents, and maintaining unequal power relations (Billig, 2008). These terms are explained below:

- Deleting agency: According to the East Anglian group, "if speakers/writers used nominalization or passivization, they can transform statements that identified agents of actions into agentless statements that convey less information" (p.7).

- Reifying: By nominalization, reifying helps the speakers and writers "to convey that the entities, denoted by nominalization, have a real and necessary existence" (p.7).

- Positing reified concepts as agents: Speakers and writers make use of "the abstract, reified concepts as agents of processes and complete the transformation of processes into entities" (p.7).

- Maintaining unequal power relations: According to the East Anglian Group, it the writers of formal documents purposefully, in other words, not accidentally, tended to use nominalization and passivization. They point out that "formal discourse belongs to, and helps reproduce, a social context of inequality" (p.7).

Considering the functions and interpretations of the choice of active voice, the use of passivization and the employment of nominalization, it is safe to say that these preferences have the potential for ideological uses. In this regard, the ideologies of news reports could be speculated through positioning of participants and process choices, and their positioning in the clause (Thetela, 2001:354). In terms of their investigation, Van Dijk (2008) argues that the role of nominalization in discourse should be studied in comparison to possible alternative structures not in isolation. Therefore, nominalization, active and passive voice should be examined and analyzed together. Among these preferences, journalists especially prefer nominalization for various reasons such as lack of knowledge about the agent, irrelevant knowledge about the agency, the focus of author on the actions or victims rather than on the agents, lack of space, hiding or downgrading the responsible negative agency. (Van Dijk, 2008). Therefore, further studies should be examined and conducted in order to gain a deep understanding over the underlying reasons across these choices and the distribution of the preferences across active, passive sentences and nominalized structures.

1.2. *Literature Review*

The presence of ideology has been the subject of inquiry in political discourse, sociology and especially in linguistics. The relationship between ideology and its linguistic representation has been investigated particularly within the domain of different writing styles, the newspapers' policy, mainstream in media discourse and reporting traditions in journalism. Among these studies, one line of studies compared different newspapers from different countries' ideological backgrounds whereas a number of them investigated the linguistic and lexical choice behind the ideological construction.

The theoretical frameworks in CDA and the systematic functional linguistics have shed a light on such kind of research studies as they provide analytical tools from an ideological perspective. In this respect, for example, Vo (2013) examined the language and ideology in English and Vietnamese business hard news reporting and focused on the presentation of governments, central banks and people. It was found out that whereas governments and central banks are presented as more powerful than those in the English reports, people in Vietnamese are shown "as passive and absent while those in English are presented as active, performing various roles in the experiential world of business" (p. 1).

Studies in the field of linguistics have demonstrated that Western media construct ideological representations of the news from different countries and societies. The previous studies also show that these representations affect the interpretation of the target audience and shape the readers' interpretations of a fact.(Teo, 2000; Thetela, 2001; Fang, 2001; Oktar, 2001; Kuo & Nakamura, 2005; Koosha & Shams, 2005; Van Dijk, 2008; Shojaei, Youssefi & Hosseini, 2013; Xie, 2013; Vo, 2013;

Ahangar et.al., 2014), Among these studies, for example, Koosha and Shams (2005), adopted Halliday's transitivity model and examined the headlines of news story published by British newspapers on Iran's nuclear program. They found out that "British newspapers' coverage of Iran's nuclear tended to present a negative image of Iran and its nuclear program in the context of "us" and "them" (p.107). In another study conducted on the ideological presentation of news in Western media, Shojaei et.al. (2013) found out that the linguistic devices are the most important devices through which ideological representations can be conveyed in the news stories of newspapers and they include lexicalization and collocational patterns, presupposition, intertextuality, and modality.

Among these studies, Ahangar et.al. (2014) conducted a study in order to examine the presence of any ideology in the headlines of news story of Keyhan and Etemad Iranian newspapers and they found out that Keyhan newspapers tended to highlight semantic roles and processes of Principlists discourse whereas Etemad newspaper tended to foreground the reformists discourse. In addition to the political issues, racism has also been the subject of inquiry and in a study conducted by Toe (2000) in news reporting in two Australian newspapers, it was found out that there is the "evidence of a systematic othering and stereotyping of the ethnic community by the white majority" (p.7). In the relevant literature, Kuo and Nakamura (2005) brought a new perspective by examining the translated versions of the news report appearing in two ideologically opposed newspapers. They pointed out that despite both news articles are translated from an identical English text, "noticeable differences are found with respect to editorial deletions and additions, syntactic and lexical variations, as well as stylistic differences in paragraph/thematic combinations" (p. 410). They argue that these structural choices are not arbitrary and they are ideologically motivated. In the literature, there are also a number of studies conducted to examine the presentation of news from two ideologically opposed newspapers. For example, Fang (2001) focused on the discourse strategies of news reports in two ideologically opposed newspapers in China and s/he found out that both syntactic options and lexical choices are used to downplay or highlight the agent.

In nearly all studies conducted in this field of study, comparative analyses revealed that a news report is presented in different ways focusing on different ideological interpretations. Consequently, in Van Dijk's words, mental representations "are often articulated along Us versus Them dimensions, in which speakers of one group will generally tend to present themselves or their own group in positive terms, and other groups in negative terms" (p. 22).

In the Turkish setting, studies on the presentation of ideological aspects across newspapers are quite rare (Oktar, 2001; Oktar & Değer, 2015). To my best knowledge, Oktar (2001) is a pioneer in this field of study and she focused on the examination of the presentation of secularists and anti-secularists in two newspapers with different ideological orientations. She found out that there is "an ideological conflict between secularists and radical Islamists reflected in the media discourse, a conflict that lies behind the struggle between contemporaneity and anachronism, between progressiveness and reactionarism, between modernity and traditionalism" (p. 343).

Based on the theoretical background and the analysis of the relevant studies on this topic it is seen that "CDA is at its strongest in the direct comparison of different media accounts of the same event, demonstrating how language is a vehicle of covert interpretation in supposedly neutral reporting (Kuo &Nakamura, 2005: 396). Language, in this respect, involves transitivity as an analytical tool within the domain of Halliday's SFG together with thematization and lexical cohesion. According to Toe (2000), transitivity is a useful analytic tool that foregrounds the agency or, more accurately, the attribution of agency and process to the various participants in the text by the writer. In this respect, Billig (2008) points out that nominalization and passivization can be described as transformations. According to Billig (2008), as East Anglian group and some other analysts also emphasize, ideological

features associated with nominalization and passivization are "deleting agency; reifying; positing reified concepts as agents; maintaining unequal power relations" (p.6).

In terms of the preference of active and passive voice by the journalists, Busa (2014) points out that "the active voice is the preferred form because it allows the journalist to describe actions in a manner that is more direct and easier to understand, as it reflects the way people think and process information (p.102). S/he further indicates that passive voice is often preferred when an unknown or irrelevant performer performs the action. The following examples are provided from COCA corpus in order to show such a distinction:

1. The third child was found inside a back bedroom, near where Mr. Johnson had escaped to a roof ledge. (COCA: NYTimes)

2. Two police and four refugees were killed in the blast, which did not appear to be aimed at the visiting delegation. (COCA: AssocPress)

Having mentioned about one aspect of the preference of passive voice, passive voice can be used in a strategic manner in journalistic writing. In this respect, it was pointed out that "the passive voice can also be used to purposely leave the performer of the action unspecified, a strategy that the reporter can use to avoid ascribing direct responsibility for an action to anybody in particular" (Busa, 2014:102). Different from the use of passive voice in news reporting, active voice, as shown in the following examples, is used when the agent is known and specified (e.g. the police, a group of teenagers):

3. Police arrested 18 people, state TV reported, describing the protesters as rioters. (COCA: AssocPress)

4. A group of teenagers attacked a pizza delivery driver and robbed him of cash and a vehicle. A Jessup man, 18, was arrested. (COCA: WashPost)

5. In the past, North Korea has provoked us on many occasions, but this is the first time they have made a direct attack on South Korean soil, " said Lee, making his first public remarks since the crisis began last week with the attack on civilian-inhabited Yeonpyeong island. " Launching a military attack on civilians is a crime against humanity, even during wartime. (COCA: WashPost)

1.3. *Research questions*

In the present study, the critical discourse analysis is adopted in order to figure out whether a single news item is presented differently in different newspapers from different countries based on the ideological perspectives or not. In this regard, this study aims to find out how active, passive sentences and nominalization presented in news reports about the 'terrorist attack in Ankara on October 10th' (2015) in British and American newspapers. A further scope of this study is to investigate the frequency and distribution of the active, passive sentences and nominalized structures across different newspapers. In the light of the aforementioned purposes, the following research questions were addressed in the present study:

1- How is the news about the terrorist attack in Ankara reported in British and American newspapers as far as active and passive voices and nominalized structures are concerned?

2- What are the frequencies and distributions of active and passive voices and nominalized structures in news reports across British and American newspapers?

2. Method

The current study employs a mixed methods approach and adopts the method of document analysis. In the analysis, the documents are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively by finding out the frequencies and distributions of the structures, and by explaining examples from the document analysis process.

2.1. *Data*

The data of this study come from the collections of news reports compiled from British and American newspapers about the terrorist attack in Ankara on October 10, 2015. The British newspapers are *The Telegraph, The Guardian* and *The Independent* and the newspapers from United States of America are *New York Times, USA Today* and *Washington Post*. These newspapers are chosen from both countries because they are the leading newspapers in respective country. Other criteria in choosing these newspapers are the theme of the news, which is the 'terrorist attack in Ankara', accessibility of the newspapers on the Internet, the popularity of these newspapers in both countries and their orientation. Using these criteria, three news reports between the dates October 10-14 (2015) are selected from each newspaper. These collections of texts are saved as Word document files called the British Newspapers and American Newspapers. The numbers of words are 8,842 in British newspapers, and 8,356 in American newspapers respectively. The overall data consist of 17,198 words (see Table 1).

Table 1. Word Numbers of the Newspapers

British Newspapers	The Telegraph	8,842 words
	The Guardian	
	The Independent	
American Newspapers	New York Times	8,356 words
	USA Today	
	Washington Post	
Total word size		17,198 words

2.2. *Data Analysis*

The data of the study are analyzed quantitatively by finding out the frequencies and distributions of the active, passive sentences and nominalized structures in British Newspapers and American Newspapers and qualitatively by explaining examples from the document analysis process to show the presentation of the same news from different newspapers. In the data analysis process the first step is converting the collection of news reports saved as word document into *.txt* format in order to make it compatible with the concordancing tool used for this study. This tool is AntConc 3.2.4, which is a free corpus analysis tool for text analysis used in order to figure out the active, passive sentences and nominalized structures within the domain of this study. (see Figure 1.)
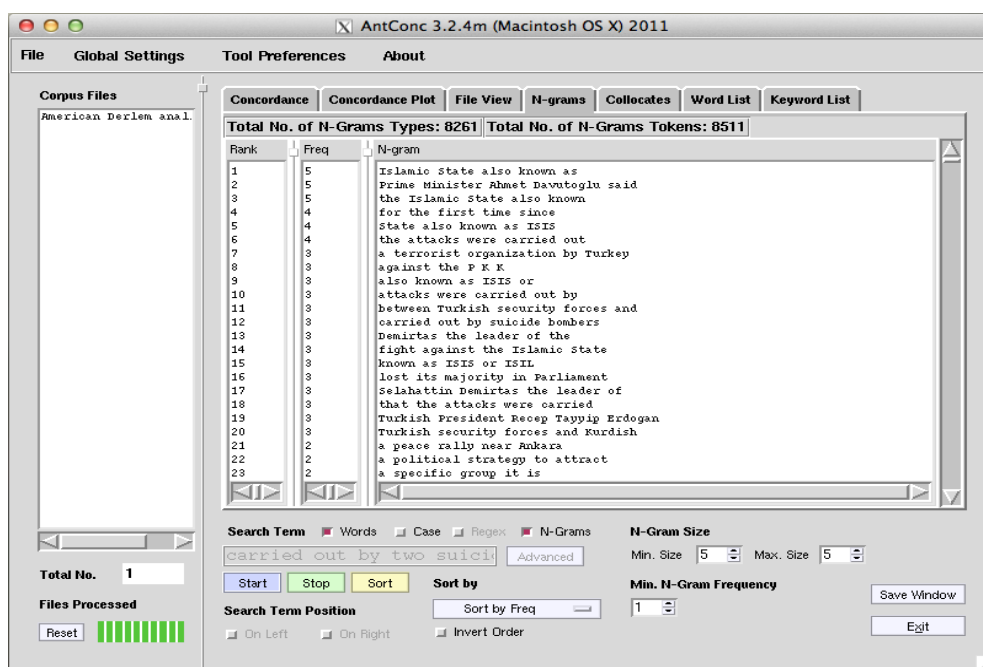
Figure 1. AntConc 3.2.4 Concordancing Tool

The second phase of the data analysis process is the identification of the verbs in news reports from British and American Newspapers. In this step, the searching is carried out through the use of 'Clusters' function of the tool. This function is used to figure out the frequencies and distributions of active and passive structures employed in British and American newspapers. The third phase of the analysis is the examination of the nominalized structures in the news reports. In order to conduct this analysis, N-grams function of AntConc program is used: 2 word, 3 word and 4-word N-grams are sorted and each sorted occurrence is analyzed manually in order to decide whether they are nominalized structures or just random co-occurrences. In this analysis, only the nominalized structures are counted and examples are explained in terms of their presentation of the same news in British and American newspapers.

3. Results and Discussion

The present study examined the news about the terrorist attack in Ankara reported in British and American newspapers in terms of the employment of active, passive sentences and nominalized structures, their frequencies and distributions across these newspapers. The quantitative analysis conducted in order to find out the frequencies and distributions of the active, passive and nominalized structures in British and American Newspapers. As a result of the quantitative analysis, it was revealed that there are 550 active structures and 111 passive structures in British newspapers whereas there are 564 active structures and 69 passive structures in American newspapers. It is seen that British newspapers employ passive structures much more frequently than the American newspapers. It was also revealed that the most common active structure in both collections of texts is the use of say which is used to convey the direct quotations and reported speech from the officials during the event as shown in extract (1).

1. Without naming the suspects, Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu said at a news conference on Wednesday that both the Islamic State and the Kurdistan Workers. (American Newspaper: New York Times)

It was also found out that in British newspapers, the most commonly used passive structures are the verbs killed, injured, wounded, named and organised, whereas in American newspapers the verbs used in passive voice are attacked, killed, carried out, considered and blamed. The common point in both of these occurrences is that the passive voice is used with these verbs without explicitly providing the agent as shown in the following examples:

2.   At least 95 people were killed and more than 500 were injured, the Health Ministry said. But local politicians said the remains of 120 victims had been identified. (American Newspaper: Washington Post)

3.   Despite his comments, it is believed investigators are focusing on Isil because of the attack's similarities with past bombings by the extremist group. (British Newspaper: The Telegraphs)

4.   Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu, whose office issued a ban on news coverage of the attack that was widely ignored, declared three days of national mourning. (American Newspaper: New York Times)

5.   Turkish MP Sirri Sureyya Onder also claimed a suspicious vehicle and another suspicious package had been found and that bomb-disposal experts had been called to the scene. (British Newspaper: The Guardian)

In both of these examples, the writers of the news reports do not provide any information about the agent(s). While extract (2) described the action, and summarizes the event, extract (3) comments on the identities of the attackers after the Mr Davutoğlu's comments and explanations on the identification of attackers. In extract (4), the agent is also not provided and the writer does not give information about who ignored the ban on news coverage of the attack. The reason for the choice of both passivization over active voice in presenting this news and not providing the agent may be that this news was reported just after the terrorist attack. The journalists may not have reliable and certain information about details of the event and the agents because after the terrorist attack in Ankara, there was a media blackout in order to prevent potential problems and speculations. Another reason may be the editors' policy in safeguarding 'the clarity and expressive power of the standard language in general" (Cotter, 2012: 27). Additionally, the preference of nominalized structures by journalists may stem from the lack of knowledge about the agent, irrelevant knowledge about the agency, the focus of author on the actions or victims rather than on the agents, lack of space, hiding or downgrading the responsible negative agency. (Van Dijk, 2008). Nevertheless, as East Anglian group argue, passivization and the choice of passive voice over active is not ideologically random. This preference may have ideological functions such as conveying less information, reifying, 'transforming the processes into entities', and reproducing a 'social context of inequality' (Billig, 2008: 7).

Having provided samples from American and British newspapers about deleting agency or preference of omitting the agent over providing it, the results of the study also revealed that there are passivized examples where the journalists provide the agent as shown in examples (6) and (7). In both of these extracts, the writer foregrounds the agent by providing the exact names such as '*anti-Erdogan sentiment'* and *'pro-Kurdish politicians'*. Among these instances found in the collection of newspapers, it was found out that American newspapers present the agent more frequently than the British newspapers do. The results of the study also revealed that American newspapers foreground the action and the agent especially in describing the events and providing reported speech as shown in extract (8). In this extract, the writer foregrounds the police's attack on the Kurdish leaders and members whereas in extract (7) the writer foregrounds the attack on the government at the same time provides the agent by saying '*by pro-Kurdish politicians'*.

6.   The HDP was buoyed by anti-Erdogan sentiment across the nation, as well as widespread support from Turkey's Kurds, a minority ethnic group that represents roughly a fifth of the country's population but whose votes have traditionally been split. (American Newspaper: Washington Post)

7.   There had been fears he would launch a suicide attack similar to his brother's and yesterday the government was attacked by pro-Kurdish politicians as well as the public for failing to tackle the Isil spillover from the Syrian war. (British Newspaper: The Telegraph)

8.   The pro-Kurdish Peoples' Democratic Party (HDP) said in a statement that police attacked its leaders and members as they tried to leave flowers at the scene (American Newspaper: USA Today)

Other than the aforementioned examples, the results of the study show that there are instances of passivization in mitigating a claim about the agent, or attenuating to present the details of the events as shown in example (9) and (10). In extract (9) the writer prefers to use '*is believed*' instead of saying '*we believe*' or '*officials believe*'. This preference over active voice has undoubtedly ideological purposes as mentioned in the previous examples. It was also found out that *believe* is a verb that is passivized in British newspapers, it has 4 passivized occurrences in British newspapers and has no occurrence in American newspapers. As for extract (10), it is seen that the writer emphasizes that the action or event is more significant and deserves more attention than the agent of the activity. Rather than active forms of these verbs, it is seen that the journalists use active voice in describing the actions and events whereas they prefer passive voice in presenting the actions in which the agent is unknown or irrelevant. For example, as shown in extract (10), the writer prefers to say '*were reported*' and '*were detained*' rather than '*the police detained the bombers*' and '*news agencies reported*'. With respect to these preferences, Fang (2001) indicated that syntactic options and lexical choices are used to downplay or highlight the agent and these choices are ideologically motivated.

9.   According to the reports, one of them is believed to be a brother of the suicide attacker who killed at least 32 people in July at a gathering of Kurdish activists in the southeastern city of Suruc, and who the government said had links to the Islamic State. (American Newspaper: New York Times)

10.   On Wednesday, two people who posted tweets suggesting a bomb could explode in the capital the day before the suicide bombings were detained. It was reported that the tweets said: "The bomb will explode in Ankara" and "What if (the Islamic State group) explodes (a bomb) in Ankara? (British Newspaper: The Telegraph)

The results of the current study conform to Busa's (2014) study as she indicated that "the active voice is the preferred form because it allows the journalist to describe actions in a manner that is more direct and easier to understand, as it reflects the way people think and process information (p.102). S/he further indicates that passive voice is often preferred when an unknown or irrelevant performer performs the action. Therefore, one of the reasons in the dominant use of passive voice in news reports may be addressing the audience easily and the lack of reliable information about the agent(s).

Having mentioned about the results and argumentation on the choice and presentation of active and passive structures, the analysis of the nominalized structures in the British and American newspapers revealed that there are 149 occurrences of four word, three word and two word nominalized structures in the top ten occurrences of these structures in American newspapers. It was revealed that nominalization is used to describe the terrorist attack and the following events after the attack by using the structures such as 'attack on the nation's soil', 'peace rally', 'responsibility for the bombings' in American newspapers. The comparative analysis between American and British newspapers revealed that the choice of vocabulary in American newspapers is more neutral as far as the nominalized structures are concerned. In this regard, in the relevant literature, Zhang (2011) classifies the words into three categories according to their emotional coloring such as commendatory words, which are conveyed with active evaluation, derogatory words, which are words with negative

evaluation, and neutral words, which have no evaluation. With respect to the nominalized structures, it was revealed that neutral words are dominantly used in American newspapers (see table 2) while the nominalized structures with evaluative functions were used in British newspapers (see Table 3).

Table 2. Nominalization in American newspapers

Four word nominalized structures	f	Three-word nominalized structures	f	Two-word nominalized structures	f
attack on our unity/the entire nation/nation's soil	7	a peace rally	8	peace rally	13
responsibility for the attack/bombings/violence	6	elections in June	6	cease fire	8
also known as ISIS	4	an attack on	5	suicide bombers	8
as a terrorist organization (by Turkey)	4	on social media	5	terrorist attack	8
a unilateral cease fire	3	two suicide bombers	4	Kurdish militants/rebels	8
fight against the Islamic state	3	a suicide bombing	4	security forces	7
percent of the vote	3	a coalition government	3	twin bombings	5
violence related to conflicts/against the Kurds/ in the Kurdish southeast	3	behind the attack	3	news conference	4
a feeling of panic	2	failing to protect	3	peace process	4
a drop in violence	2	worst terrorist attack	3	general elections	3
Total	37		44		68

The following extracts are taken from American newspapers and these examples present the dominant use of nominalized structures in presenting the news.

11. No group has claimed responsibility for the twin bombings, which officials said had most likely been carried out by suicide bombers. (New York Times)

12. In the aftermath of Saturday's blasts, pro-Kurdish news sources reported the PKK declared a unilateral cease-fire until elections on Nov. 1, calling on its fighters to halt all further armed actions against the state, unless attacked. The move was anticipated in recent days, but it remains unclear whether it will lead to a drop in violence. (USA Today)

13. Turkish PM blames suicide bombers in peace rally attack that killed 97 (USA Today) (title)

14. The blasts, which officials called the deadliest terrorist attack in modern Turkey's history, occurred near Ankara's main train station just as Kurds and leftists planned to march to protest the recent resumption of armed conflict between the Turkish state and Kurdish militants. (New York Times)

As for the British newspapers, it was found out that there are 178 occurrences of four, three and two word nominalized structures. It means that, as far as the data of the present study concerned, British newspapers employ nominalization and passive structures more compared to the American newspapers in presenting the news. The results of the analysis show that the most common nominalizations are *'terror attack', 'the deadliest terror attack', 'terrorist organization', 'suicide bombers', 'anti-government slogans'*. It is seen that nominalization is employed in order to both describe the event and to present information about the agents. In these instances, as it is also seen in extract (15), (16) and (18), the main difference compared to the occurrences in American newspapers is the use of *'anti-government slogans'* and the difference in the choice of more evaluative and

descriptive vocabulary (especially the preference of adjectives) such as '*extremist, the deadliest, escalating, intensive and suspected*'.

Table 3. Nominalization in British Newspapers

Four-word nominalized structures	f	Three-word nominalized structures	f	Two-word nominalized structures	f
carnation at the site	5	anti-government slogans	8	terror attack	14
the deadliest terrorist attack	5	pro-Kurdish activists	8	terrorist organization/ demonstration/attack/act	12
days of the national mourning	4	a peace rally	8	suicide bombers	12
responsibility for the attack	4	the death toll	7	government slogans	8
site of the bombings	4	behind the attack	5	Kurdish activists	8
three days of national mourning	4	deadliest terror attack	5	news agency	8
a group of mourners	3	the escalating violence	5	murderer Erdoğan	7
attack on pro-Kurdish activists	3	a suicide attack	4	peace march	6
suspected members of ISIS	3	the extremist group	4	intensive care	6
attack on peace rally	3	the suicide bombers	4	wounded people/protestors	6
Total	38		53		87

The below mentioned extracts are examples for nominalization in British newspapers. These extracts have the examples of evaluative words such as *extremist, deadliest, anti-government*.

15. Investigation into Turkey's deadliest terrorist attack to be 'completely focused' on Isis (The Independent) title. (The Independent)

16. A Turkish news agency reports that police have detained 14 suspected members of Isis in the Turkish city of Konya. It is unclear if the detentions were related to the attack in Ankara (The Independent).

17. Ahmet Davutoglu said on Monday said the extremist group was the country's "first priority" to investigate as he confirmed that the attack on a peace rally in Ankara was carried out by two suicide bombers. (The Telegraph)

18. Protestors chanting "murderer Erdogan" and other anti-government slogans gathered near the scene of the deadliest terror attack in Turkey's history, which has claimed 128 lives and left hundreds wounded. (The Independent)

Having presented the employment of nominalization in British and American newspapers, it was found out that majority of the occurrences in the nominalized structures are found in the headlines and sub-titles of the news reports. These parts serve a crucial role in the presentation of the news as headlines are suggested to form "the summary of the news story, which strategically serves as the expression of its macrostructure" (Van Dijk, 1988:226). The headlines of the British and American newspapers are found to present the most striking points of the terrorist attack with heavy use of nominalized structures.

In addition to their crucial role in getting the attention of the audience, the choice of nominalization and heavy use of these structures may have concerns about persuading the reader(s). In this respect, Bonyadi and Samuel (2011) indicated that there is presupposition through nominalization and this presupposition is used in order to persuade the readers. Another important point is that these structures may affect the readers' perceptions. In this respect, He and Zhou (2015) pointed out that "news reporters intentionally implant and invest ideologies into news reports by choosing words of their

interests for the purpose of impacting on readers' perception about the accidents being reported". In the relevant literature, it was also pointed out that Western media construct ideological representations of the news from different countries and societies and these representations undoubtedly affect the interpretations of the audience. Moreover, presenting the news reports in a neutral way is difficult and the choice between active and passive voice carry ideological functions and "such choices, which the language system both enables and forces us to make in every utterance, are precisely the points at which the operation of ideology can and does occur" (Xie, 2013: 42). Therefore, active, passive sentences and nominalized structures may impose different interpretations in the readers and potential audience.

In the relevant literature, East Anglian group and their followers suggested that nominalization and passivization have major ideological functions such as deleting agency, reifying, positing reified concepts as agents, and maintaining unequal power relations (Billig, 2008). As the newspapers examined within the domain of this study are the most circulating and leading newspapers, the choice of these structures and their potential role in conveying ideology have crucial role in the presentation of the image of a country (Turkey) in the external media.

4. Conclusions

Considering the crucial role of the presentation of active, passive sentences and nominalized structures in manipulating readers' opinions and interpretations of news reports, the current study aimed to identify these structures in the presentation of the same event- terrorist attack in Ankara- in different newspapers- in British and American newspapers. The analyses of the news from six different newspapers, which are The Telegraph, The Guardian, The Independent and New York Times, USA Today and Washington Post, revealed that British newspapers employ passive structures much more frequently than the American newspapers. It was found out that in British newspapers, the most commonly used passive structures are the verbs *killed, injured, wounded, named* and *organised*, whereas in American newspapers the verbs used in passive voice are *attacked, killed, carried out, considered* and *blamed*. It was found out that American newspapers present the agent more frequently than the British newspapers do. The results of the study show that there are instances of passivization in mitigating a claim about the agent, or attenuating to present the details of the events. Compared to the active forms of these verbs, it is seen that the journalists use active voice in describing the actions and events whereas they prefer passive voice in presenting the actions in which the agent is unknown or irrelevant. This finding leads us to discuss the role of active and passive sentences and nominalization in foregrounding or backgrounding certain type of information. The use these structures, the preference of one structure over another is not arbitrary and the choices are ideologically motivated. The following examples from two different newspapers presenting the same event show that national mourning is foregrounded in example (b) whereas it is backgrounded in extract (a).

a)	Turkish Prime Minister Ahmet Davutoglu said there were strong indications that the attacks were carried out by two suicide bombers and declared three days of national mourning (USA Today-American Newspaper)

b)	Turkey began three days of national mourning on Sunday and flags flew at half mast across the country. (The Telegraph-British Newspaper)

As Van Dijk (2008) suggests, nominalization is preferred when the agent is unidentified, knowledge about agency is irrelevant, the author wants to hide or downgrade the responsible negative agency, etc. Considering the fact that the constructed and imposed ideological representations through

newspapers affect the interpretation of the target audience and shape the readers' interpretations of a fact (Teo, 2000; Thetela, 2001; Fang, 2001; Oktar, 2001), the present study is believed to shed a light on the presentation of a single news in different newspapers. Considering the fact that interpretation of the surrounding events is conveyed through the news reports and they impose a number of ideological meanings, the representation of ideology shapes the audience and the society. Therefore, bearing the fact in mind that the preference of active, passive sentences and nominalized structures is not arbitrary, and the choice is based on a strategic manner critical reading of the news event represented by different newspapers has a crucial role. Awareness among the public and especially among the students is necessary as the news reflect the public discourse and "ideologies are generated and transformed in actual discursive events" (Fairclough, 1995:25). Critical reading and reading between the lines has crucial beneficial effects on public in criticizing and evaluating the surrounding events in the society. As Baudrillard (1982) states it is futile to try to gain an understanding on the characteristics of the audience without focusing on the mass media.

This critical analysis of British and American newspapers reporting on the terrorist attack in Ankara is also believed to contribute to the relevant literature and stimulate further research studies conducted in order to examine the presentation of ideology in reporting news and events. In this regard, future research may focus on a detailed and comparative examination of ideological features suggested by East Anglian group related to nominalization and passivization such as deleting the agency, reifying, positing reified concepts as agents and maintaining unequal power relations. Different types of nominalization, which Billig (2008) named them as transformations, such as linguistic, etymological, psychological, between-text and within-text nominalization may be the subject of inquiry for future research.

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Gazete söyleminde düşünyapının etken, edilgen cümleler ve adlaştırma yoluyla gösterimi: İngiliz ve Amerikan gazetelerinde Ankara terör saldırısı üzerine bir çalışma

Öz

Bu çalışma, İngiliz ve Amerikan gazetelerinde 10 Ekim 2015 tarihindeki Ankara terörist saldırısı konusunda yapılan haberlerdeki etken, edilgen tümcelerin ve adlaştırılmış yapıların sıklığını ve dağılımını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, aşağıdaki araştırma sorularına yanıt aranacaktır:

1.　　　Etken, edilgen cümleler ve adlaştırılmış yapılar açısından 10 Ekim (2015) Ankara terör saldırısı konusundaki haberler İngiliz ve Amerikan gazetelerinde nasıl sunulmuştur?

2.　　　İngiliz ve Amerikan gazetelerindeki etken, edilgen tümcelerin ve adlaştırılmış yapıların sıklığı ve dağılımı nedir?

Çalışmanın verisi, yapıların sıklık ve dağılımları nicel ve nitel analizler yoluyla incelenmiş olup doküman analizi yoluyla örnekler incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonucunda, Amerikan gazetelerinde İngiliz gazeteleriyle karşılaştırıldığında kılıcının daha sık gösterildiği saptanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, edilgen yapıların çoğunlukla kılıcı konusunda bir iddiayı veya olayın ayrıntılarını sunmayı hafifletmek için kullanıldığını göstermiştir. Gazetecilerin etken tümceleri olayları veya durumları betimlemek için kullanırken edilgen yapıdaki tümceleri kılıcının bilinmediği veya bağıntısız olduğu durumlarda kullandıkları saptanmıştır. Araştırma kapsamında incelenen gazetelerin bu ülkelerde en çok okunan ve önde gelen gazeteleri olduğu için, etken, edilgen tümceler ve adlaştırma seçimi ve bu yapıların düşünyapıyı yansıtması Türkiye'nin dış basındaki görünümü açısından önemli bir role sahiptir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Etken; edilgen tümceler; adlaştırma; düşünyapı; gazete söylemi

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Understanding language assessment literacy: Developing language assessments [*]

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Abstract

Language assessment literacy has become a critical competence for a language teacher to have. Accordingly, there are many studies in the literature which have researched different aspects of language assessment literacy (i.e., language assessment training, professional development and language assessment literacy levels of language teachers). However, they have not investigated how language teachers develop appropriate language assessment according to instructional purposes. Therefore, this study has aimed to reveal the development of language assessment by language teachers. The study was designed as a qualitative study and was carried out with eight participants working in a Turkish foundation university as English language instructors. Think-aloud protocols were used to collect data and the collected data were content-analyzed. The results of the study have indicated that developing language assessments has a critical, student- and course book-centered structure which helps to make exams valid in terms of content and construct validity. This structure also helps to have positive washback effects on students. Its limitations were explained and suggestions for further studies were made.

Keywords: Language assessment literacy; developing language assessment

1. Introduction

Considering the amount of time language instructors spend on assessment and evaluation and the considerable effect of language assessment on language teaching, language instructors are given a central role in language assessment. They become the agent of language assessment who assess students and evaluates assessment data to improve students' learning and their instruction (Malone, 2013; Rea-Dickins, 2004). That is, they are in charge of every assessment-related issue. In addition, the change in educational theories creates assessment culture through which language instructors need to acknowledge education and political ideologies and social values, expectations, and attitudes by being the assessors and facilitators of language teaching (Inbar-Lourie, 2008a). Being the agent of language assessment and adapting themselves to assessment culture have gained more importance with educational and political reforms which aim to apply changes in language teaching and to prove

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the changes work well by using the data language instructors provide (Brindley, 2008; Broadfoot, 2005; Inbar-Lourie, 2013; Malone, 2008; Rea-Dickins, 2008; Walters, 2010). All of these explanations make language instructors be language-assessment-literate to achieve what is expected from them. Therefore, it is essential to know language assessment literacy.

Language assessment literacy is considered as the ability that language instructors should have in order to understand, analyze and use assessment data to improve students' learning and their instruction (Inbar-Lourie, 2008b). According to Lam (2015) and O'Loughlin, (2013), language assessment literacy ability requires having the knowledge, skills and principles of assessment-related issues (i.e., test construction, use, evaluation and impact). Shortly, Malone (2008) thought that the ability is what the language instructor needs to know about language assessment and evaluation.

As the definitions of language assessment literacy ability indicate, the language instructor is supposed to have the knowledge, skills and principles of language assessment and evaluation. These knowledge, skills and principles are based on the seven standards of educational assessment proposed by the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), the National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME) and the National Education Association (NEA) in 1990. These standards involve (a) choosing assessment methods relevant to instructional purposes, (b) developing assessment tools depending on the instructional decisions, (c) administering exams, scoring them and evaluating assessment data, (d) using assessment results in decision-making related to instruction, students, school and curriculum, (e) developing valid grading procedures, (f) communicating assessment results with students and administrators and (g) recognizing illegal and unethical assessment practices (AFT et al., 1990).

1.1. Literature review

The literature review has indicated that several international and national language assessment literacy studies have been made on different aspects of language assessment literacy including the AFT and its partner organizations' standards of educational assessment. Language assessment courses were searched in some of the international studies which indicated that language assessment course instructors balanced theory and practice between 1996 and 2008 (Bailey & Brown, 2008; Brown & Bailey, 1996). However, the balance between theory and practice continued to be a problem in some language assessment courses (Jeong, 2013; Jin, 2010). The second topic studied in the international literature is professional development. Different studies showed that professional training in language assessment improved in-service language instructors' levels of language assessment literacy (Mahapatra, 2016; Montee, Bach, Donovan, & Thompson, 2013; Nier, Donovan, & Malone, 2013; Riestenberg, Di Silvio, Donovan, & Malone, 2010; Walters, 2010). Some international studies have investigated language instructors' need for training in assessment and evaluation and have revealed that language instructors needed language assessment training more (Hasselgreen, Carlsen, & Helness, 2004; Taylor, 2009; Vogt, Guerin, Sahinkarakas, Pavlou, Tsagari, & Afiri, 2008). Language instructors' assessment beliefs and practices have been investigated by some researchers including Rogers, Cheng and Hu (2007) and Munoz, Palacio and Escobar (2012) who have found that there was a disjuncture between language instructors' assessment beliefs and practices. The last topic studied in the international literature is the level of language instructors' language assessment literacy. Several studies (e.g., Kiomrs, Abdolmehdi, & Naser, 2011; Leaph, Channy, & Chan, 2015; Talib, Kamsah, Ghafar, Zakaria, & Naim, 2013; Xu & Brown, 2017) have revealed that language instructors had low or moderate levels of language assessment literacy.

In addition to the international studies, national studies also focus on pre-service assessment training. It has been found in some research that pre-service language assessment training in Turkey

was not very effective in pre-service language instructors' assessment practices (Hatipoğlu, 2010; Hatipoğlu & Erçetin, 2016). Like the results of several international studies, the language assessment literacy levels of Turkish instructors of English were low and moderate (Büyükkarcı, 2016; Hatipoğlu, 2015; Mede & Atay, 2017; Öz & Atay, 2017; Şahin, 2015). In addition, Köksal (2004) and Sarıçoban (2011) assessed and evaluated the exams prepared by Turkish teachers of English and found that the exams were improved in terms of different aspects of language assessment including validity and reliability from 2004 to 2011. Some other studies have searched language instructors' assessment beliefs, attitudes and practices and found out that though Turkish instructors of English had positive beliefs and attitudes toward different types of assessment, they could not use these types in assessing their students because of several factors including the number of the students (Büyükkarcı, 2014; Han & Kaya, 2014; Öz, 2014).

To sum up, the literature review has indicated that none of these studies has investigated the development of language assessments depending on instructional purposes. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to search this uninvestigated area by studying with Turkish instructors of English.

1.2. Research questions

The study has tried to answer the following research question.

1. How do Turkish instructors of English develop appropriate language assessments according to their instructional purposes?
   a. What strategies do Turkish instructors of English use in developing their assessments?

2. Method

2.1. Research design

Qualitative inquiry provides insights about the phenomenon under investigation by helping to understand the underlying opinions, results and motivations related to the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Dörnyei, 2011). Consequently, the present study adopted qualitative research design.

2.2. Participants

Eight Turkish instructors of English working at a Turkish foundation university were chosen through purposeful sampling because purposeful sampling enabled the researchers to make their sampling line up with the purposes of the study (Creswell, 2007; Dörnyei, 2011). To choose the participants, the researchers developed seven criteria based on the standards of educational assessment proposed by AFT and its partner organizations in 1990.

Table 1. Demographic information about the participants

Participant	Gender	Age	Experience	BA	Weekly Teaching Hours	Number of Students
Instructor 1	Female	28	5	EL*	21	More than 200 students
Instructor 2	Female	35	10	ACL*	21	More than 300 students

Instructor 3	Male	30	7	ELL*	27	More than 200 students
Instructor 4	Male	28	7	ELT*	21	More than 200
Instructor 5	Male	28	5	ELT	24	More than 200 students
Instructor 6	Male	35	7	ELT	15	More than 200 students
Instructor 7	Male	30	9	ELT	21	More than 250
Instructor 8	Male	30	9	ELL	24	More than 300 students

Note: * EL: English linguistics, ACL: American culture and literature, ELL: English language and linguistics and ELT: English language teaching.

As Table 1 shows, six male and two female participants took part in the research. The participants graduated from different departments (e.g., ACL, EL, ELT and ELL). They were between 28 and 35 years old and had between five- and ten-year teaching experience. They taught English to more than 200 students between 15 and 27 hours every week.

2.3. Instrument

Think-aloud protocol helps a researcher to understand and describe what his participants focus on and how they structure what they focus during a task (Fonteyn, Kuipers, & Grobe, 1993). Therefore, the researchers in the study used think-aloud protocols with each participant to describe the cognitive processes the participants used in developing their exams. The researchers also used concurrent think-aloud protocols for having the direct verbalization of the cognitive processes and retrospective think-aloud protocols as a follow-up to have a broader picture of the cognitive processes (Fonteyn et al., 1993).

2.4. Trustworthiness

Triangulation, thick description, peer scrutiny and member checks were used to make the study trustworthy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). First, concurrent think-aloud protocols were triangulated with retrospective think-aloud protocols. Second, the findings were thickly described. The researchers prepared the transcriptions of think-aloud protocols, developed codes and content-analyzed think-aloud protocols together. Finally, each participant checked the transcriptions and analyses of their own think-aloud protocols.

2.5. Data collection procedures

The researchers took a legal permission from the foundation university before collecting the data. Then, they informed each participant about the aim of think-aloud protocols and got the consent of each participant. A sample think-aloud protocol was made with each participant to familiarize them with think-aloud protocol procedure. Then, eight think-aloud protocols were made with each participant when all participants prepared their midterm exams. Think-aloud protocols lasted between 35 and 120 minutes. After the concurrent think-aloud protocols, retrospective think-aloud protocols were made with the participants. Think-aloud protocols were audio-recorded.

2.6. Data analysis

A recursive framework was used to content-analyze think-aloud protocols: coding, theming, organizing and interpreting (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). The data were categorized into meaningful units and conceptualized through the codes given to each meaningful unit to explain the relationships. The data were read many times to code and the codes in Table 2 were used for naming them.

Table 2. Codes to analyze the think-aloud protocols

1. Starting to prepare the exams
2. Choosing reading passages, listening audio and/or words to prepare the questions
3. Deciding what to ask in the exams
4. Preparing the exam questions
5. Self-assessing the written questions
6. Evaluating the available questions to use in the new exams
7. Finishing the preparation of the exams

After the code list, the themes which covered the codes in the list were found by sorting out the similarities and differences among the codes, so the researchers could categorize the codes by placing the similar ones into a theme and explain the relationships. Consequently, the data were organized and described with the excerpts taken from think-aloud protocols. The researchers presented the data by relating them to each other without adding their comments or interpretations to the analysis. The data were interpreted without conflicting with the description of the data in the end. Then, explanations were made to make the data meaningful, to draw logical conclusions from the findings, to reveal cause and effect relationship and to show the significance of the findings.

3. Results

To understand the results, it is important to know which questions each participant prepared as listed below.

a.   Instructors 2, 4 and 6 prepared reading, vocabulary and listening questions in their midterm. Instructor 8 prepared vocabulary, listening and open-ended questions for his midterm.

b.   While Instructor 3 prepared listening and reading questions, his partner, Instructor 7 prepared vocabulary and grammar questions for their midterm.

c.   Instructor 5 was in charge of preparing vocabulary and listening questions in his midterm.

d.   Instructor 1 was responsible for preparing listening, grammar, pronunciation, reading and vocabulary questions in her midterm.

3.1. Starting to prepare the exams

Instructors 1, 3, 5 and 7 first checked what was taught in the class. Instructors 2, 4, 6 and 8 checked what was studied in the class. In addition, Instructor 8 thought about how to start his exam, Instructor 2 brainstormed about the structure of her exam and Instructors 4 and 6 decided how to prepare the exams. All participants concentrated on how to begin writing exam questions as a first or second step. Instructors 6 and 8 began with vocabulary, and Instructor 4 started with reading, Instructors 2, 3 and 5 started with listening and Instructors 1 and 7 started with grammar.

All participants had to choose a starting point. It could be reading, grammar, listening, or vocabulary. Therefore, they needed to choose listening audio, a reading passage and/or words to

prepare questions. They followed different ways to find out exam listening audio and/or reading passages. Instructor 4 used the CD of the course book and Instructor 1 used the test book and its CD of the course book. Instructors 3 and 8 benefitted from the Internet and Youtube respectively. Instructor 6 used his previous exam's reading passage and listening audio while Instructor 2 used the Internet and one of her colleagues in finding reading passages and/or listening audio for the midterm exams.

3.2. Choosing reading passages, listening audio and/or words to prepare the questions

Instructor 4 considered the similarity of the topics between the classroom reading passages and an exam reading passage, the level of the exam reading passage, and the words used in the exam reading passage in selecting a reading passage for the midterm exam as the excerpt below shows:

> Instructor 4: I found a passage called neuro-marketing. Check whether its content was related to the students' department by reading fast. These topics and words are the topics and words that we always talk about in our classes. It is related to the students' department. The words are similar to the ones that we have studied in our classes, but the language used is more difficult than the one used in the reading passages that we have studied. Maybe, I can simplify the sentences, so I can use it in the exam.

Similarly, these issues were significant for Instructors 1, 2, 3 and 6. Whether the reading passages gave a lot of opportunities to prepare questions was also important for them. Instructors 2, 3 and 6 paid attention to the length of the reading passage and the time necessary for their students to read it and answer its questions.

In selecting listening audio, Instructors 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 8 took into account the students' levels of English and the similarity between the chosen audio and the classroom listening audio in terms of topic. These participants also took into account that the audio was understandable by the students and that it had a clear and audible recording. Instructors 2, 3 and 6 took into consideration length of the audio. Instructors 2, 4 and 8 controlled whether the audio included the words that they taught in the class. Besides, being able to prepare questions from the audio was significant for Instructor 4 in selecting the midterm audio. Instructor 5 wrote his own listening script, while the other participants preferred to select the exam audio from the websites or CDs. Instructor 5 selected two of the topics studied in the listening parts of his classes and believed he could integrate with each other easily to write his own script. He also followed the points which the other participants did in selecting the midterm audio from the CDs and websites. In addition, he sometimes had difficulties in preparing a question from the script, so he had to make changes in the script and enhanced his script.

Instructors 5, 7 and 8 chose the words they emphasized a lot in the class in selecting words to prepare vocabulary questions. In addition, these participants made personal judgments about the words in terms of whether the words were easy or difficult and whether they liked the words. Instructors 5 and 8 randomly chose the words from the course book exercises. Instructor 8 also selected the words which he found tricky.

3.3. Deciding what to ask in the exams

Instructors 2, 3, 4, 5 and 8 had to decide what to ask from listening audio and/or a reading passage in the midterm exam. These participants first listened and/or read. During reading and/or listening, they considered a piece of information significant, so they prepared a question for that piece of information. They sought to find a piece of information with which they could assess a certain listening and/or reading skill. They also tried to find a piece of information for which they thought they could prepare a question. The excerpt below clearly reveals this finding:

Instructor 3: I am going on writing the second question. Now, there are pieces of general information about the life of Jason Stone, the place he died and how old he was in the part that I have listened. The ones which have caught my attention most among these pieces of information in the part I have listened are the place where he died, how old he was when he died and his constant business trips. They have caught my attention a lot. I have to empathize my students when I listen to something. When I listen, I have to determine which part my students can understand better and where the speaker emphasizes a piece of information. Therefore, my second question will be about where he died. My second question is "Where did he die?". It is in his London home. When I look at the previous answer, it is the option b, so I am thinking of writing the correct answer in the option b. When I say London home here, where could he die? Which place comes to my mind? It might be a place in the house. It might be the working room or office. I should mention them especially because I have asked my first question related to his job. I can use something related to his job as a distractor. Therefore, I will write in his office in the option a. I wrote the correct answer in the option b. I will write in his study which is completely unrelated in the option c. My aim is to check whether my students can listen for finding specific information to answer the question.

In addition, Instructor 8 determined what to ask by taking into account his students' attitudes toward the parts of his lessons. His students did not pay enough attention to the questions in the get ready parts of his course book, so he decided to ask such questions in his midterm exam.

3.4. Preparing the questions

The participants preferred to use one or two of the following ways: writing original questions and using the available ones. The participants' choices were explained below.

a. <u>Instructor 1:</u> She selected midterm exam questions from the test book of the course book by only adding the fourth options to the questions.

b. <u>Instructor 2:</u> She used the available listening questions on the website and also wrote her own listening questions. She evaluated the reading questions prepared by her colleague and used them with some changes. She used the vocabulary questions of her previous midterm exam.

c. <u>Instructor 3:</u> He wrote his own listening and reading questions.

d. <u>Instructor 4:</u> He prepared his own reading and listening questions. He used the vocabulary part of his previous midterm exam.

e. <u>Instructor 5:</u> He wrote his own listening questions. He wrote some of his vocabulary on his own, developed some of them based on the course book exercises and used some of the course book exercises as the exam questions without changing.

f. <u>Instructor 6:</u> He used his previous midterm exam without making any change.

g. <u>Instructor 7:</u> He wrote most grammar and vocabulary questions on his own and used a dictionary and grammar book to write the other questions.

h. <u>Instructor 8:</u> He prepared vocabulary and open-ended questions by using the exercises in his course book without changing or with some changes. He also wrote some of his vocabulary questions and listening questions by himself.

All participants continuously brainstormed and outlined during writing original questions. They determined the number, types, content and timing of the questions as well as the weights of different

skills or sections in the exams in their brainstorming and outlining. The quotation below clearly exemplifies these procedures:

> Instructor 5: How many questions can I ask from this dialogue? I will check how many questions I can ask from this. Actually, there is not a limitation on the number of the questions. There may be three questions or five questions. However, I will try to ask as many questions as possible from the dialogue. OK! This is the topic. There is a product. It is a defect one and causes a problem. What type of questions can I use here? I may use multiple-choice and true-false questions. Let's start with two true-false questions.

Instructors 3 and 4 also brainstormed and outlined the number of the options for listening and reading questions. Both participants preferred using three options with listening questions and four options with reading questions because they knew that their students were not good at listening and did not have good scores, so they wanted to make the listening questions easier than the reading questions.

Instructors 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 wrote all, most, or some of their exam questions by themselves. First, they talked to themselves about what to ask. Second, they brainstormed about the content of the exams in their private speech. Then they code-switched in writing the stem, the options, or both. The following excerpts clearly indicate these procedures:

> Instructor 4: Our first question is generally what the passage is about. What is the passage mostly about? The passage generally mentions neuro-marketing. It is finding out the clients' brand choices by obtaining their reactions in their brain when they see brands related to a type of product through placing electrodes on their heads. I am writing about this. Its correct answer is, a, a new method to learn consumer choices. Generally, a new way or method of learning consumers' choices.

> Instructor 7: The second one is to encourage. What can I write for it? I mentioned the structure 'encourage someone to do something' and made them [his students] write their own sentences. Therefore, I should definitely ask it. Let's do it like this. Their departments are related to teaching. Therefore, I should write a sentence related to being an effective Instructor. An effective Instructor should --- their students to participate to… Is participate used with to or in? Participate to or participate in? Yes, an effective Instructor… They can learn a feature of an effective Instructor. An effective Instructor encourages his students to participate in classroom activities actively. This is a good one.

Instructors 2, 3, 4, 7 and 8 often referred back to what they had taught in the class in writing their own questions. These participants including Instructor 5 used the types of the questions (like matching, fill-in-the-blank, true-false and multiple-choice) which were similar to their classroom activities and which their students were familiar with. They paid attention to whether the students could understand and answer the questions in writing their own questions. Similarly, Instructor 2 considered her students' comments about her previous exams, so she sought not to prepare her questions in the way that her students had complained about. Instructor 8 took into account his students' motivation in developing his questions. Like Instructor 2, Instructor 5 tried not to ask any question about which his students might complain after the exam. In spite of this, these participants also rendered their exams challenging enough to check who studied and did not study. Instructors 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 related the content of the questions to the topics taught in the class. Instructor 7 also related his questions to the students' future professions and daily lives.

Instructor 5 concentrated on the lengths of the options when he prepared them. Instructors 3 and 5 believed that there would be two options very close to each other in terms of the correct answer, one

option not related to the correct answer and the last option that was not related to the correct answer, but close to it.

Instructors 2, 3, 4, 5 and 8 ordered listening and reading questions according to the order of the events in the audio and/or reading passage. Instructors 3 and 4 preferred to paraphrase the reading questions' options. Instructors 5, 7 and 8 randomly ordered vocabulary questions. In writing vocabulary questions, Instructors 5 and 7 used the same parts of speech in the vocabulary questions' options.

Instructors 5, 7 and 8 wrote their own vocabulary questions. They wrote their own sentences in some vocabulary questions and used other ways in other vocabulary questions. Instructor 7 used a dictionary to write the definitions of the matching questions and multiple-choice fill-in-the-blanks questions. Instructor 5 benefitted from his classroom examples and the examples in the course book in writing the stems of the multiple-choice vocabulary questions. Instructors 5 and 8 used the words and their definitions from the matching exercises in the course books as their midterm matching questions without changing. In addition, Instructor 8 also chose and used some other vocabulary exercises in the course book as his midterm vocabulary questions either without or with changing. He also converted the definition of a word in a matching exercise of the course book into a fill-in-the-blank question in the midterm exam.

3.5. Self-assessing the written questions

Instructors 2, 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8 self-assessed the questions after preparing one of or all of the questions. In self-assessing the questions, these participants checked whether the stems could be understood by the students, whether the wording and the use of grammar were correct in the stems and the options, whether the questions could assess what they wanted them to assess and whether the answers of the questions were prepared correctly. These procedures are clearly understood from the excerpt below:

> Instructor 5: For example, I can ask it. It can be similar to the example that I gave in the class. For instance, a famous singer may sue against a newspaper. Why? Because of law… For example, I can say "Every day we read in the newspapers that one of the celebrities, celebrities, every day we read in the newspapers that one of the celebrities sue against, one of the celebrities sues against a." We read in the newspaper that he/she sued against a newspaper. This sounds a little weird. Or we can say we hear. Every day we hear that. We hear that one of the celebrities sues against a newspaper or magazine, a magazine or newspaper, because of … What is the correct answer? What should I say in the option a? Or where should I write the correct answer? We have four options: a, b, c and d. For example, I should write the correct answer in the option b. Deformation, blackening someone. He/she sued because of deformation. The answer is deformation. We chose and asked a noun. We should use nouns in the other options. For example, we use intent meaning willingness. What else can I use? What else can I use? Let's look at the other units. We can use notion. I used notion because it is a noun. Another noun? I can use movement. Let's check other options whether they can also be answers. Movement… Because of the person who wanted, he/she sued. He/she sued because of deformation. The right answer is b. It cannot be the answer that he/she sued because of intention and notion.

3.6. Evaluating the available questions to use in the new exams

Instructors 2, 4 and 6 decided to use the vocabulary questions of the previous midterm exams in the new midterm exams. First, they checked whether they used the same syllabi and course books in the

previous term. Second, they matched the units for which the old vocabulary questions were prepared with the units for which they would prepare new vocabulary questions. They considered whether they had experienced any problem with the questions in the previous midterm exam, which was also effective in their decisions. As the vocabulary questions in the previous midterm exams met these criteria, these participants decided to use the previous questions.

Like Instructors 2, 4 and 6, Instructor 2 also decided to use the reading questions which one of her colleagues had given to her and the available listening questions on the Internet. She checked whether her students could understand and answer those questions. Once she understood that the questions were understandable and answerable for the students, she decided to use them in the midterm exam.

Similarly, Instructor 6 decided to use the listening and reading questions of his previous midterm exam. He self-assessed the listening audio and reading passage in terms of the criteria mentioned in the paragraph where how exam listening audio and reading passages were chosen to prepare listening and reading questions was explained. Then, he checked the similarity between the listening and reading questions and classroom activities as well as the understandability and answerability of the previous exam questions for his students. Once he decided that the questions were relevant to use in the new midterm exam, he used the questions without changing. He did so because of the number of the students and lack of time.

In addition to these participants, Instructor 1 selected the midterm questions from the test book of her course book because she did not believe that she was an expert on preparing questions. It was also because selecting questions among the available one was time-saving, using the test book of the course book provided content-validity and she did not experience any problem with the course book, its exercises and its answer keys before. Besides, she considered testing environment, testing program (Blackboard) and the students' levels of English. She selected the questions related to what she had taught in the class. She chose the exam listening audio and reading passage whose topics were similar to the ones used in the course book. She also added one more option to the questions to make them more challenging.

3.7. Finishing the preparation of the exams

All participants self-assessed the questions again when they finished preparing the exams. The participants who prepared reading and/or listening questions also assessed the chosen exam reading passages and/or listening audio. These participants considered the duration, recording, topic and understandability of the listening audio when self-assessing the audio. The quotation below exemplifies how the chosen exam listening audio and the questions prepared in the midterm exams were self-assessed:

> Instructor 5: The things that we pay attention to in preparing listening questions is finding a related listening audio. It is suitable for their [his students] levels, easy for them to understand, related to classroom topics and includes a lot of words related to the classroom topics. Besides, the questions I prepared from the listening audio are the question types that my students have practiced in my classes and in the course book and that they are familiar with.

The participants considered whether the chosen exam reading passages included the words taught in the class, whether the passages were understandable for the students and whether the passages were similar to the classroom reading passages in terms of length and topic. Besides, Instructor 3 assessed his instructions and the question words used in the questions to be sure that the students could understand the questions. Instructor 2 and 8 also self-assessed the variety of the questions in the exams.

In addition, some participants prepared the answer keys while writing the questions, whereas the others prepared the answer keys after preparing the questions. All participants checked the number of the questions prepared for each skill and wanted to ensure that the numbers reflected the weights given to the different skills in the class. They also scored the questions in the end. Instructors 1, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 scored the exams depending on the number of the questions in the exams. Instructor 2 gave scores to the questions according to the weights of English for academic purposes and English for specific purposes in her three-hour academic English course. Instructor 8 scored his questions based on their difficulty levels.

4. Discussion

The results of the study have first indicated that the participants are very dependent on the course books when they prepare their exams. That is, the course books are very influential in deciding how to choose reading passage and listening audio for the midterm exam, what types of questions should be used and how to develop questions and their content and how to evaluate and choose questions among the available ones. This result has revealed that the Turkish instructors of English in the study considered content validity in preparing exam questions. The finding conflicts with the findings of Köksal (2004) and Sarıçoban (2011) which revealed that the exams prepared by the Turkish teachers of English had content validity problem. In addition to this problem, these researchers also found that those exams were problematic in terms of construct validity. However, the Turkish instructors of English in this study built the construct of their midterm exams based on their course books. The questions the instructors prepared really assessed the determined construct, which means the Turkish instructors of English in the study improved their exams in terms of construct validity. This finding may result from the fact that the instructors in this study were course-book centered.

The results of the study have secondly demonstrated that the Turkish instructors of English considered their students most in developing their exams. For instance, the instructors referred back to what they had taught in the class in writing and choosing exam questions and paid attention to the students' comments and levels of English in choosing exam reading passage and listening audio and writing options. This finding must be closely related to the instructors' beliefs about language teaching because it is known that student-centered teachers consider students most in teaching and assessment. As Davison (2004) and Scarino (2013) stated, teachers' beliefs influence their assessment practices. Similarly, the result of the study has pointed out that some Turkish instructors of English decided the number of the options in listening and reading questions depending on their beliefs.

The third important result is that the Turkish instructors of English in this study paid attention to the washback effects of their midterm exams. As aforementioned, the instructors were course book-centered, so they made the midterm exams content valid, aligned the midterm exams with their goals and objectives and reflected the classroom activities with the exams to create positive washback effects on the students. These ways are also suggested in the literature by Brown (2004) and Rogier (2014). It also seems that the instructors' being student-centered in language teaching contributed to creating positive washback effects because being student-centered requires doing every instructional and assessable activities for the sake of students.

The fourth and most important result of this study is that the Turkish instructors of English in this study adopted a critical attitude toward each phase of developing their midterm exams. To exemplify, the instructors developed several certain criteria to choose reading passage and listening audio for the midterm exams, to evaluate and select questions among the available ones and to self-assess their questions. The instructors also used a few critical thinking strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining

and private speech) in writing their questions. This finding corroborates several researchers (e.g., Inbar-Lourie, 2008b; La, 2015; Malone; 2008; O'Loughlin, 2013) who mentioned that language assessment literacy requires being critical in every assessment-related activity. According to the results of the study, self-assessment was the most frequently used strategy in developing exams, which most probably contributed to the instructors' being critical because self-assessment helps to identify strengths and weaknesses and overcome weaknesses through finding solutions on one's own (Takkaç Tulgar, 2017).

5. Conclusions

The literature review has indicated that there is not any study focusing on how language teachers develop appropriate language assessments according to their instructional purposes. Understanding this procedure is necessary for understanding the implementation of language assessment literacy. In accordance with this finding, the present study indicates that developing language assessments has a critical, student- and course book-centered structure. Development language assessments is critical because it requires using brainstorming, outlining, private speech and self-assessment in the pre-, while and post-exam preparation processes. It is student-centered since students are considered most in every assessment-related activity. It is course book-centered because course books are the key determiner of selecting reading passage and listening audio for the exams, the types of the questions to prepare, self-assessing questions and evaluating available questions to use in the exams. This critical, student- and course book-centered structure can enable teachers of English to make their exams valid and have positive washback effects on the students.

The study is first limited because it has a small sampling size as a result of its qualitative nature and has been conducted in a foundation university setting. The second limitation is that the study has investigated how formal, summative and selected-response exams have been prepared. Consequently, it is recommended for further studies that similar studies should be made in other settings (e.g., private and public primary, middle and high school as well as public university) to understand how Turkish teachers/instructors of English working in these settings develop appropriate language assessments depending on their instructional goals. Secondly, the study also suggests further studies research how other assessment methods (e.g., constructed response, performance assessment and personal communication) are developed by Turkish teachers/instructors of English for formal, informal, summative and/or formative assessment purposes.

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Yabancı dilde ölçme değerlendirme okuryazarlığını anlamak: Dil değerlendirmeleri geliştirmek

Öz

Yabancı dilde ölçme değerlendirme okuryazarlığı bir dil öğretmeninin sahip olması gereken önemli bir yeterlik olmuştur. Bunun sonucunda yabancı dilde ölçme değerlendirme okuryazarlığının farklı boyutlarını (yabancı dilde ölçme değerlendirme eğitimi, profesyonel gelişim ve dil öğretmenlerinin ölçme değerlendirme okuryazarlık seviyesi gibi) araştıran çok fazla çalışma alınyazında bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, bu çalışmalar dil öğretmenlerinin eğitimsel amaçlara uygun dil değerlendirmesini nasıl geliştirdiklerini araştırmamıştır. Bu yüzden bu çalışma, dil değerlendirmelerinin dil öğretmenleri tarafından nasıl geliştirildiklerini göstermeyi amaçlamıştır. Çalışma, nitel bir araştırma olarak tasarlanmış ve bir vakıf üniversitesinde çalışan sekiz Türk İngilizce okutmanıyla yürütülmüştür. Sesli düşünme protokolleri very toplamak için kullanılmış ve kullanılar veriler içerik analizi kullanarak analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları; dil değerlendirmeleri geliştirmenin, eleştirel, öğrenci ve ders kitabı merkezli bir yapıya sahip olduğunu göstermiştir ki bu yapı, sınavları içerik ve yapı açısından geçerli kılmaya ve sınavların öğrenciler üzerinde olumlu etkilere sahip olmasına yardımcı olmaktadır. Çalışmanın sınırlılıkları açıklanmış ve sonraki çalışmalar için çeşitli önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Yabancı dilde ölçme değerlendirme okuryazarlığı; dil değerlendirmesi geliştirmek

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Language difficulties that international postgraduate students experience during their education with the medium of Turkish language

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Abstract

Language of instruction is a crucial aspect of teaching and learning process in every educational context. The language competence in fact can affect the degree of success of the students and their academic performance throughout their education; especially in postgraduate education level in a foreign language. In this case, it will be very difficult for the international students to pursue their education in an entirely different context with a language they learn for the first time. There is a sizeable amount of existing research carried out on the language difficulties of the international postgraduate students with the medium of instruction (mostly in English). The findings show that inadequacy in language utilization puts a profound negative impact on students' learning and understanding the intended content knowledge. Thus, the current study was conducted to explore the language difficulties that the international postgraduate students experience during their education at Turkish universities with the medium of Turkish, their applied strategies, the given supports, their suggestive solutions and expectations to reduce their current problems. The data was collected through a one-to-one semi-structured interview with 15 international postgraduate students from different countries pursuing their education in different faculties at Mersin University. The results of the study revealed that the main problem of these students was writing followed by speaking, listening and reading respectively. However, the problems related to the language skills were linked to other underlying factors such as poor vocabulary, fast speech rate of the instructors, structural aspects of the Turkish language and some others.

Keywords: international postgraduate students; Turkish as the medium of instruction; language difficulties

1. Introduction

Learning a new foreign language is kind of fun and adventurous. Through the language learning process, individuals learn about the unique social, cultural and historical values of a country. It is a tool through which human beings form their thoughts, construct meaning and share their ideas with the others (Jordan et al, 2008). More importantly, language plays a significant role in all forms of education; be it formal or informal (ibid).

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Leaning a language is natural to every human being, though it has a complex system (Hazen, 2015). The complexity of a language is sensed more when the individuals start pursuing their education in a language they have just learnt. Soon they will perceive that there is a big difference between its utilization in daily life and the one used in the academic sphere; particularly in postgraduate education which requires deep analytic academic language. In this case, heading to the postgraduate education with a newly-learnt foreign language could be a big challenge for the students. The heavy loads of course literature, assignments and doing researches in the process plus language difficulties might become an inevitable obstacle at start.

In addition, language difficulties hinder the international students' participation in the classroom discussions and to be seen as if they were incapable of performing academic tasks (Sibomana, 2016). This is the main reason that they focus on the language rather than the content (ibid). These problems could continue throughout their education and affect their learning outcomes in a negative way. Besides, they could possibly experience failure in the exams which will result in boredom, distress, unnecessary prolongation of their education period and even dropout. As a foreigner student doing PhD in educational science with the medium of instruction in Turkish language, the first researcher in the current study has experienced certain problems both with written and spoken academic Turkish language which put him in a stressful position.

Majority of the international postgraduate students seem to be suffering similar problems with the academic Turkish language, emerged at the beginning of their education. Therefore, this study is amid to explore the problems and the challenges the international students face at the initial stage of their new academic life with the medium of Turkish. It is also aimed to explore the strategies they follow to deal with language difficulties, their suggestive solutions to ease their current problems and their expectations from their instructors in their departments.

1.1. Literature review

International students often experience many challenges in their academic life. Adjusting with the new context of education in a quite unfamiliar academic sphere is problematic oftentimes, especially for the postgraduate students (Lin & Scherz, 2014). Aside from experiencing cultural shock, feeling of social alienation and financial problems, language is also a matter of concern which puts international students in a stressful position (Sharkin, 2006; Güçlü, 1996). Moreover, educational challenges and language difficulties are seen natural alongside the other problems mentioned (Kırkoğlu et al. 2010).

Language as a tool, mediates the communication of knowledge, culture and social norms (Gök, 2008). It is in fact an inevitable part of social and educational life (ibid). Therefore, alongside learning everyday spoken language, students are required to acquire the academic language for understanding the intended content knowledge in their field (Sibomana, 2016). It is believed that the "academic language is no one's mother tongue" even if one is born as the speaker of that language (ibid, p. 125). Seriously, it is much more difficult for the international students to learn a foreign language for the first time and pursue postgraduate education right after.

The kind of problems that the international students face is different both in terms of cultural challenges and language difficulties compared to their native counterparts (Lin & Scherz, 2014). They come with diverse social, cultural, lingual, and educational backgrounds with different looks to the world (ibid).

A bulk of research exists regarding the linguistic challenges faced by the international students with the medium of instruction, particularly English. However, it appears that little research has been conducted with international students who are studying in Turkey with the medium of Turkish. Most

of the existing studies focus on the challenges that non-native speakers of English who are studying in English speaking countries or the countries using English as the language of instruction.

In general, the findings of some of the studies indicate that, the main sources of language challenges that international students face include understanding and using complex technical vocabulary (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Hennebry et al, 2012; Gürel Cennetkuşu, 2017), understanding their professors during lectures (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Hennebry et al, 2012; Lin & Scherz,2014) "understanding their professors' academic requirements, and processing and producing key disciplinary genres" (Evans & Morrison, 2011, p. 387). Moreover, "interference from their first language, use of expressions and collocations, understanding the pronunciation of the native speakers and speech rate" (Hennebry et al, 2012, p. 217), understanding the colloquial language, doing presentations in the class, and the limited vocabulary were among the other challenges that the postgraduate students faced (Güçlü, 1996). The findings of the previous researches in this field are discussed in details as following:

Kaldırım and Degeç (2017) conducted a qualitative study about the challenges that the foreigner undergraduate students face in listening skills in Turkish language. They found that most of the problems that students faced in listening were because of not understanding the different local Turkish dialects, fast speech rate of the native speakers, the new vocabulary which do not have daily use, the expressions and proverbs (ibid).

Another qualitative study by Şengül (2014) shows that the foreigner students in Turkey have problems in articulating and using some letters or sounds in Turkish language like "a, e, ı, i, o, ö, u, ü, c, ç, ğ, l, ş, y" (p, 325). Moreover, it was found that the students could not differentiate between some letters like 'a' and 'e', 'e' and 'i', 'ö' and 'ü' as well as some other letters or sounds. However, the degree of the challenges they faced varied according to the languages they already knew (ibid).

In another study with undergraduate and graduate students in Sakarya University, Besel and Savaşan (2017) found that %64.9 of the students did not find it difficult to communicate with Turks because of their language problems. However, the majority of them had a feeling of fear and hesitation in speaking because their Turk friends made fun of them because of the way they spoke Turkish. %36.5 of them had difficulty in understanding the lessons, while %44 did not have such difficulty and also around %52 of the students had no problem in communication with their instructors or understanding them during the lectures. Moreover, about %69 of the students reported that their Turk friends were supportive and understanding towards them and %48 of them had good relationships with the academic staffs (ibid).

Furthermore, Gürbüz and Güleç (2016) report the result of a qualitative study with 13 undergraduate and postgraduate students as regards the challenges that they faced during their education in Turkish language. They found that the grammatical structures, technical words, and pronunciation of some sounds were difficult aspects of the Turkish language stated by the students. In grammar, the usage of the suffixes was found problematic. Besides, the students (10 of them) stated that they did not have a feeling of hesitation or anxiety when speaking in Turkish, while the rest two reported the opposite. Moreover, to improve their language skills they used mass media resources, watching Turkish series and listening to the Turkish music. Some also read Turkish books like novels and stories, read newspapers and magazines or practice by speaking to improve their Turkish (ibid).

The result of a longitudinal study with first year Hong Kong University international undergraduate students shows that academic reading and writing are the most difficult academic linguistic skills; writing being the first (Evans & Morrison, 2011). Contrarily, listening was found to be the least challenging skill, while in speaking the students still did not feel themselves confident in terms of their English fluency and accuracy (ibid). Moreover, Lin & Scherz (2014) found that listening and speaking

were difficult for the graduate students. They felt kind of anxious or stupid to express themselves in the presence of the others due to the inadequacy of their speaking skills. Further, they had to spend a lot of time on reading and writing. They had to take a slower pace in reading to understand the content knowledge (ibid).

However, in another study according to the Rwandan postgraduate students at a South African university with the medium of English, reading and writing skills were thought to be easier compared to listening and speaking (Sobomana, 2016). Likewise, Gürel Cennetkuşu (2017) found that the majority of the international graduate students considered their writing skill in a satisfactory level, which was also confirmed by most of their instructors.

Sobomana's (2016) research reveals that even using the daily English was found difficult for the students. Then, how come they could possibly manage to deal with the academic English. Students often struggled with the language first before being able to understand the content knowledge. A participant of the study indicated that "his level of academic performance would be higher if he were using a language that he could understand better" (ibid, p. 129).

Hennebry et al (2012) report similar findings about the postgraduate students' language difficulties in UK. They report that the international students (52.9% of them) think they are "at a disadvantage on coming to study at a UK university" (p. 217). Some of them had problem with simultaneous thinking and speaking during seminars and lectures as was also reflected by the academic staff. It means that they needed some wait-time to prepare what they wanted to say in their mind first. Some also indicated that they had problems in reading and writing. Moreover, the problems were not only about the language. Most of the discussions topics were from the British context which did not have any relevance to the international students. In one sense those students were ignored (Hennebry et al, 2012).

1.1.1. Strategies Adapted to Overcome Linguistic Challenges

Some of the common strategies followed to overcome the language challenges are referring to the dictionaries (Sibomana, 2016; Gürel Cennetkuşu (2017), interacting with native speakers, "recording lessons and listening to recording later at home" (Sibomana, 2016, p. 127; Lin & Scherz, 2014). Besides, reading course literature in English and then translating the concepts from English to their former language of instruction, asking friends to edit their work, producing the written assignments first in their native language and then translating them in English… are amongst the other strategies used by students (Sibomana, 2016). Some other students referred to other sources to improve their language skills such as listening to radio programs, practicing, reading newspapers or magazines, taking lessons in the target language (Güçlü, 1996), "watching TV, self-talk in English, and spending time in the cafeteria talking with native speakers" (Lin & Scherz, 2014, p. 25).

Sibomana's (2016) study shows that besides referring to the dictionaries Rwandan postgraduate students used 'machine translation' to convert English texts into French to understand the content. According to one of their lecturers, the students were also influenced by their French background mostly as evidenced in their written works (ibid). According to Gürel Cennetkuşu's study (2017), some of the strategies recommended by the instructors to the students were extensive reading, "using spell-checks and manuals to edit mechanical mistakes…relying on the past experience in academic writing" (p. 318).

Similarly, Hennebry et al (2012) also found that postgraduate students would appreciate their native friends to do grammar check in their written works and review the correct use of the vocabulary. Another study by Gürel Cennetkuşu (2017) indicates that most of the international graduate students (81.82%) refer to their mother tongues in order to solve their writing problems. When they cannot find a specific word while writing, first they find it in their first language and then

in the target language. Besides, in academic writing they had to think in their mother tongue first and then write in the second language. 41.67% said the format of the existing articles help them a lot about how to write papers (ibid).

1.1.2. Support Provided by the Department or the Instructors:

Supports provided by the instructors or the department might help students to reduce tension as regards the language difficulties. Hennebry et al (2012) report that one of the lecturers used to have the presentation slides accessible to the students over the internet to read them before coming to the class. This way they could familiarize themselves with the technical words and expressions before attending the lectures. Moreover, the university and the department provided language support to the international postgraduate students; especially with academic style of writing. Besides, all the instructors reviewed the students' writings and did some language corrections (ibid). This finding was also supported by Gürel Cennetkuşu (2017). She reports that the instructors provided some short written or oral feedback to the students, which was not found enough. However, around half of the students (49.12%) found the given feedback useful, although they were too brief (ibid).

Furthermore, Sibomana (2016) reports that the postgraduate students received additional English course funded by the university, but it was found ineffective for methodological reasons and shortness of the program. When it comes to the instructors, some of them were approachable and supportive. They helped the student with the extension of the deadline of the assignments, encouraged and provided solutions to their problems as well as provided extra after-class elaboration about the content. However, some of the instructors were found to look down on Rwandan students and made fun of them in public saying they are not made for doing postgraduate education. Some of the students even received discouraging comments from their advisors. Only seven out of 22 of the participants of this study were able to graduate by the end, while the others did not make it (ibid).

A similar finding was also found by Güçlü (1996) in a study with 500 international graduate students from 90 different countries studying in an American university. She found that the American university lecturers were less supportive to the foreigner students. Moreover, despite the existence of university consultation centers for the students and the other foundations established to help international students, students were not provided any kind of support (ibid).

1.2. Importance of this study

Since Turkey is attracting large number of students from different countries, the quality of their education also needs to be focused. The quality of education might be compromised in case the students cannot use the language of instruction effectively. As discussed above, plenty of research exists regarding the language difficulties that the international students face in different levels of education. Most of the existing researches only focus on English as the medium of instruction. However, it seems that fewer researches have been done regarding the problems faced in education with Turkish language; particularly in postgraduate levels. Therefore, the current study was planned and conducted in order to have shed light on underlying factors causing such problems and how students with different language backgrounds are struggling to cope with their language difficulties.

1.3. Research questions

The following research questions were devised to serve the purpose of this research:

1) What challenges do the international postgraduate students face during their education in terms of language difficulties with the medium of Turkish?
2) What strategies do they use to overcome the challenges?
3) How do the current problems affect their learning in terms of content knowledge?

4)   What are the possible solutions for the challenges related to language difficulty? What will be their expectations or suggestions?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

A qualitative research approach was carried out using a semi-structured interview in this study for the deeper exploration of the language difficulties that the international postgraduate students face at Mersin University with the medium of Turkish. This method was opted for it enables the researchers to do detailed investigation of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). In another word, qualitative research approach facilitates "exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). This is of course made more possible through the data collection tool, semi-structured interview, which has been selected for this study. Semi-structured interview enables the researchers to collect qualitative data through asking pre-defined open questions, where they influence the interview session to keep the discussion go on topic (Given, 2008). The researcher can ask follow-up questions for more clarification and elaboration of the responses considering a "series of prompts and probes" (Cohen et al., 2007, p, 361)

2.2. Participants

The samples of this study were comprised of 15 international postgraduate students from different countries who were studying in different faculties at Mersin University, Turkey. All of them had taken around a nine month's Turkish preparatory course before starting their postgraduate education in September 2017.

To serve the purpose of the current study, the samples were selected purposefully. This sampling technique provides the researchers the opportunity of collecting data from the individuals who have an understanding of the phenomenon being investigated and can provide genuine information (Creswell, 2012).

2.3. Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection process took place in November 2017 through a one-to-one semi-structured interview conducted in three different languages: English, Persian and Turkish. Before conducting the interviews, the views of the expert researchers were sought regarding the interview questions as well as two pilot interviews were conducted to increase the reliability and validity of the study. The interviews were carried out after bringing some changes in the interview questions in the light of the feedback received from the experts and the emergence of some ambiguities during the piloting. Further, during the interview some follow-up questions were asked to elicit more details about the issues brought up by the interviewees.

To ensure the ethical rules of the study, first of all the participants were informed about the purpose of the study promising their complete anonymity and confidentiality (Creswell, 2012). Besides, their voices were recorded receiving their own consent first for the later analysis. Then, all the recordings were transcribed and translated into English. As a matter of fact, recording the minutes of the interview sessions enables the researcher to carry out the coding, summarizing and quoting process in later stages of a research with the possibility of several referral when needed (Bell, 2005).

Moreover, the transcribed interview data was reciprocally and simultaneously coded with a colleague and then the codes were cross-checked to ensure the internal consistency according to Miles

and Huberman's recommended internal code consistency (Creswell, 2009). The codes were found to be consistent by 0.95, 0.91, 0.88, and 0.88 according to each research question respectively. Then the thematic content analysis of the refined data was carried out being presented in the tables accordingly. Major themes were derived from the interview questions which were devised according to the research questions of the study.

2.4. Limitation of the Study

Since the research was concentrated only in one specific region with few numbers of participants, the results may not be generalized. Besides, the shortage of existing materials having similitude with the purpose of the current research in Turkey was sensed. However, more researches are recommended to be carried out in this field in order to obtain more reliable results.

3. Results

The qualitative interview data of the current study was transcribed, coded, categorized and summarized in tables and the analysis were done accordingly. The total number of the participants who had pointed to the challenges featured in the tables are given and selective direct quotations are made as regards the most striking points referring to the participants as S1, S2, S3... S15.

3.1. Language Difficulties of the International Postgraduate Students

The result of the study indicates that the international postgraduate students experience different challenges with different features of the Turkish language as the medium of instruction. As seen in section 'A' of Table 1, writing was found to be the major problem of the students (n=13), which is followed by speaking and listening respectively. Most of the language difficulties experienced in linguistic skills were associated with their poor vocabulary (n=11).

Table 1: Language difficulties of the international postgraduate students

Theme	Sub-Themes & Codes	Number of Participants
	A) Challenges in language skills & grammar	
	- Listening	10
	- Speaking	11
	- Reading	6
	- Writing	13
	- Grammatical Structures	6
Language Difficulties	**B) Other Challenges**	
	- Pronunciation	4
	- Vocabulary	11
	- Insufficient materials in Turkish	1
	- Speech Rate (Fast Speaking)	8
	- Retention (shyness/hesitation)	8
	- Turkish is different from other languages	3

Moreover, students related the writing difficulties to different aspects of the language. The influence of already familiar languages, complex structure of Turkish language, poor vocabulary and poor reading skills are the indicative features of their writing problems. For instance, one of the PhD

students was concerned about being affected of the structure of the languages he already knew in terms of the way he wrote in Turkish. He explained this way: "*When the teachers ask us to write articles…we have a fear of being influenced in writing by our native language structure, which is Persian, or the English language structure*" (S2). In contrast, another student related the writing difficulty to his poor vocabulary and said "*I think writing is also very difficult because my vocabulary is not rich… it's difficult for me to paraphrase the texts*" (S3). Moreover, another student said that "*If you cannot read automatically, writing will be very difficult*" (S10), while S8 stated "*I might know how to write the words, but then making a sentence with the correct grammatical expressions can be a problem*".

Speaking comes second after writing in the difficult language skill category. Most of the students (n=11), found it difficult to express themselves, though they knew what to say. Sometimes what they said was not clearly understood by the native speakers in the class. S2 stated "*…our speaking skill is not in the level that we can make the teacher understand what we are trying to say*". Another student contended that "*You know what is needed, but for you to explain yourself in a way they are going to understand you, it is a difficult challenge*" (S7). However, S12 stated: "*I find speaking more difficult because when I want to speak what goes in my mind, I cannot remember the right words to explain them*".

The poor speaking skill of the students were also linked to the retention or sort of apprehension they had because of their inadequacy in using spoken Turkish. Some of them felt shy, hesitated and feared of making mistakes in the presence of their instructors and Turk classmates. As one student argued like this: "*I'm feeling shy even to ask some questions because I'm not at the same level as Turkish people in Turkish who learn Turkish since their childhood*" (S14). Such kind of language anxiety can also hinder students' participation in the classroom discussions. S3 commented in this regard as "*I fear of making a lot of pauses and making mistakes. I just don't want to appear stupid. I try to contribute to the discussions, but I find speaking in academic context very difficult*".

Similarly, the fast speech rate of the lecturers made it difficult for the students (n=8) to understand them. According to one of the students "*if the teacher speaks too fast, I cannot get the main idea of what the teacher is trying to explain to us*" (S11). In general, students (n=10) found listening skill very difficult, which is also linked to the fast speech rate as one student commented "*at times listening you get to understand at times you don't understand, especially [when the] lecturers are speaking very fast*" (S7).

However, reading was also found to be difficult, but for a smaller number of students (n=6). Compared to the other language skills, fewer problems were felt in reading. One of the students said "*reading is very difficult and if the reading is very difficult, it means that we cannot understand*" (S10). The students' language utilization was also negatively affected to a smaller degree from structural perspective of Turkish language, like sentence structures from grammatical point of view like the use of suffixes (n=6), and the pronunciation of some special letters/sounds in this language. This structural difficulty of the Turkish language was thought to be sourced from language dissimilarities according to some students (n=3). This was well reflected in one of the students' contentions who was well-versed in both English and French:

"*Turkish language is really different than other language[s]. For example, when I have to take like French or English or Spanish, these are languages that belong to the same family which is not in the case of Turkish. Turkish is….a Middle Eastern language. So, it means that for example when you take Turkish academically or grammatically, it doesn't have the same structure. When we speak Turkish, we have to put the verb at the end, but for example when we are speaking in English I have to put my verb in the middle to respect the grammar rules*" (S14).

To sum up, the language difficulties were mostly felt in three language skills such as writing, speaking and listening respectively. However, the features in section 'B' of Table 1 were perceived to be the sources of the problems students have experienced; the poor vocabulary being on top list.

3.2. Strategies Used Against the Language Difficulties

The common strategies followed, or better to say the sources that international postgraduate students refer to decrease their linguistic challenges during their postgraduate education in different fields with the medium of Turkish, are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Strategies that the international postgraduate students follow to overcome their language challenges

Theme	Sub-Themes & Codes	Number of Participants
	Strategies followed to overcome the challenges	
	- Referring to the Dictionary	7
	- Referring to the Google Translate	12
	- Chat over the internet	2
Strategies	- Listening to the Turkish songs	3
	- Watching TV, Turkish movies or series	4
	- Reading (normally first in other languages)	10
	- Writing more	2
	- Practice speaking with Turk friends	6

As illuminated in Table 2, a handy tool which is most frequently used by the students to overcome their daily linguistic problems in their academic life is the Google Translate (n=12); although some of them found it misleading. As one of the students explained that "*sometimes the Google translation is misleading us. That's why when we are presenting using the Turkish language, the people will not understand what we are saying*" (S10), while another student said *"[Google translate helps me] too much because without Google translate how I'm going to handle it*" (S14).

The second most frequently used strategy was reading a lot; normally first in other languages they already knew (n=10). Then they would try to study the same materials in Turkish language to boost up their understanding of the content knowledge as well as improve their Turkish. Some comments are quoted below regarding this strategy that students had stated:

"First I use English because the English books are available in the internet… then try to read as Turkish" (S13).

"First of all, I try to learn in my mother tongue to understand well, and then in English and Turkish… We do study in Turkish, but we get to understand only half of the content" (S2).

"I have to give myself more time when this comes to reading so that I can understand" (S7).

"I'm trying my most of the time to read the books. It's like to force myself to read the Turkish books" (S10)

The other basic strategies as noted in the tables are referring to the dictionaries, multimedia, studying Turkish materials and some others which are referred to deal with the challenges they face in terms of the medium of instruction.

3.3. Supports Provided in Reducing the Language Difficulties

Almost all of the postgraduate students (n=14) stated that their instructors are kind and supportive to them, but the type of support they received was dispersed to some extent. Besides, some of them (n=7) stated that they receive support from their Turk classmates (for more details see Table 3).

When it was asked about the kind of supports that students received from the instructors, it was found that when they did not understand something they would get extra explanation of the lessons usually in English (n=8). Besides, they were recommended English references and some also were allowed to use English to do their assignments (n=6), which was welcomed to a great extent by the students (See section 1 in Table 3). For example, some of the students give explanation as in the following:

"Most of the time they are used to translate the Turkish books into English and sometimes they just help us by recommending us to read the English books instead of the Turkish books" (S10).

Table 3: The support sources of the international postgraduate students

Theme	Sub-Themes & Codes		Number of Participants
Provided Supports	**Sources of Support**		
	1)	**Instructors**	**14**
	-	Extra Explanation (in English)	8
	-	Giving feedback	3
	-	Encourage	2
	-	Make sure students understand	2
	-	Allow using English	6
	2)	**Classmates**	**7**
	-	Extra explanation	3
	-	Help with the assignments or give feedback	3
	-	Help each in learning English & Turkish	2

As seen in Table 3, the international postgraduate students received other types of supports to some extent like receiving feedback, being encouraged in their education, and making sure these students understand the subject knowledge. However, only seven of the students said they also received some minor supports from their Turk classmates, while the rest said they do not get any support from them. The supports were mostly felt within the classroom like receiving extra explanation about the lesson if possible in English, helping in how to do the assignments, and also mutually helping each other learn English or Turkish. One of them put this way: *"They [Turk classmates] explain how to do some of the tasks given and share their experiences, which I find quite useful"* (S3). In contrast, only one student showed dissatisfaction in this regard.

3.4. Impact of the Linguistic Challenges on the Content Knowledge

As presented in Table 4, majority of the students felt that understanding the content of their course literature is badly affected because of the problems they have in the language utilization.

Table 4: The impact of language difficulties over the content knowledge of the students

Theme	Sub-Themes & Codes	Number of Respondents
	Language difficulties affect content knowledge	
Content Knowledge	- Affects Negatively	12
	- Understanding	12
	- Lose a lot of time	4
	- Not affected	1

Table 4 above shows that students felt that they cannot understand the subject knowledge in different courses they get in Turkish as the language of instruction. Particularly when they attend the lectures, they find it difficult to understand the lecturers in that they touch upon the important aspects of the content knowledge. As a result, they might miss some of the important points being explained by the lecturers. One of the students added this way: "*The main content is related to the knowledge and the new scientific findings that we have to get from our instructors*" and added "*if we cannot understand the lecturers how we can understand the content knowledge the lecturers are trying to teach us about and as a result we cannot improve our content knowledge*". Another student also found it difficult to understand teachers in the class, but when it came to developing his content knowledge from the course literature he could study similar materials in English. He explained that "*the literature is not the problem because at times you find 70 75% of the subject that you are doing... I will simply read it in English and I will understand what they were saying, what they needed*".

Moreover, they had to spend longer time on reading the same material several times in Turkish and even in other languages to make sense of the contents. They also spent a lot of time on translating materials from Turkish to the languages they could understand. Apparently, doing so, they would improve both their language skills as well their content knowledge; though they have to spend a lot of time.

"*Right now instead of learning new things about my department, chemical engineering, I just focusing on translating what they gave to me into a language that I can understand*" (S15).

"*Instead of studying engineering books we are busy with dictionaries and Google translation*" (S12).

One more student even explained like this*: "These language difficulties hinder my learning and understanding when I want to read an article or something. I have to read again and again to understand*" (S4). In contrast, one of the students who said his content knowledge is not affected saying that his entire program is in English. That's why he did not think if it badly affected his understanding of the content knowledge.

3.5. Suggestive Solutions and Expectations

As seen in Table 5, the solutions that the students have suggested is a reflection of the strategies they have followed or the supports they have received from their instructors or classmates. According to some of the students (n=6), it will be more helpful to let them if they could use English in all parts of their postgraduate education. Even some of them (n=4) also suggested if it is possible the language of instruction should be changed into English; especially for the international postgraduate students.

Table 5: The solutions suggested by the students for easing the language challenges

Theme	Sub-Themes & Codes	Number of Respondents
	A. Suggested solutions for language difficulties	
	- English as the medium of instruction	4
	- Be allowed to use English	6
	- Work harder	5
	- Refer to an already familiar language	1
	- Ask friends for help	2
	B. Expectations of the students	
	- Lecturers can explain in English	1
	- Use simpler Turkish during lectures	1
	- Give English references	3
	- Give feedback	2
	- Take slower pace when speaking	1
	- Design a specialized language course	3

*(Theme column, spanning all rows: **Solutions and Expectations**)*

Moreover, according to the students (n=6) using English has a number of advantages. For example, there are plenty of updated materials available over the internet in that they can understand and improve their content knowledge in a reasonable way. As one student said even *"The Turkish itself has adapted concepts from English"* (S12). He also added that *"In some of the course I'm taking, my instructors recommend English references saying that we do not have any materials in this area or they are insufficient"*. Some selective comments regarding the solutions against the language difficulties are cited beneath.

"One solution is that the teachers should let us use English sometimes beside Turkish… we spent most of our time on the Turkish language other than Turkish content knowledge" (S2).

"I think if it's possible they should allow the international postgraduate students to do their assignments and examinations in English… Using English also help us to access the new research materials and books in every field of education." (S3).

In addition, some of the students (n=5) believed that it is better to work harder and try their best to develop their Turkish language skills by any means possible. They also suggested that solution should be sought in the Turkish language preparatory courses. According to S14 *"The only solution is to work hard and make it"* and he expected *"…if possible after the C1 after the Turkish preparatory course we have also to take some more Turkish"*.

In contradiction to some students (n=3) expecting a supplementary Turkish course, some others (n=3) expected instructors give English references. Contrarily, there were one or two students who wanted try their best to improve their Turkish language and improve to make it. In addition, they believed that not everyone in class may know English. One of the students argued like this: *"for example me, I'm good in English…, but you find there is one other person in your class who doesn't understand English, but he can understand Turkish better"* and added that *"when to say let's use another language other than Turkish that would be selfish because the Turkish language is the only thing that is bringing us all together"* (S7). Other expectations that individual students had are presented in Table 5.

4. Discussion

4.1. Language difficulties:

This study contributed to a number of important findings as regards the language difficulties that the international postgraduate students face during their postgraduate education with the medium of Turkish. Apparently, the difficulties that the students faced were rooted to some other underlying factors. For instance, generally the language utilization of the students in relation to the different linguistic skills was negatively affected by their poor vocabulary or understanding the uncommon terminologies.

Moreover, the fast speech rate of the instructors and the students' poor vocabulary had a combined negative impact on their listening and their learning thereafter. This finding is in line with the findings of existing research as discussed in the literature review section (Kaldırım and Degeç, 2017; Besel and Savaşan, 2017).

Considering the language skills, academic writing was found to be the most problematic area for the international postgraduate students. The sentence structures in Turkish language, unfamiliarity with the technical vocabulary in the field of their education and being influenced by the languages they already know made writing difficult for them. Here, it can be contended that the language differences and language dissimilarities might have negatively contributed to such problems. Learning languages belonging to the same family like English, German, and French for example might be much easier. In spite of differences these language belong to the same family sharing similarities. However, when it comes to Turkish, it is quite different according to some of the students who come from totally different language backgrounds than the Turkish language.

Further, the result of this study regarding writing problems of the students in Turkish language is supported by the findings of the previous researches. For instance, Kesten et al (2010) explored the language difficulties of the international postgraduate students studying in an education faculty of a Turkish university. They found that some of the students had difficulties in writing because of the grammatical structures, low level of vocabulary and some letters in Turkish alphabet. Similarly Okamura (2006) interviewed 13 Japanese researchers who used to write in English. It was found that the main challenge all of them had experienced in writing was poor vocabulary and the amount of time spent in the writing process (ibid).

Furthermore, the second major problem experienced by the students in language skills is speaking in the academic context. Self-disclosure in the presence of the native speakers often caused language anxiety and the students withheld of participating in the classroom discussions. They had a feeling of shy and hesitation and afraid of making mistakes. Even some of them were saying that they cannot remember the right word when they want to express themselves or take longer to utter a few sentences. This could be an example of how language anxiety affects the students' participation and their learning thereafter.

According to Chun et al (2017) such students are concerned of being judged by their language abilities in the classroom, which will negatively affect their learning as they found it in their study. However, when students feel confident in the language use and have higher self-efficacy, their academic success can also be higher (ibid). Confirming this point Kesten et al (2010) found that in terms of speaking the main problem student experienced was the language anxiety. They felt kind of shy because of their inadequacy in Turkish language in the presence of their instructors and classmates (ibid).

4.2. Applied Strategies by the Students:

To overcome the language difficulties the students in this study tried different strategies. Quite many of them referred to the translation tools like Google Translate. Although they believed it does not translate the right thing most of the time, they referred to it often. The second trick they used frequently was doing extensive reading or reading the literature related to the course contents normally first in English or other languages and then in Turkish. This finding is consistent with Sibomana (2016) research who found that students converted English texts into French using a translation tool to understand the course literature. The students also followed other different ways to improve their Turkish as discussed in the findings section of the current study.

Moreover, students would be at disadvantage in terms of understanding the content knowledge and their success in academic works unless they are good in the language of instruction (Civan & Coşkun, 2016). Confirming these points, this study revealed that the language difficulties negatively affected understanding the intended content knowledge of the international postgraduate students. It appears that the adaptation process to the Turkish language would not be easy like any other languages. This process might take longer time. In this case, the postgraduate students will be in a more disadvantaged position in developing their Turkish language skills while spending most of their time in attending lectures, assignments and research works. Since they will not be in the class most of the time and do a lot of self-study instead, they will not often interact with native speakers compared to the undergraduate students who have a chance of practicing their Turkish every day.

4.3. Given Supports:

In contradiction to some of the existing research findings (Sibomana, 2016; Güçlü, 1996), Turk instructors were found to be more supportive to the international postgraduate students in this study; except in one case. Having an understanding of the problems international students have, they tried to give explanation in English and some of them allowed the students to use English in their academic works in order to have made their life easier. Moreover, some students expected to be allowed to use English or if possible have English as a medium of instruction for the international students because they can have access to large amount of quality materials which exist in this language (Civan & Coşkun, 2016).

The dominating position of English language has globally influenced every aspects of global life than any other languages (Sawir, 2005). It is widely being used as a common lingua franca in different social, economical, political and educational status (ibid). It seems that many international students in this study want to take their courses in English, even those whose English is not in a satisfactory level. Some of them believed that English could be useful both in their current academic life and their after graduation career. In a sense, they are trying to be a part of the globalized world having direct contact with knowledge existing in this language.

5. Conclusions

To sum up, this study revealed that the international postgraduate students face many linguistic problems during their postgraduate education in Turkish as the medium of instruction. These problems were felt in all four linguistic skills being negatively affected in various degrees by different factors as discussed before. Most of findings show consistency with the existing literature in terms of the challenges related to the medium of instruction faced by the international students either in Turkish or English, while also rejecting some of them.

Since a growing number of international students are coming to Turkey in order to receive quality education in different levels and the language of instruction is mostly in Turkish, the language barriers need to be removed. The following points are suggested which could contribute in lowering the language difficulties of the international postgraduate students so that they could focus on improving their content knowledge other than their language skills.

- Improving the Turkish language orientation program by applying frequent quality check of the teaching and learning process

- Designing extra quality supplementary academic Turkish language courses delivered by the experienced and dedicated instructors

- Creating a friendly and welcoming learning atmosphere considering the student differences and their needs

- Apparently majority of the instructors know English, so the postgraduate students could be allowed to do their assignments and their readings in English as was evidenced in this study

Moreover, most of the researches done in this field are qualitative and the intended data are mostly collected through semi-structured interview with the limited number of participants. However, conducting quantitative research with larger number of samples might end up with different results; especially when the study focuses on each language skill in pre-defined details in the light of the existing literature. Besides, a longitudinal research is recommended to check if the language difficulties of the international postgraduate students persist over the entire phases of their postgraduate education.

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Uluslararası lisansüstü öğrencilerin Türkçe diline ilişkin olarak eğitim sürecinde karşılaştıkları dil zorlukları

Özet

Eğitim ortamında öğrencilerin, öğretim diline ilişkin olarak yeterli dil becerilerine sahip olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu bakımından öğretim dili, öğrenme ve öğretme sürecini doğrudan etkilemesi nedeniyle oldukça önemlidir. Özellikle yabancı bir dilde lisansüstü düzeyde öğrenim gören öğrencilerin dil yeterliliği, onların başarılarını ve akademik performanslarını eğitimleri süresince etkileyebilir. Bu durum, ilk kez öğrendikleri bir dil ile eğitimlerini tamamen farklı bir bağlamda sürdüren uluslararası öğrenciler için çok zor olabilmektedir. Alanyazında öğretim dili (çoğunlukla İngilizce) ile uluslararası lisansüstü öğrencilerin yaşadığı dil zorlukları üzerine yapılan çok sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır. Bu araştırmalarda, dil kullanımındaki yetersizliğin öğrencilerin öğrenmelerini ve derslerin içeriğine ilişkin bilgileri anlamalarını olumsuz bir şekilde etkilediği belirtilmektedir. Bu araştırmanın amacı, öğretim dili olarak Türkçe'nin tercih edildiği Türk üniversitelerinde öğrenim gören uluslararası lisansüstü öğrencilerinin Türkçe diline ilişkin olarak yaşadığı sorunları, bu sorunlara neden olan alt faktörleri, bu sorunların çözümünde öğrenciler tarafından uygulanan stratejileri, onların çözüm önerilerini, beklentilerini ve bu süreçte öğrencilere ne tür desteklerin sağlandığını belirlemektir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubu, Mersin Üniversitesinde farklı fakültelerde uluslararası lisansüstü eğitim gören 15 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Nitel araştırma yönteminin benimsendiği bu çalışmada veriler yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler vasıtası ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre, Türkçe diline ilişkin olarak uluslararası lisansüstü öğrencilerinin yaşadığı en büyük dil sorununun yazma becerisi ile ilgili olduğu belirlenmiştir. Sonuçlarda öne çıkan diğer dil sorunlarının ise sırasıyla konuşma, dinleme ve okuma becerileri ile ilişkili olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Bununla birlikte öğrencilerin dil becerilerine ilişkin olarak karşılaştıkları sorunlar; zayıf sözcük dağarcığına sahip olmaları, öğretmenlerin hızlı konuşmaları, Türkçe dilinin farklı yapıda olması ve diğer benzer alt faktörlerle ilişkilendirilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: uluslararası lisansüstü öğrencileri; Öğretim dili olarak Türkçe; dil zorlukları

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Influence of social power on perception of speech act of apology by Jordanian second language speakers

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Abstract

The present study aimed at investigating the influence of social power, as a social hierarchy, on perception of speech act of apology by 40 Jordanian second language speakers (JL2Ss) compared to that of 40 Jordanian non-English speakers, those whose English proficiency is low (JNESs) and 40 English native speakers (ENSs). Discourse Completion Test (DCT) and Scaled Response Questionnaire (SRQ) were used to elicit data from the three groups of participants. For data analysis, one way ANOVA, post hoc pair comparisons statistical tests were employed. Similarities and differences between Jordanian Arabic and British English cultures were detected. Social power found to have an impact on Jordanian participants perception significantly higher than ENSs. Moreover, significant mean differences among the three groups regarding their perception of the four context-internal variables were also found. Further, results showed that although JL2Ss are highly proficient in English they still lack the required sociopragmatic competence which consequently led to negative sociopragmatic transfer. The study concludes with some pedagogical implications, findings could benefit EFL course designers and teachers to develop EFL curricula in Jordan which may remedy the JL2Ss lack of pragmatic knowledge of the target language and reduce pragmatic failure across cultures.

1. Introduction

Investigating cross-cultural differences could provide a comprehensive view about the speakers' perception of apology due its variations from one culture to another. Recently, the tendencies for cultural studies have got a considerable attention as maintaining a successful relation among interlocutors is of paramount significance in cross-cultural communication (Kousar, 2015; Lin, 2013; Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2014). The study of speech as a cultural phenomenon has shown that different communities vary in their production and interpretation of linguistic behavior (Ahar & Eslami-Rasekh, 2011; Bella, 2014; Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Ifantidou, 2014; Olshtain, & Cohen, 1990). Among these cultural variations, social power plays a pivotal role in determining a specific linguistic behavior (Beebe, Takahashi &Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Beebe & Zhang-Waring, 2001; Kasper, 1992; Wolfson, 1989). The lack of pragmatic knowledge might lead to what is called a

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pragmatic failure which refers to the inability to understand the speaker's intended meaning, consequently operates as a barrier to the success of cross cultural communication (Luo & Gao, 2011; Nureddeen, 2008; Trosborg, 1995; Thomas, 1983). People's perception of the social variables is a culturally specific thus the pragmatic researchers should include the assessment and perception check for the social variables i.e. social power, social distance, obligation etc due to the fact that different sociocultural groups have different norms and perception regarding these contextual variables (Brown & Levinson 1987).

It is undoubtedly very essential for any second language speakers (L2Ss henceforth) to achieve the required pragmatic knowledge of that second language and be pragmatically competent so as to avoid pragmatic transfer refers to "the influence exerted by learner' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (Kasper, 1992 p. 207) and pragmatic failure. There is a pressing need for improving the pragmatic awareness of L2Ss to avoid pragmatic failure and to achieve the appropriate polite behavior (Al-Issa, 1998; Al-Sobh, 2013; Banikalef & Maros, 2013; Bardovi-Harlig et al, 2015; Blum-Kulka, 1982; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Hussein & Hammouri, 1998; Ifantidou, 2014; Trosborg, 2010).

According to Leech (1983) pragmatics is divided into sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competencies; sociopragmatics refers to the sociological interface of pragmatics and social perceptions underlying participants' interpretations which differ from one speech community to another. Pragmalinguistics on other hand refers to the knowledge of forms and strategies to convey particular speech acts i.e. the linguistic resources (including strategies such as direct, indirect and hedging) to convey communicative acts and performing pragmatic functions. Hence, investigating these perceptive differences might give the opportunity to the L2Ss to achieve the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competencies. Each speech community has its own assessment of the contextual variables such as the social power, distance, severity of the offence, obligations, degree of imposition and others (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Olshtain, 1989; Kasper, 1992; Takahashi, 1996). The present study investigates the influence of social power, which is a context-external variable proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), on the perception of apology realization by Jordanian second language speakers (JL2Ss henceforth).

Interlanguage pragmatic studies of speech acts have revealed that even high English proficiency second language speakers face problems in applying speech acts and have insufficient pragmatic competence while interacting with native speakers of the target language (Abdulrahman, 2012; Al-Issa, 1998; Arghamiri & Sadighi, 2013; Banikalef & Maros, 2013; Chen, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Farashaiyan & Hua, 2011; Tabatabaei & Farnia, 2015). Thus, for the purpose of the present study, proficient JL2Ss are recruited. According to Kinginger and Farrell (2004), the L2Ss' awareness of the social concepts underlying linguistic choice is a key phase in the development of pragmatic competence. In addition, the relationship between sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competencies is an interwoven one, as such any exploration of pragmatic variability should address the pragmalinguistic forms and patterns along with the socipragmatic values of the L2Ss (Chang, 2011; Ifantidou, 2014; McNamara, 2006; Roever, 2010). As such this study tries to fill a gap left uninvestigated in Jordanian context which is the perception of apology by JL2Ss.

1.1. Literature review

Among the speech acts that people engage in daily life situations, apology is frequently used and much researched since it functions as a remedial for restoring and maintaining harmony between the speaker and the hearer (Aydin, 2013; Al-Zumor, 2011; Jebahi, 2010; Kousar, 2015; Trosborg, 2010). Olshtain (1989) defines an apology as "a speech act which is intended to provide support for the

hearer who was actually or potentially mal-affected by a violation" (p. 165). Good amount of research in the realm of speech acts has paid much attention on investigating the speech act of apology within a variety of languages and cultures (Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1989; Ji, 2008; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Nureddeen, 2008; Taguchi, 2009; Trosborg, 1995). Bergman and Kasper (1993) by means of SRQ and DCT investigated Thai and American English speakers' perceptions of a committed offense and the choice of apology strategies within a variety of contexts. Findings revealed significant differences between the two groups in rating of some context-internal variables i.e. severity of offence, likelihood to apologize and others. Moreover, 50% of the differences between the two groups were attributed to the pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2. Furthermore, the results showed that when the speaker is closer to the interlocutor, the offender accepts more responsibility for the offensive act. The study shed light on the sociopragmatic competence of apology by Thai L2Ss compared with ENSs.

In line with Bergman and Kasper's (1993) study, Maeshiba et al. (1996) investigated the Japanese apologetic behavior and whether there is relation between pragmatic transfer and English proficiency. Four groups participated in the study; 30 Japanese native speakers, 30 English native speakers, 30 Japanese EFL, (intermediate) and 30 Japanese EFL (advanced). The four groups responded to the DCT and results indicated that the intermediate group transferred their apology behavior from Japanese to English more than the advanced group. As a consequence, the study suggests that Japanese EFL should be pragmatically instructed regardless of their target language proficiency. In the same vein, Kashkouli and Eslamirasekh, (2013) investigated the Persians and Armenians assessment of context-internal variables by means of SRQ and DCT. Results showed that Armenians rated the severity of the offence variable higher than Persian rating. Moreover, Armenians were more like western in their formality of their behavior in which social status and social distance of the offended party did not influence their apology production while Persians were more influenced by these factors.

Furthermore, Hou, (2006) investigated the Chinese sociopragmatic competence of speech act of apology by means of DCT and SRQ. The sample of the study contains three groups, 60 Chinese L2Ss and 60 American NSs and 60 Chinese NSs. Variables investigated include severity of the offence, the possibility of you apologizing, difficulty of the apology for the speaker and the likelihood of the apology accepted by the hearer. Findings of the study revealed some similarities between Chinese and American in perception of the variables and this was attributed to the universality of speech act of apology. However, significant cultural differences were found in which the Chinese rated the offences as more severe and apology more difficult which demonstrated the eastern politeness.

Regarding the speech act of apology research in Jordanian context, there are some studies conducted in this field. Most of these studies investigated only pragmalinguistic competence that is they investigated only the similarities and differences between JNESs and ENSs. For instance, Al Adaileh (2007) investigated the politeness orientations regarding the speech act of apology between JNESs and ENSs by means of DCT. Findings revealed that ENSs were more inclined to use IFIDs more than JNESs did and both groups were likely to employ the expression of regret sub-strategy specifically "I'm sorry." Moreover, findings revealed that Jordanian culture is inclined to be positive politeness culture i.e. the Jordanian respondents opted to use indirect apology strategies to save their positive face, while British culture is considered as a negative politeness i.e. the English respondents used more direct apology strategies IFIDs.

In a similar manner, Bataineh and Bataineh (2008) investigated the similarities and differences between JNESs from different majors of study from Yarmouk University and University of Science and Technology in Jordan and ENSs from Indiana University in the United States of America. DCT and another test designed by the researcher herself were the study instruments. Findings showed that JNESs used significant apology strategies more than ENSs did. These strategies include (1) statement

of remorse, (2) strategy of promising not to repeat the offense, (3) invoking Allah's (God's) name, and (4) the use of proverbs. On the other hand, ENSs used more compensation, and tended to blame others as well as themselves when trying to apologize for the committed offense. The study also compared between males and females in both cultures and found that JNESs males and females used different apology strategies. JNESs males used more statement of remorse strategies while JNESs females used less non-apology strategies and assigned the blame on themselves more than on others. ENSs females tended to apologize more than males and used statement of remorse more than male did. More recently, Banikalef and Maros (2013) conducted a study to investigate apology strategies by JL2Ss at Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM henceforth), Malaysia. DCT and semi-structured interviews were employed. Findings revealed that JL2Ss used mostly IFIDs specifically when expressing regret, such as I'm sorry which was the most frequently used strategy. Further, the results indicated that JL2Ss used some additional expressions not included in model that was adopted from Olshtain and Cohen (1983). These new apology strategies include; arrogance and ignorance, blame something else and swearing to Allah.

The above discussed apology studies in Jordanian context investigated only the similarities and differences in speech act of apology between JNESs and ENSs in the production level i.e. pragmalinguistic competence and neglected the sociopragmatic competence which is the perception level. Thus, this study investigates the perception of apology by JL2S who have different social power levels in order to understand their perceptive attitudes that make them produce specific patterns of apology strategies (Al-Momani, 2007; Al-Shboul, 2013; Rababah, 2003). The current study aims to answer the following research question:

RQ1. How does the context external social variable of social power (high, equal, and low) influence JL2Ss perception of apology realization compared to that of JNESs and ENSs?

1.2. Problem statement

In Jordanian Arabic context, researchers such as Al-Momani, (2009), Al-Shboul (2013), Al-Adaileh (2007) and Bataineh (2008) indicated that research concerning Jordanian L2Ss pragmatic competence is scarce and thus, what is known about Jordanian L2Ss pragmatic competence is very limited. This problem has been observed by many researchers who affirmed that Jordanians lack the necessary pragmatic competence which consequently hinder them from communicating efficiently in the target language (Al-Khresheh, 2010; Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013; Bataineh & Aljamal, 2014). There is a lack of studies that deals with the difficulties that JL2Ss encounter when performing speech acts including apology in English. This study is in line with the argument that learning a language is not merely acquiring a simple understanding of grammar of the target language, rather learners must be able to use the language beyond the classroom as well and in variety of situations where politeness and tact help to sooth tension and open door for successful cross-cultural communication i.e. pragmatic competence (Ayden, 2013; Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010; Ifantidou, 2014). Speech acts research in Jordanian context revealed that even JL2Ss who have high English proficiency still lack the pragmatic competency (Al-Momani, 2007; Al-Shboul, 2012; Rababah, 2003). Thus, this particular study focuses on proficient JL2Ss. Previous Jordanian speech act of apology research have primarily addressed the similarities and differences between Jordanian and English native speakers cultures without paying much attention to the perception and the attitudes of the JL2Ss that influence their linguistic production. To the best of researcher knowledge, this might be the first attempt to address the influence of social power variable on the perception of apology realization in Jordanian context by high English proficient JL2Ss. Jordanian non-English speakers (JNESs henceforth) and English native speakers (ENSs henceforth) served as the baseline groups (for comparison purposes) while JL2Ss served as interlanguage group.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

According to Ellis (1994) and Kasper and Dahl (1991a) and Selinker, (1972) the investigation of L2Ss pragmatic abilities would usually involve three groups, that is, second language speakers (L2Ss) groups and the two baseline groups which are the native speakers(NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs). Collecting these three sets of data allows the researcher to clearly determine the extent of performance differences by L2Ss as compared to the NSs, and also to determine the level of pragmatic transfer from first language (L1) to second language (L2) by L2Ss. Moreover, Kasper and Dahl (1991), suggest that because participants responses in ILP speech act realization studies seem to cluster around specific subcategories, at least 30 subjects for each group who respond to the DCT is a sufficient sample to answer most ILP speech act realization questions (Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2014; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Lin, 2014; Maeshiba et al., 1996; Morkus, 2009; Nakhle, Naghavi & Razavi, 2014). To this end, three groups of participants participated in the study as explained below.

2.1.1 Jordanian second language speakers at UKM (40 JL2Ss)

This group of participants consists of 40 Jordanian postgraduate students from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, UKM since there was an influx of Jordanians pursuing their higher studies at this institution (Al-Shboul, 2013; Banikalef & Maros, 2013). In addition, during the time of data collection there was a generous pool of Jordanian postgraduate students who could be approached to participate in this study. The participants' ages range from 25-40 and all of them are native speakers of Arabic. Purposive sampling was used in the selection of the participants of this group. These students are considered as competent in English since all of them have achieved band 4 and above in their English Proficiency Placement Test (EPPT) at UKM or have passed their Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) with more than 550 in paper test and 79 in TOEFL internet based test or have achieved band 6.5 and above for their International English Language Testing System (IELTS).

2.1.2. Jordanian non-English speakers at UKM (40 JNESs)

This group of respondents consists of 40 Jordanian postgraduate students Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, UKM. The participants' ages range from 25-40 and all of them are native speakers of Arabic. Purposive sampling was used in the selection of the participants of this group. These students are considered as having low proficiency in English since all of them achieved band 2 and below in EPPT, and none of them have passed either TOEFL or IELTS.   JNESs were one of the baseline groups for the purpose of inter-language comparisons.

2.1.3. English native speakers at British Council (40 ENSs)

This group of respondents consists of 40 English language lecturers in British Council located in Amman capital of Jordan. The participants' ages range from 25-50 and all of them are native speakers of English. Purposive sampling was used in the selection of participants in this group since all of the participants are lecturers in this centre and have at least Master degrees in Education and English Language Studies from United Kingdom. The data provided by this group served as baseline data for inter-language comparisons.

2.2.   Instruments

The data of the present study were elicited via discourse completion test (DCT) and scaled response questionnaire (SRQ).

2.2.1 Discourse completion test (DCT)

DCT consists of different contextual situations that are followed by a blank where a respondent has to provide his/her response of the particular speech act under investigation i.e. to find out the production competency of the respondents. According to Kasper and Dahl (1991c), DCT that was first developed by Blum-Kulka (1982) is the most popular data collection method in speech act research. It is mostly a written questionnaire that provides a brief description of a certain situation followed by incomplete short dialogue filled by the respondents (they state what they believe they would say in the real situation). Ellis (1994) explains that a controlled tool such as the DCT allows for large amounts of data to be collected quickly and easily. This claim has been supported by ʀose (1992) who adds that DCT has an advantage over natural data (observation data) in that it provides a controlled context for speech acts and can be used to collect large amounts of data quite quickly and help to classify the formulas and strategies that may occur in natural speech (Beebe & Martha and Cummings, 1996).

Despite its widespread popularity, DCT is not immune from criticism. The most popular concern is regarding the validity issue i.e. how representative the DCT data is compared to natural collected data by the participants. It does not actually reflect what the participant would say in the natural settings but what may think they would say in given situation (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2013; Felix-Brasdefer, 2010; Woodfield, 2012). However, it is argued that DCT still indicates the particular forms and strategies used by the participants of pragmatic studies and thus still valid and utilized in huge body of pragmatic research until now (Daftari & Tavil, 2015; Ellis, 1994; Kousar, 2015; Lin, 2014; Martínez-Flor; 2012; Nakhle et al., 2014).

According to Brown and Levinson (1987) apology is a face threatening act and thus they introduced some parameters to assess the cost of any potential face threatening acts (FTA) such as social power, social distance and the degree of imposition. The present study is concerned to investigate the social power as a face threatening act and its influence on the perception and production of apology by JL2Ss. Social power is defined as "The degree to which the hearer can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of the speaker's plans and self-evaluation" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 77).

In order to elicit the three groups of participants' perception, 12 DCT situations were put forward in the questionnaire of this study. The 12 DCT situations were adapted from Al-Adaileh's (2007) study of apology and piloted by the researcher of this study. After piloting slight modifications were done afterwards. Pilot study is explained below in section 2. 3. JL2Ss and ENSs responded to the English version of DCT since they were considered proficient in English while the JNESs responded to the Arabic version of the DCT due to their low English proficiency based on their EPPT results at UKM.

The 12 DCT situations were divided into five social categories based on a systematic variation of the social power (P) and social distance (D) (Al-Issa, 1998; Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013). However, analysis was done for the situations that include the social power situations only. The following Table illustrates the social power DCT situations

Table 1. Classifications of the DCT situations

Category	Apologizer social power (P) Categories	Situations
1	(+P + D) High social power	1-Professor promised to return a student term paper but he did not. 9-Customer called the waitress to change the order.
2	(=P -D)	4-You forgot an appointment with friend for the second

	Equal social power	time.
		8-You accidently spilled oil in your neighbor car.
		12-You said something that annoyed your colleague.
3	(-P + D)	2- Student forgot to return the book he borrowed from
	Low social power	his professor.
		3-Employer forgot an important appointment with boss
		for the second time.

Note: P= social power

2.2.2. Scaled response questionnaire (SRQ)

Sociopragmatic perception found to have an influence on speech act production, therefore, it is essential to find out how JL2Ss perceive the social variables and how these perceptions are reflected in their output strategies (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Kasper & Dahl, 1991) Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that differences in the participants' perception competence influence their production of a specific speech acts. According to Chen (1996) SRQ serves as a good tool in uncovering the sociocultural rules in the speakers' communicative competence. The SRQ is adapted from Bergman and Kasper's (1993) study of apology which was used to elicit the sociopragmatic perception of the American and Thai respondents. Based on the pilot study for the English and Arabic SRQ versions, the researcher slightly modified Bergman and Kasper original SRQ questionnaire. The researcher changed the *'offender' face loss'* variable into the difficulty of apology by the offender variable which was found to be easier to understand by the participants after group discussion conducted with them. The SRQ distributed includes four context-internal variables that were rated in a five point rating scale by the respondents in which 1 is the lowest and 5 is the highest. The four context-internal variables are:

1. The severity of the offence by the offender

2. The possibility of the apology by the offender

3. The difficulty of apology by the offender and

4. The likelihood of apology acceptance by the offended party

These four context-internal variables were assessed by JL2Ss with different social power categories. In other words, if the apologizer has high social power and his/her interlocutor has low social power, the SRQ is used to measure the way of how the high social power apologizer perceives and rates these above mentioned variables while communicating with the other interlocutors. The English version of SRQ was translated into Arabic by the researcher who is a native Arabic speaker and answered by JNESs (the baseline group that responded to the Arabic version of the SRQ).

SRQ is placed below each DCT scenario to extract the participants' perception about their context-internal variables as shown in the following example:

Situation 1
DCT

You are a university professor and you promised to return the student's term paper that day but you didn't finish reading it.   Student: "I hope you are happy with it."

SRQ

1-Severity of the offence   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
2-The possibility of you apologizing   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
3- Difficulty of the apology   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
4- Likelihood of the apology acceptance by the offended party   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
You apologize by saying:

DCT response...

The DCT scenario is mentioned first then followed by the SRQ context-internal variables. This version of SRQ was translated into Arabic by the researcher, who is a native speaker of Arabic. Accuracy of translation then checked by two Jordanian English graduate students. DCT and SRQ were distributed and answered in English by JL2Ss and ENSs and answered in Arabic by JNESs. To investigate the perception of apology by JL2Ss, Al-Adaileh's (2007) 12 DCT adapted situations and Bergman and Kasper (1993) adapted SRQ context-internal variables were combined together in one questionnaire that answered by the three groups of participants. Each situation consists of two parts: the SRQ first and the DCT next. Only the perception part is the concern of this study, thus DCT responses were not included in this analysis.

2.3. Pilot Study

Although the adopted SRQ has been piloted by Bergman and Kasper (1993) and the adopted DCT has been piloted by Al-Adaileh (2007) before for reliability and validity, a pilot study was conducted with a group of participants similar to the actual participants of the questionnaire to ensure the reliability and validity of this study questionnaire and interview questions. There were four main purposes of the pilot study (Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013; Lin, 2008; Taguchi, 2013; Thijittang, 2010):

1- To determine the familiarity of the situations for the participants.

2- To ensure that all situations are clear and comprehensible by the respondents.

3- To ensure that the situations are successful in yielding the targeted apology speech act and not any other speech act.

4- To estimate the time required to finish all situations.

For this particular study, six participants excluding those who participated in the main study were chosen to participate in the pilot study. These participants were two ENSs, two JNESs and two JL2Ss. The participants provided some comments that led to slight improvement and called for the need of slight modification on the early versions of DCT and SRQ. For JL2Ss and JNEs the researcher received their comments and suggestions through direct discussion with them and they commented that the DCT situations are long but clear. Regarding ENSs responses, they commented that all the situations are clear. It should be noted that the original DCT situations adopted from Al-Adaileh were very lengthy and included more details. Therefore, for the purpose of the study some DCT situations were modified to make sure that the situations clear, precise and did not demand much time on the participants. For example the JNESs and JL2Ss pilot study participants commented that the following DCT situation, which was adopted from Al-Adaileh apology study, was very lengthy.

Situation 10 (The adopted situation)

You are on a bus with a child. There are plenty of seats on the bus but there are not any for two people together. You ask a passenger who is sitting on his own on a two seater to change seats with you so that you can sit next to the child. When he stands up to change seats, you accidentally bump into him, step on his toes and finally cause him to spill his packages all over the floor. It is clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely.

He: "Ow! My goodness"!
You:

....
Therefore it was modified by the researcher into the following:
Situation 10 (The adapted situation)

You accidentally bumped into passenger, and stepped on his toes and finally cause him to spill his packages all over the floor. It is clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely.
He: "Ow! My goodness"!

  You: ....

  Regarding SRQ variables, the variable "the offender face loss" was replaced by the "difficulty of apology by the offender" variable since the previous one was vague and not clear for the participants. For example the JNESs and JL2Ss pilot study participants commented that the following SRQ situation, which was adopted from Bergman and Kasper (1993) apology study, was vague and not clear.

DCT

You are a university professor and you promised to return the student's term paper that day but you didn't finish reading it. Student: "I hope you are happy with it."

SRQ

1-Severity of the offence is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
2-The possibility of you apologizing is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
3- *The offender face loss is*   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
4- Likelihood of the apology accepted is high 5 4 3 2 1 low

You apologize by saying:
DCT response...

Therefore it was modified by the researcher into the following:

DCT

You are a university professor and you promised to return the student's term paper that day but you didn't finish reading it. Student: "I hope you are happy with it."

SRQ

1-Severity of the offence is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
2-The possibility of you apologizing is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
3- Difficulty of apology for the offender is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low
4- Likelihood of the apology accepted is   high 5 4 3 2 1 low

You apologize by saying:

DCT response...

  The two JL2Ss who participated in the pilot study were also asked to answer the main questions of semi-structured interview (See Appendix E) and they explained that the questions are clear to them.

2.4. Data collection procedures

  The three groups of participants were invited to respond to the questionnaire. The data collection procedures were as follows.

2.4.1. Collection of data from 40 JL2Ss

 First of all, the researcher emailed the respondents and asked them kindly to participate in this study after explaining to them the purpose of the study. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents after piloting the main version and ensuring that it is feasible and clear. Secondly, upon receiving the respondents' agreement and consent to participate in the study via email, the researcher sent the questionnaires to the respondents via email. Finally, the completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher via email as well.

2.4.2. Collection of data from 40 JNESs

First of all, the researcher emailed the respondents and asked them kindly to participate in this study after explaining to them the purpose of the study. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents after piloting the main version and ensuring that it is feasible and clear. Secondly, upon receiving the respondents' agreement and consent to participate in the study via email, the researcher sent the questionnaire via email. Finally, the completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher via email as well. This group of participants responded to the Arabic version of the questionnaire.

2.4.3. Collection of data from 40 ENSs

Firstly, the questionnaires were distributed via email to the respondents after piloting it and ensuring that it is feasible and clear. Secondly, the respondents upon finishing answering the questionnaires returned the copies to the researchers via email. The responses by the respondents of this group were used as a baseline data for interlanguage comparison.

2.5. Data analysis

To analyse the study research question, the responses of each group of respondents i.e. JL2Ss, JNESs and ENSs were divided into five categories (Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013; Lin, 2008; Taguchi, 2013; Thijittang, 2010):

 These categories represent different social power and social distance levels as shown below:

Category 1 (High social power) (+P + D) which consists of Situations1 and 9; 1-Professor promised to return a student term paper but he did not and 9-Customer called the waitress to change the order.

Category 2 (Equal social power) (=P - D) which consists of Situations 4, 8 and 12; 4-You forgot an appointment with friend for the second time, 8-You accidently spilled an oil in your neighbour car, 12-You said something that annoyed your colleague.

Category 3 (Low social power) (-P + D) which consists of Situations 2 and 3; 2- Student forgot to return the book he borrowed from his professor 3-Employer forgot an important appointment with boss for the second time.

Category 4(Familiar) (-P - D) which consists of Situations 5 and 7; 5-Father promised to take his kid for shopping but he did not do that 7-You accidently broke the lights of your intimate boss car.

Category 5 (Unfamiliar) (=P +D) which consists of Situations 10, 11 and 6;10- You accidently bumped into a passenger toe which made him spill all his package on the floor 11- You accidently bumped into passenger toe which disturbed him a bit 6-You accidently hit another driver car while parking your car.

However, the analysis was done on the social power categories since they are the focus of this study. Hence, the analysis were conducted on the bases of these categories, that is, the researcher looked into how each category respondents assessed each one of the context-internal variables by using one-way ANOVAs. For example, the Category 1 of JL2Ss who have high social power rated the severity of the offence M= 2.61 whereas the same category JL2Ss rated the possibility of the offender apology M= 3.80. Hence, the analysis of these categories found an influence for the social power on the assessment of the four context-internal variables (Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013; Lin, 2008).

3. Results

The following tables illustrate the three groups of participants' assessments of the four context-internal variables of the study. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was employed to achieve the results.

1. The assessment of the severity of the offence

Table 2. Means and standard deviation to the contextual variable Severity of the offence

Contextual Variables Social power	JL2Ss Mean	SD	JNESs Mean	SD	ENSs Mean	SD	df (Error)	F	Sig
Category 1 High	2.61	0.96	2.83	1.00	3.38	0.48	2 (116)	8.626	0.000* T
Category 2 Equal	3.19	0.50	3.30	0.42	4.15	0.16	2 (117)	70.952	0.000* T
Category 3 Low	4.01	0.43	4.02	0.00	3.90	0.20	2 (117)	1.714	0.185

*Note: JL2Ss= Jordanian second language speakers, JNESs= Jordanian non-English speakers, ENSs= English native speakers. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative sociopragmatic transfer. *p < 0.05.*

Table 2 above illustrates how the three groups of participants with different social power categories perceive the severity of the offence.

One-way ANOVA results showed that   there are significant differences among the three groups in Category1, (F 2, 116=8.626, p = 0.000). Tukey HSD post hoc pair comparisons revealed that both Jordanian groups assessed the severity of the offence significantly lower than ENSs group. This indicates that the Jordanian with high social power did not perceive the offence as very severe when it is committed against people with low social power. Negative sociopragmatic transfer occurred in this category since there is no significant difference between JL2Ss and JNESs, and there is significant difference between both Jordanian groups and ENSs.

In Category 2, post hoc pair comparisons revealed that both Jordanian groups assessed the severity of the offence significantly lower than ENSs did (F 2, 117=70.952, p = 0.000) which indicates a negative sociopragmatic transfer since the assessment of both Jordanian groups is similar to each other but different from ENSs assessment. By contrast, in Category 3 analysis showed that there is no significant difference among the three groups despite the fact that both Jordanian groups assessed the severity of the offence higher than ENSs group (F 2, 117=1.714, p = 0.185). Analysis shows that Jordanians consider the offence as not so severe when it is committed against their low and equal social power offended parties, whereas ENSs consider the offence as very severe regardless of their offended parties' social power.

2. The assessment of the possibility of the apology by the offender

Table 3. Means and standard deviation to the contextual variable possibility of apology

Contextual Variables	JL2Ss		JNESs		ENSs		df		
Social power	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	(Error)	F	Sig
Category 1 High	3.80	0.24	3.17	0.31	4.42	0.28	2(117)	198.236	0.000*
Category 2 Equal	3.17	0.48	3.58	0.47	3.91	0.30	2(117)	29.406	0.000*
Category 3 Low	4.91	0.19	4.96	0.13	4.93	0.16	2(117)	0.980	0.379

Note: JL2Ss= Jordanian second language speakers, JNESs= Jordanian non-English speakers, ENSs= English native speakers. **T** *indicates the occurrence of negative sociopragmatic transfer *p < 0.05*

Regarding possibility of apology by the offender ANOVA results showed that there are significant differences among groups in Category 1 and Category 2. Post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the three groups have significant mean differences among each other. In category 1, JL2Ss assessed the possibility of apology significantly higher than JNESs did, whereas JNESs assessed the possibility of apology significantly lower than ENSs did (F 2, 117=198.236, p = 0.000). Similar to Category 1, in Category 2 post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the three groups have significant mean differences among each other. JL2Ss assessed the possibility of apology significantly lower than JNESs did. Moreover, JNESs assessed the possibility of apology significantly lower than ENSs did (F 2, 117=29.406, p = 0.000).With regard to Category 3, the three groups showed agreement in their assessment of possibility of apology. That is because no statistically significant differences were found in any of the three groups (F 2, 117=0.980, p = 0.379). This indicates an inter-language and cross-cultural similarity between both cultures. This shows that ENSs are ready to apologize whenever the offence takes place regardless of the social power of their offended parties. Further, Jordanians who have high social power show also their readiness to apologize for their lower and equal social power offended parties but significantly lower than ENSs.

3. The assessment of difficulty of the apology by the offender

Table 4. Means and standard deviation to the contextual variable difficulty of apology

Contextual Variables	JL2Ss		JNESs		ENSs		df		
Social power	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	(Error)	F	Sig
Category 1 High	2.98	0.08	3.08	0.19	2.19	0.27	2(117)	244.978	0.000* T
Category 2 Equal	3.17	0.16	3.00	0.00	2.21	0.20	2(117)	440.875	0.000*
Category 3 Low	1.00	0.00	1.02	0.15	2.02	0.00	2(117)	1579.500	0.000* T

Note: JL2Ss= Jordanian second language speakers, JNESs= Jordanian non-English speakers, ENSs= English native speakers. **T** *indicates the occurrence of negative sociopragmatic transfer *p < 0.05*

As for the difficulty of Apology by the offender one-way ANOVA and post hoc pair comparisons revealed that both Jordanian groups assessed the difficulty of apology significantly higher than ENSs group did in Category1, (F 2, 117=244.978, p = 0.000) which indicates that Jordanians who have high social power believe that it is difficult for them to apologize for their low social power offended

parties. Negative sociopragmatic transfer occurred in this category, while there is no significant difference between JL2Ss and JNESs, there is significant difference between both Jordanian group and ENSs. In Category 2, post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the three groups have significant mean differences among each other. JL2Ss assessed the difficulty of apology significantly higher than JNESs did whereas, JNESs assessed the possibility of apology significantly higher than ENSs did (F 2, 117=440.875, p = 0.000). In Category 3 post hot pair comparisons results showed that   there are significant differences among the three groups, (F 2, 117=1579.500, p = 0.000). Both Jordanian groups assessed the difficulty of apology significantly lower than ENSs group did. Negative sociopragmatic transfer occurred in this category. That is, while there is no significant difference between JL2Ss and JNESs, there is significant difference between both Jordanian groups and ENSs.

4.   The assessment of the likelihood of apology acceptance

Table 5.   Means and standard deviation to the contextual variable likelihood of apology acceptance

Contextual Variables	JL2Ss		JNESs		ENSs		df		
Social power	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	(Error)	F	Sig
Category 1 High	4.83	0.40	5.00	0.00	3.04	0.24	2(117)	647.382	0.000*
Category 2 Equal	4.12	0.16	4.13	0.16	3.03	0.20	2(117)	497.728	0.000*T
Category 3 Low	3.11	0.66	3.50	0.00	3.01	0.07	2(117)	18.324	0.000*

*Note: JL2Ss= Jordanian second language speakers, JNESs= Jordanian non-English speakers, ENSs= English native speakers. **T** indicates the occurrence of negative sociopragmatic transfer *p < 0.05*

For the likelihood of apology acceptance by the offended party one-way ANOVA results showed that   there are significant differences among the three groups in all categories. In Category 1, post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the three groups have significant mean differences among each other. JL2Ss assessed the likelihood of apology acceptance significantly higher than JNESs did and JNESs assessed the possibility of apology significantly higher than ENSs did (F 2, 117=647.3828, p = 0.000). Similarly, in Category 2, post hoc pair comparisons revealed that both Jordanian groups assessed the likelihood of apology acceptance significantly higher than ENSs group did (F 2, 117=497.628, p = 0.000).   Negative sociopragmatic transfer occurred in this category. That is, while there is no significant difference between JL2Ss and JNESs, there is significant difference between both Jordanian group and ENSs. In Category 3, post hoc pair comparisons revealed that the three groups have significant mean differences among each other. JL2Ss assessed the likelihood of apology acceptance significantly lower than JNESs did. Moreover, JNESs assessed the likelihood of apology acceptance significantly higher than ENSs did (F 2, 117=18.324, p = 0.000). This analysis indicates that Jordanians highly expect their apology to be accepted by the offended parties while ENSs do not expect high likelihood for their apologies to be accepted. This might be attributed to the cultural differences in the perception of the contextual variables.

4. Discussion

The study revealed that there are some similarities and differences between English and Arabic Jordanian cultures. This reflects the common belief that each culture has its own distinctive cultural traits. This is based on the findings showed that there are significant mean differences among the three

groups regarding their perception of the four context-internal variables. These cultural similarities and differences demonstrate that each culture has its own perceptive norms that differentiate it from the other cultures. Findings revealed that even though the JL2Ss are highly proficient in English they still lack the required sociopragmatic knowledge while apologizing in the target language. Analysis showed that the perception of the contextual variables is a very significant factor affecting the realization of apology strategies by each culture. Firstly, the analysis of perception of the four contextual variables showed that both Jordanian groups assessed these variables significantly lower than ENSs. Moreover, analysis indicated that social power influences the Jordanian participants' perception of the contextual variables more than ENSs. Both Jordanian groups who have high and equal social power consider the offence as not sever when it is committed against their low and equal social power interlocutors respectively. By contract, ENSs considered the offence as very severe under all offensive situations and thus they produced more apology expressions to the other offended parties. According to Koester and Lustig (2010), and Spencer-Oatey (2012), to understand the values and behaviours of a specific speech community, the underlying assumptions of this speech community should be investigated since these underlying assumptions determine how the members of the speech community perceive, think and feel. Therefore, investigating the overall similarities and differences between Jordanian and English cultures sheds light on these cultural differences, perceptive attitudes and values that each culture possesses.

As for the similarities, the three groups of participants show agreement in their lower assessment to the difficulty of apology by the offender. This indicates that there is a cross-cultural and sociopragmatic agreement between Jordanian and English cultures; both cultures members shared almost the same conceptual values and perception since they clearly expressed their tendency to apologize once the offence occurs. Negative sociopragmatic transfer occurred in all variables except difficulty of apology which is found to be agreed-upon variable by both Jordanian and English cultures.

In terms of differences, both Jordanian groups assessed severity of the offence and possibility of apology variables almost similar to each other and significantly lower than ENSs assessment. This reflects a variation by Jordanian participants regarding their perception of the severity of the offence under different offensive situations whereas ENSs consider the offence as very severe under all offensive situations. Furthermore, significant differences among groups occurred concerning the likelihood of apology acceptance variable, that is, both Jordanian groups assessed this variable almost similar to each other and significantly higher than ENSs assessment. This might be due to the nature of Jordanian culture as a collectivist culture that is highly concerned about the role of the group more than the role of the individual (Al-Adaileh, 2007; Al-Momani, 2009; Al-Shboul, 2013). However, this is not the case for ENSs who assigned low rating for their apology to be accepted and did not highly expect apology acceptance from their offended parties.

ENSs' responses might demonstrate the individual orientation of English society whereas Jordanians responses might show the collectivist orientation of Jordanian society. This collectivism and individualism dichotomy is widely adopted in investigating the similarities and differences in cross-cultural communications. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (1991) comment that: "Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose; everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-group relations (p.51)". This claim is further supported by Peetz (2010) who explains 202 that the members of collectivist cultures are highly concerned about the cooperation with the other members of the group, by contrast, in individual cultures the attitudes of the members are self-referential more than group referential.

5. Conclusion

In sum, the findings of the present study imply that the perception of apology by JL2Ss is not fully developed from the perspective of the native speaker judges in this study since there are significant differences and negative pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2 in both perception levels. This suggests that L2Ss need opportunities to have considerable input of English speech acts and practice those speech acts in order to be pragmatically competent in L2 English.

In the present study, JL2Ss committed negative sociopragmatic transfer while apologizing in English, which implies that they still did not acquire the needed pragmatic knowledge regarding their high proficiency in English, hence, pragmatic instruction is required to overcome the L1 transfer and avoid the pragmatic failure. Findings could benefit EFL course designers and teachers to develop EFL curricula in Jordan that incorporate pragmatic instruction into the teaching and learning materials. This may remedy the lack of pragmatic knowledge of the target language and exposure to other cultures in the existing EFL textbooks, especially the ones used to teaching JL2Ss (Al-Momani, 2009; Bradovi-Harlig, 2012; Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1992) and thus, improve JL2Ss pragmatic knowledge and reduce pragmatic failure across cultures.

The findings of this study should be interpreted in light of its limitations. All Jordanian participants were male postgraduate students divided into high English proficiency and low English proficiency. Thus, a more varied population of various educational levels and different gender might give different results but this could be confirmed by future studies. Regardless of its limitations, this particular study has revealed valuable insights concerning the Jordanian sociopragmatic competence in the speech act of apology.

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Ürdünlü ikinci dil konuşmacıları tarafından özür dileme söz edimi algısı üzerindeki sosyal gücün etkisi

Öz

Bu çalışmada sosyal güç olarak, sosyal hiyerarşinin, 40 Ürdünlü İngilizce seviyeleri düşük olan kişi, anadili İngilizce olan 40 kişi (ENSs) , ve 40 Ürdünlü ikinci dil konuşmacısı (JL2S) tarafından özür dileme söz edimi algılanmasına etkilerinin araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Üç katılımcı grubundan veri elde etmek için Söylem Tamamlama Testi (DCT) ve Ölçekli Yanıt Anketi (SRQ) kullanılmıştır. Veri analizi için tek yönlü ANOVA, post hoc çifti karşılaştırmaları istatistiksel testler kullanıldı. Ürdün Arapçası ve İngiliz İngilizcesi kültürleri arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıklar tespit edildi. Ürdünlü katılımcılar üzerinde sosyal gücün etkisi, ENS'lerden önemli ölçüde daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, üç grup arasında dört iç-iç değişkene ilişkin algılarına ilişkin anlamlı farklılıklar da bulunmuştur. Dahası, sonuçlar, JL2S'lerin İngilizce'de oldukça yetkin olmasına rağmen, yine de sosyo-pratmatik olarak negatif sosyo-pragmatik transfere yol açan gerekli sosyopragmatik yetkinlikten yoksun olduklarını göstermiştir. Çalışma, bazı pedagojik sonuçları, EFL kurs tasarımcılarının ve öğretmenlerinin Ürdün'de EFL müfredatı geliştirmek için fayda sağlayabileceklerini ve bu durumun JL2S'lerin hedef dil ile ilgili pragmatik bilgi eksikliğini giderebilecek ve kültürler arası pragmatik başarısızlığı azaltabileceğini gösterdi.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sosyal güç; algı; DCT; SRQ; pragmatik transfer

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Oh no! Not ready to speak! An investigation on the major factors of foreign language classroom anxiety and the relationship between anxiety and age

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Abstract

Despite the numerous studies investigating the nature of anxiety and its relationship with several age groups in the context of foreign language classroom anxiety, these two subjects are still in need of further quantitative investigation. Accordingly, the current study investigated the major factors that lead to students' foreign language classroom anxiety levels, and the possible relationship between anxiety and age. To do this, Horwitz's (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was distributed to the third-year students of the English Language and Literature Department of a state university in the Oral Communication II course. The data obtained were investigated by both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures to reveal the major factors of foreign language classroom anxiety and its possible relationship with age. The results indicated unusual findings which are due to be beneficial for the interests of foreign language teaching researchers.

Keywords: Anxiety; foreign language classroom anxiety; individual differences

1. Introduction

For more than three decades, anxiety has been paid utmost importance by foreign language teaching researchers among all other affective factors that influence language learning. Although numerous studies were implemented to understand its true nature (Tallon, 2009), it was not until the development of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) in 1986 that foreign language teaching researchers attained a new reliable and valid way for measurement of foreign language anxiety (Wu, 2010). This scale developed by Elaine K. Horwitz, Michael B. Horwitz, and Joann Cope made it possible to differentiate foreign language anxiety from other forms of the concept. Therefore, it became possible to detect a clear association between anxiety and foreign language learning in multifarious studies (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Aida 1994; MacIntyre, 1999; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 2000; Nitko, 2001; Ewald, 2007; Ansari, 2015).

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One of the three fundamental types of anxiety – trait, state, and situation specific – classified by Spilberger in 1966, foreign language classroom anxiety, as a kind of situation specific one, has long been a case of investigation in terms of four skills of language teaching - reading, writing, listening, speaking- (Sellers, 2000; Cheng, 2002; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Phillips, 1992). Either about its source or its effects on foreign language teaching, considerable research has targeted anxiety (Young, 1991a; Vogely, 1998; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 1999; Yan & Horwitz, 2008; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Liu & Chen, 2015). There is, nevertheless, still additional need for further investigations to determine the extent to which anxiety plays its role in foreign language teaching.

Accordingly, the aim of this study is to contribute to the literature with the new findings for the following research questions:

Q1. Which factors of FLCAS play the major role on students' FLCA levels?

Q2. Is there a statistically significant relation between the students' FLCA levels and their ages?

1.1. Literature review

The association between anxiety and foreign language learning is generally reported to be negative (Krashen, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Price, 1991; Gregersen, 2003; Woodrow, 2006; Awan, Azher, Anwar & Naz, 2010; Lien, 2011; Mohammadi Golchi, 2012; Liu, 2013; Tallon, 2014; Liu & Chen, 2015). However, it is also possible to list some research that reports the positive aspects of anxiety as far as foreign language learning is concerned (Kleinmann, 1977; Bailey, 1983; Young, 1986; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Lian & Budin, 2014), which highlights the necessity for further investigations on the subject.

It is also possible to classify the research in terms of four skills of language teaching. Although less frequent than other skills reading skill is also affected by anxiety in foreign language teaching contexts (Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Sellers, 2000; Brantmeier, 2005; Rajab, Zakaria, Rahman, Hosni & Hassani, 2012; Javanbakht, & Hadian, 2014). More frequent than reading but not prevalent as speaking, anxiety also affects listening skill during foreign language teaching (Young, 1992; MacIntyre, 1995; Vogely, 1998; Campbell, 1999; Chang, 2008a;2008b; 2010; Kimura, 2008; Gonen, 2009; Arnold, 2000; Kim, 2000; Atasheneh & Izadi, 2012; Mohammadi Golchi, 2012). Writing being the case it seems to be a little bit problematic than listening skill (Daly & Miller, 1975; Wu, 1992; Bruning & Horn, 2000; Schweiker-Marra & Marra, 2000; Hassan, 2001; DeDeyn, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Kara, 2013; Yastıbaş & Yastıbaş, 2015). As generally acknowledged speaking sticks out to be the most problematic skill that anxiety inhibits in the context of foreign language teaching (Young, 1991b; Philips, 1992; Zhanibek, 2001; Huang, 2004; Wilson, 2006; Woodrow, 2006; Balemir, 2009; Sioson, 2011; Bozavlı.& Gülmez, 2012; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Suleimenova, 2013; Çağatay, 2015).

2. Method

The aim of this study is to explore the factors which play a major role on students' FLCA levels and shed light on the relation between students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their ages. In this sense, Oral Communication II course of the English Language and Literature Department of a state University was selected as a model. Following a 14-week Oral Communication II course, FLCAS was handed in to the third-year students of the abovementioned department. The data showing students' attitudes concerning their anxiety levels were examined through statistical procedures to

explore the factors that play a major role on students' FLCA levels and investigate the relation between students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their ages.

2.1. Sample / Participants

The number of the participants in the present study was 146. Generally, the majority of the English Language and Literature Department usually consist of female students. Hence, the majority of the participants were females (n=93). It is obligatory that the students of the program be successful in a placement test that justifies their level of proficiency regarding English before their admission to the department. In this sense, the participants of the current study were all acknowledged to be proficient in English despite their label of non-native speakers. Accordingly, all of the participants were supposed to be almost at the same proficiency level.

2.2. Instrument(s)

The data of the current study were gathered through Horwitz's FLCAS. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to determine the factors that play a major role on students' FLCA levels as well as any possible association of the students' attitudes towards their foreign language classroom anxiety and their ages. Horwitz's Foreign language classroom anxiety scale consists of 33 questions each of which was responded to as 1) Strongly Disagree 2) Disagree 3) Not Decided 4) Agree 5) Strongly Agree in line with their evaluation of their anxiety levels associated with the Oral Communication II classes. The original scale was constructed by Elaine K. Horwitz, Michael B. Horwitz, and Joann Cope for a similar study in 1986.

2.3. Data collection procedures

Before the distribution of the questionnaire the third-year students attended Oral Communication II course for 14 weeks. At the very beginning of the course the students were informed that they were expected to feel free to commit mistakes during their communication attempts. In this way, a more compromising tone was provided to make students feel both confident and fervent for participation in the class. During each class, in a sincere tone of conversation concise grammar revisions were realized where necessary. To overcome the students' grammar gap and to integrate the new information with its contextual usage, this was supposed to be more effectual than long boring grammar lessons. Furthermore, an additional self-study guide-book was recommended with the intention to develop their academic vocabulary.

All in all, following the permission procedure of the related University in the Fall term of 2016-2017, the third-year students of the English Language and Literature Department were distributed 146 copies of a three-page questionnaire. All of the questionnaires were returned to the researcher without any loss.

2.4. Data analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 22.0. was used during the data analysis of the current study. The original scale was constructed for a well-known previous study carried out by one of the choice experts in the field. Thus, neither the reliability nor the validity of the scale was exposed to additional statistical procedures. The statistical results attained from the study are all submitted in the tables with the abbreviations: statistics frequency with (f); number of participants with (N), mean with (Mean), mean difference with (Mean Diff.), standard deviation with (Std. D.), standard error with (Std. Err.), standard error mean with (Std. Err. Mean), standard error difference with (Std. Err. Diff.), F statistics with (F), degrees of freedom with (df), significance (p) value of Levene's Test with (Sig.),

95% Confidence Interval of the Difference with (95% Con. Inter. Diff.), the two-tailed p value associated with the t-test with (Sig. (2-tailed)).

3. Result

3.1. Q1. Which factors play a major role on students' FLCA levels?

The results submitted in Table 1. signify that the majority of the participants (35) evaluate the most prominent factor for FLCA as the first item of FLCAS which is about speaking without preparation in language classes. The second highest frequency (26) is about students' anxiety about failing foreign language class while the third highest frequency (23), very similar to the second one, designates students' anxiety about questions asked by their teacher requiring instant answers without giving time for preparation. As for the fourth highest frequency (20), it is concerned with students' anxiety about peer competition which makes them feel their peers are better in speaking performance. Finally, the fifth and last highest frequency (20) points to their worry against their listening comprehension ability which may sometimes make them fall short of understanding spoken foreign words by their teacher. Table 1. embraces only the highest frequencies among the 33 items. Therefore, only five frequencies that outstripped the others with the most striking frequency values are listed in the table.

Table 1. Students' views on the source of their anxiety

Categories	f
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language classes.	35
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	26
33. I feel nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	23
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	20
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	20

3.2. Q2. Is there a statistically significant relation between the students' FLCA levels, and their ages?

Table 2. screens no significant correlation between the students' age and FLCA levels [Mean = 3.04 (Group A); m= 3.02 (Group B]. The similar mean values of the two groups denote minor differences for the students in terms of age differences. This indicates no significant correlation between the students' FLCA levels and their ages.

Table2. Descriptive Statistics for FLCA levels and Age

	Age Groups of the Participants	N	Mean	Std. D.	Std. Err. Mean
Attitudes Mean	Group A (from 18 to 22)	121	3.04	0.41	0.03
	Group B (23 and above)	10	3.02	0.38	0.12

As the variances of Group A and Group B are checked by Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, Table 2 reveals no diversity between the two groups with a p value=0.55 which is within the limits of the confidence interval with a value above p=0.05. Then, the t-test for Equality of Means reveals a

similar p value=0.86 which again stays within the limits of the confidence interval with a higher value than p=0.05. These results conclude that there is no significant correlation between the students' FLCA levels and their ages.

Table 3. t-test for two Independent Samples in terms of Age

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means						
Attitudes Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Err. Diff.	95% Con. Inter. Diff. Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0.35	0.55	0.17	129	0.86	0.23	0.13	-.24	0.29
Equal variances not assumed			0.18	10.779	0.86	0.23	0.12	-.26	0.30

4. Discussion

The findings of the present study revealed that of the majority (5) of the most effective factors that cause anxiety speaking skill sticks out to be the most striking one with three highest frequencies respectively: item 9 (f=35), item 33 (f=23), item 23 (f=20). This situation is no surprisingly consistent with the findings in the literature (Sioson, 2011; Bozavlı & Gülmez, 2012; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Suleimenova, 2013; Çağatay, 2015). As for the second highest factor that leads to anxiety, it appears to be the students' anxiety against performance which has direct association with their achievement scores: item 10 (f=26). Yet, this factor is valid for all types of other courses and it can refer to all other branches aside from foreign language teaching. Thus, it cannot be a definite indicator of FLCA exclusively. Finally, the last highest frequency points to the students' anxiety against listening skill: item 29 (f=20). The students' anxiety about listening skill may be complimentary to their anxiety about their speaking skill. Therefore, this may be due to a close relationship with their FLCA levels of speaking and listening tasks in the classroom.

Table 4. Students' views on the source of their anxiety

Categories	f
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language classes.	35
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	26

33. I feel nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	23
23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	20
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	20

There is little if any research in the literature that investigates any possible relationship between age and anxiety in the context of foreign language teaching (Er, 2015) although age is acknowledged to be an important factor in learning a new language among the foreign language teaching researchers (Krashen, 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Yet, several studies have shown both positive and negative correlation between age and foreign language speaking anxiety (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Chan & Wu, 2004; Xiuqin, 2006; Huberty, 2004; Ay, 2010).

The findings of the current study reveal no significant correlation between students age and their FLCA levels. This leads also to the conclusion that there is no difference in terms of different age groups when anxiety is the case on the subject of foreign language teaching. In other words, the age groups attending the same course share the same anxiety level in the face of FLCA. The results may most likely result from the homogeneous age distribution pertaining to the students that attend the course. Still, even slight differences regarding age among students at university level are due to bring about different anxiety levels (Onwuegbuzie, et al., 1999). What is more, there is a conception among researchers that the older the students the more they are exposed to anxiety even though the findings of the current study is not consistent with this acknowledgement.

5. Conclusions

There are three fundamental limitations regarding the present study:

In the first place, the current study rests on a Likert scale, an ordinal scale which is usually substituted for interval scales in the field of social science. Such an application is so common among researchers that most often they disregard the fact that it would be more stable to use such scales for descriptive statistics only. Likert scales would not be just as good selections as ordinal scales for inferential studies as they cannot be precise to an equal extent with ordinal ones. Nonetheless, some part of the current study involves inferential statistics, and thus, the findings of the study may not provide the results with a perfect precision.

Then in the second place, the current study is limited to merely at university level students which would not be an indication for college or primary level evaluations since there is a widely accepted acknowledgement that age factor does affect the anxiety level of the participants of a study although this was not valid for the present study.

Last but not least, the current study is realized in an EFL environment, which would naturally give discrete results in an ESL context. Therefore, the factors that play the major role on students' FLCA levels would inevitable show divergence in such an environment depending on the students' self-confidence.

Consequently, taking the abovementioned limitations into consideration, it may be asserted that the unusual findings of the present study would contribute to the literature especially when the gap regarding the age factor in the literature is taken into consideration.

As an implication for further studies again age factor may be recommended that it be investigated at different levels of education such as primary or high school courses or with students at different university years.

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Ah hayır! Konuşmaya hazır değilim! Yabancı dil sınıf kaygısının başlıca etkenleri ve kaygının yaşla ilişkisi üzerine bir araştırma

Öz

Kaygının doğasını ve yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı bağlamında çeşitli yaş grupları ile ilişkisini araştıran sayısız çalışmaya rağmen bu iki konu hala ilave nicel araştırmaya ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Böylelikle, mevcut çalışma öğrencilerin yabancı dil sınıf kaygılarına neden olan başlıca etkenleri ve kaygı ile yaş arasındaki muhtemel ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Bunu gerçekleştirmek için Horwitz'e (1986) ait olan Yabancı Dil Sınıf İçi Kaygı Ölçeği bir devlet üniversitesinin İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü'nün üçüncü sınıf öğrencilerine Sözlü İletişim II dersinde dağıtılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler yabancı dil sınıf kaygısının etkenlerini ve yaşla muhtemel ilişkisini ortaya çıkarmak için betimsel ve çıkarımsal istatistik yöntemleri ile incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, yabancı dil öğretimi araştırmacılarının ilgisine faydalı olabileceği düşünülen, sıra dışı bulgular göstermiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Kaygı; yabancı dil sınıf kaygısı; bireysel farklılıklar

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The effects of learning a second language on the first: The case of increased metalinguistic awareness

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Abstract

The present study aims to test if Turkish L2 users of English judge the grammaticality of generic/habitual real conditionals in Turkish differently compared to Turkish monolinguals. Bassetti and Cook (2011) and Bialystok (2001) claim that one of the outcomes of being a bilingual is an increase in metalinguistic awareness. Accordingly, this study investigates if Turkish L2 users have an increased metalinguistic awareness. 20 grammaticality judgment tasks are analysed in data analysis. The participants are university-graduate 15 Turkish monolinguals and 15 Turkish L2 users of English. The responses are evaluated via both descriptive statistics and also SPSS. The analysis indicates that the difference between the monolinguals and L2 users in the judgement of Turkish conditionals is a statistically significant one. This result suggests that learning an L2 has an effect on the L1 of L2 users. This implies that L2 users are a distinctive group of people with regard to their language knowledge.

1. Introduction

1.1. Theoretical background and justification

There are many studies in the literature which focus on the effects of learning another language. However, the studies of cross-linguistic influence have generally studied the effects of the first language (L1) on the second language (L2) and there are so few studies on the effects of L2 on L1 (Altmisdort, 2016; Liu and Ni, 2016; Pinto, 2014; Van Hell and Djikstra, 2002). So, this area needs much more research and this study will be a contribution to this literature. Cook (2003) mentions four distinctive characteristics of L2 users1 compared to the monolinguals. The third suggestion, which is the focus of this study, states that L2 users' L1 is in some ways not the same as that of a monolingual

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1 The term 'L2 user', in accordance with Cook's (2003) idea of 'users', puts the focus on a bilingual's ability to use his/her L2 in daily life without any significant difficulty unlike traditional definitions of L2 learner which see the language knowledge of beginner or intermediate learners as incomplete.

(section 2.2). This proposition of Multi-Competence Theory (hereafter MCT) suggests that L2 users' first language knowledge is not the same as the knowledge of monolinguals. The reason is learning another language has effects on the L1 just like the L1 has effects on an L2 (e.g. Cook et al., 2003; Hartsuiker et al., 2004). One significant effect of learning an L2 on the L1 L2 users is the increase in metalinguistic awareness (Bassetti and Cook, 2011; Bialystok, 2001). Learning another language increases the 'awareness' of a speaker of his/her L1 as learning an L2 also requires reflecting upon one's mother tongue.

To conclude, the L2 influence on L1 has been studied extensively. However, there is a need in more studies to understand nature of L2 effect on L1. Accordingly, this study set out to test if the judgment of Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals in Turkish by monolingual and Turkish L2 users of English differs in order to understand if there is a difference in their metalinguistic awareness. The results of this study will be a contribution to the studies focusing on the effects of L2 on L1, specifically with regard to metalinguistic awareness and the effects of bilingualism.

1.2. Research questions

The main purpose of this study is to find an answer to the following research question:

"Do Turkish L2 users of English judge the grammaticality of Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals differently compared to monolingual Turkish speakers?"

This study also has a secondary research question:

"Do Turkish monolingual speakers judge the grammaticality of present tenses in generic/habitual real conditionals as described in prescriptive Turkish grammar books?"

The first research question aims to test if L2 users have an increased metalinguistic awareness in accordance with Cook's MCT (2003) which suggests that L2 also has an effect on L1 and one of these effects is increased metalinguistic awareness. The second research question is also important in that, to my knowledge, other than prescriptive grammar books (e.g. Kerslake and Goksel, 2005; Lewis, 2000), there are not any studies on the properties of Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals as judged by the monolingual speakers. Therefore, it would be a good contribution to study what monolingual speakers really think of the grammaticality of generic/habitual real conditionals which would enable the researcher to compare and contrast it with the descriptions in the prescriptive grammar books.

1.3. Review of the Relevant Literature

1.3.1. Multi-competence theory

The term multi-competence is used to indicate the knowledge of the two or more languages in a bilingual's mind (Cook, 1991). MCT argues that a bilingual's L1 and L2 are processed by the same mind. Consequently, the two languages form a super-system and these languages affect each other. MCT, accordingly, argues that L2 users' L1 knowledge is different than the monolingual native speakers' knowledge. The reason is an L2 user already has a language in his/her mind and this naturally affects the acquisition of other languages and also learning another language has some effects on L1 just like L1 has effects on L2. This means that the languages of an L2 user affect each other and consequently, L2 users have a unique knowledge of their L1 and L2 compared to monolinguals.

The L2 influence on L1 is less obvious and it is more difficult to detect compared to the effects of L1 on L2 (Cook, 2003). However, the examples of the studies that support MCT show that L2 effect on L1 exists (Altmisdort, 2016; Laufer, 2003; Liu and Ni, 2016; Pinto, 2014; Van Hell and Djikstra, 2002). This feature of L2 users is one of the main focuses of MCT and in fact, it is MCT which is one

of the few models/theories that has a systematic and focused approach to study the L2 influence on L1. Kecskes and Papp's (2002) Common Underlying Conceptual Base and Jessner's (2003) Dynamic Model of Multilingualism also focus on L2 influence on L1, but they are more concerned about cognitive and psychological aspects of bilingualism unlike MCT which aims to study the L2 effects on L1 in terms of second language acquisition.

1.3.2. Characteristics of L2 users and metalinguistic awareness

MCT sees L2 users as distinct people in their own right. In the seminal book *Portraits of the L2 User* edited by Cook (2002), it is suggested that L2 users have a different language system and neither their L1 nor their L2 is like the monolinguals of those languages. Therefore, some characteristics of L2 users will be discussed below.

Firstly, L2 users have other uses of languages compared to monolinguals. Knowing two different languages enables L2 users to perform some specific activities that monolinguals cannot. One obvious example is code-switching (Cook, 2002). Code-switching may have many uses for a bilingual such as structuring talk, showing social-group membership, checking understanding and using one of his/her languages to supplement the other in case of a communication breakdown (Akkaya and Atar, 2015; Cromdal, 2001; Macaro, 2005). In this respect, code-switching is a significant gain of an L2 user. Similarly, translation is another ability of L2 users. L2 users can read something in their L2 and translate it into their L1 or they can listen to something in their L1 and translate it to another person who speaks his/her L2. So, it can be argued that L2 users have some advantages and different abilities thanks to being bilinguals.

Another distinctive characteristic of L2 users is that they have different and unique knowledge about their L1 compared to monolinguals. Acquiring another language causes cognitive changes in L2 users' minds and this gives way to increased metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness is knowing and reflecting upon the use of language. It is the awareness which requires realizing that languages have a certain structure and that there may be correct or incorrect uses of languages (Bialystok, 2001). In the literature, metalinguistic awareness is assessed generally via phonological awareness and syntactic awareness (e.g. Mcguiness, 2005). While phonological awareness focuses on knowledge about sounds, syntactic awareness is related to the form and grammaticality of utterances.

Bilinguals tend to have a higher level of metalinguistic awareness as they have to focus on both their mother tongue and also the target language to learn a new language (Chen et al., 2004). For instance, Kesckes and Papp (2000) have shown that bilingual Hungarian children use more complex sentences syntactically compared to monolingual Hungarian children. Furthermore, Cook (2002) suggests that L2 users think more flexibly and they have better communication skills in their L1. On the other hand, some researchers claim that being a bilingual changes the cognitive system, but in a negative way. For example, Makarec and Persinger (1993) claim that male bilinguals had some memory deficiencies compared to monolinguals. In the same vein Magiste (1986) and Randsdell and Fischler (1987) also claim that L2 users have some cognitive deficits compared to monolingual native speakers. However, these are relatively older studies and most of the recent studies argue that L2 users do not have deficit rather, they have their own unique systems (see Cook, 2003 for details). Some other studies which claim that learning an L2 has negative effects on L1 focus on issues such as language attrition or language loss (e.g. Laufer, 2003; Porte, 2003) rather than the direct effect of learning an L2. However, language attrition and language loss is more related to the socio-cultural conditions of a person. For instance, a person may have a weaker command of his/her L1 or s/he may even lose it when s/he is submersed into an environment where his/her L1 is rarely used.

To sum up, in the literature there are some studies focusing on the negative effects of learning another language, but these are more focused on the L1 of migrants or international workers whose L1

is negatively affected by the scare exposure to their L1. Therefore, it may be concluded here that most of the studies in the literature argues that metalinguistic awareness is a positive effect and it has certain benefits for the L1 of bilinguals. To my knowledge, the focus of this study, the grammaticality judgement of Turkish conditionals by monolingual Turkish speakers and Turkish L2 users of English with regard to metalinguistic awareness, has not been studied previously. Consequently, this study sets out to test if there is a difference between monolingual Turkish speakers and Turkish L2 users of English with regard to Turkish conditionals. In this sense, this study will be a contribution to both metalinguistic awareness studies and also the studies on bilingualism generally.

1.3.3. *Habitual/generic real conditionals in Turkish*

Habitual/generic real conditionals are the conditional structures which are used in cases which are almost certain to happen under certain circumstances (Lewis, 2000). Unlike the 'unreal' conditionals, they make an assumption about a 'real' possibility. As for their morphological properties in Turkish, firstly, and most importantly, as an agglutinative language Turkish expresses conditionals with a conditional suffix -(y)sA[†] added to an inflected verb unlike English (Kerslake and Goksel, 2005). In English the conditional conjunction 'if' itself and the tenses used in the main and conditional clauses determine the type of the conditional while in Turkish the conditional suffix and tense markers are added to the verb of the conditional clause.

In Turkish habitual/generic real conditionals the aorist marker, which is the present tense equivalent of English which denotes a habitual meaning, followed by the conditional suffix is used. To exemplify:

Turkish: (Eğer) suyu   ısıtır**sa**n,   kaynamaya   başlar.

      If   water   heat (you)   boil   (it) starts

(Simple present tense+**Conditional**+2nd person singular) (Simple present tense+3rd person singular)

Meaning: If you heat water, it starts boiling (habitual, general time)

To conclude, in Turkish generic/habitual conditionals present tenses followed by conditional suffix is used to express conditional status. This is similar to English in that present tenses are used in the conditional clause, but Turkish also utilizes the conditional suffix.

2. Method

2.1. *Sample / Participants*

While choosing participants for a study which aims at seeing the effect of learning an L2 on the L1, it is really important to contrast two similar groups, the only difference being the topic of the research (Cook, 2003). Consequently, two similar sample groups are designed in order to ensure that the only variable is their proficiency in English. Sampling is a very complex process. One of the most important things in a research is to balance the sampling method and the objective of the study. Regarding the difficulty of finding participants of the same background, convenience sampling (Atar, Erdem and Koçyiğit, 2017) is used to find the participants. As the study has already defined the properties of the participants –university graduate monolinguals (or those who have a very low level

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[†] A is capitalized in the conditional suffix to show its variation between 'a' and 'e' depending on vowel harmony in Turkish.

of proficiency and no regular contact with English) or bilinguals- convenience sampling provided participant groups quickly and efficiently in accordance with the study aims. The monolingual participants are 15 teachers from two schools in Turkey and bilingual participants are 15 Turkish people who lives in the UK. All the bilingual participants actively 'use' English in their daily life and they are L2 'users' (Cook, 2003) while monolinguals have almost no contact with English as concluded from the Biodata form that they have filled prior to the study (Appendix A).

However, one flaw of convenience sampling is that the participants are not generalizable to all monolingual or bilingual Turkish speakers because they represent only a restricted number of speakers who have a specific socio-economic and education background. However as explained above, in order to choose similar groups which are appropriate for this study, convenience sampling provided appropriate and comparable groups of 15 monolingual and bilingual speakers. Indeed, it is necessary to do some convenience sampling and case-control matching in linguistic studies as the nature of this research requires it (Ross et al., 2012).

2.2. Instruments and data collection procedures

The instrument of this study is 20 Grammaticality Judgment Tasks (GJT) which provide 3 options for each context. The options either include a present tense usage (the grammatical one) or a future tense usage (the ungrammatical one) or they may have an irrelevant condition. The participants are expected to judge and rate the grammaticality of the tense usages in accordance with the contexts.

GJTs are very useful in linguistic studies and they give precious information about the comprehension of a speaker (Guasti 2004; Han, 2000; Sorace, 1996). GJTs are the appropriate method for this study to find out how the L1 of Turkish L2 users of English has changed. In addition, GJTs are really good at assessing an L2 learner's current grammar level, and the patterns obtained by GJTs provide very useful insights about participants' interlanguage and linguistic system (Schütze, 1996). GJTs may be criticized as they do not require production and they do not allow the researchers to obtain natural language data. However, the position of this paper is that GJTs provide information about one's language aspects such as knowing what is grammatical or not which cannot easily be deduced by production tasks. In this way, GJTs provide negative evidence on certain aspects of grammar that cannot be found in the natural language (Golato, 2003).

However, even if GJTs are the appropriate research instruments for this study, regarding the nature of the hypothesis of this study, it was essential that some contexts were added to GJTs. GJTs are typically made up of a single sentence and participants judge its grammaticality. However, as this study focuses on generic/habitual conditionals which are really difficult to distinguish from predictive conditionals without a very clear context (Kerslake and Goksel, 2005), this study took up an original design and accordingly context paragraphs are added to each of the 20 tasks to clarify the contexts. The contexts in all tasks have three following sentences (which were ensured to contain a habitual reading by using the references Kerslake and Goksel, 2005; Lewis, 2000) to be judged and a scale from 1 to 6 is provided for each of the sentences. However, instead of giving numbers, some expressions are assigned for the scale. Very bad is for 1, bad for 2, sounds bad but, it may be used for 3, sounds weird but it is used for 4, sounds good for 5 and very good for 6. The reason for using words rather than numbers is that, as this is a GJT, it is very important to find out what the participants think about the structures. Using expressions like 'sounds bad but, it may be used' helps the participants express how they judge the option better (Sorace and Keller, 2005; Tremblay, 2005). In case of giving numbers, they are more open to subjective interpretation unlike verbal expressions, because while 3 may be a low point for a participant, it may mean fine for another participant. One more point to mention about the contexts is that as the focus of this study is directly related to tense usage, modals

are deliberately excluded in the tasks because they are finite structures and thus they cannot have tense inflection (Aarts, 2011).

The tasks analysed in this study consist of two groups: tasks about generic/habitual real conditionals in Turkish and tasks on relative clauses.

The first group includes the contexts which focus on real conditionals and these tasks aim to test the use of present tenses in the conditional clauses. The aim here is to see if there is a difference in monolinguals' and L2 users' rating regarding the use of present tenses (the grammatical one) and future tense (the ungrammatical option). The results of these two groups give the researcher the chance to compare the two groups in terms of the processing of generic/habitual conditionals which is the main research question of this study. The results of these tasks will also realize the secondary aim: Although conditionals are described thoroughly in prescriptive Turkish grammar books, there is no empirical data which tests how Turkish speakers judge these structures. The second group of tasks is ten distracters whose aim is to prevent participants from understanding that the tasks are trying to assess the use of conditionals. They test the acceptability of the relative clauses in Turkish and these tasks are not analysed in this study.

In the implementation process of the tasks, the participants were given information about what a GJT is and how they are going to do the tasks. How the tasks are going to be done was demonstrated by one example on blackboard to ensure that the participants really understand what was expected from them (for the monolinguals). The bilinguals completed the tasks online. Specifically, the fact that they should evaluate the sentences 'only' in accordance with the given context is emphasized several times. The reason for this is that in GJTs participants may easily come up with imaginary situations and this may affect the reliability of their answers (Tremblay, 2005)

2.3. Data analysis

This study is a hypothetical-deductive one as a hypothesis stemming from MCT will be tested. The data consist of quantitative data. Consequently, descriptive statistics and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) are used to show the difference between the grammaticality judgement of monolinguals and L2 users.

Table 1. Research questions and the instruments used

The research questions	The instruments used
Do Turkish L2 users of English judge the grammaticality of Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals differently compared to monolingual Turkish speakers?	Both monolinguals' and bilinguals' results will be compared and contrasted.
Do Turkish monolingual speakers use present tenses in real conditionals as described in traditional prescriptive Turkish grammar books?	Monolinguals' judgement of generic/habitual real conditionals will be compared and contrasted with regard to prescriptive grammar books.

In the data analysis firstly the mean, median and the standard deviation of the task results will be calculated. The results of the monolinguals and L2 users will be compared and contrasted in accordance with the research questions. Then, SPSS will be used to see whether the difference between monolinguals' and L2 users' grammaticality judgements for present and future tense usage in Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals is significant or not. SPSS can tell whether the difference

between the two groups are a genuine or an incidental one (Paltridge and Phakiti, 2010). Hence, SPSS will be used to justify the significance of the study results in this paper. Finally, for the second research question, the results of only the monolinguals are analysed and it is compared to the prescriptive grammar rules which are reviewed in section 2.3.

2.4. Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability aspects of any data collection method are of great significance to the findings of any scientific research (Dornyei, 2007). Validity and reliability issues serve as guarantees of the results of the participants' performances. Consequently, this study takes reliability and validity into consideration throughout the research process.

Validity is the extent to which the research instrument actually measures what it is to measure (Paltridge and Phakiti, 2010). The validity of a research suggests that inferences, interpretations and actions in a test are accurate on the basis of the data. In this study, in order to increase the validity of the tasks, a very detailed literature review was done. Having checked the literature on real conditionals in Turkish, the important points were checked and unrelated parts were excluded in the data collection instrument. In this study, in order to increase the validity of the tasks, a very detailed literature review was done. Having checked the literature on real conditionals in English and Turkish, the important points about generic/habitual and predictive conditionals were checked and unrelated parts were excluded. For example, in Turkish firstly it was made sure that future tenses are not used in the main clauses of predictive conditionals. Then it was found out that in Turkish future tenses are only possible when there is a meaning of certainty or deduction. So, it was made sure that these types of context were excluded to test the correct point about conditionals. In this way, the study measured what it intended to measure: the predictive conditionals with real possible contexts.

Reliability, which is defined as the consistency of test items and ratings (Ross et al., 2012), is also taken into consideration. In order to increase the reliability of the tasks, it was made sure that the contexts in the tasks were prepared accurately so that they yield the same responses in case of replication. The contexts were prepared as precise as possible and every detail about real conditionals in Turkish was taken into consideration to guarantee that unrelated issues do not cause the tasks to be rated lower or higher by chance. Also, a pilot study was undertaken before the main data collection. Considering the pilot study results, two of the tasks were changed. The reason is that the first task had a problem with its contextual clarity. As it is explained in the literature review part, in order to avoid future tense usage in the main clauses of predictive Turkish conditionals, any context which implies at a high possibility or some form of evidence has to be avoided because this would put the validity of the tasks at risk. The other task lacked providing a clear generic/habitual condition. It was about daily habits of a person, but as some of the pilot participants saw it also as a real possibility, it was suspected that its context is not clear enough to show a habitual/generic condition and consequently it was also replaced by another task. In addition, after the pilot study, the researcher of the study decided to add prompt sentences to most of the tasks wherever it is necessary. To explain, a context is given and participants are expected to rate it in tasks. In order to make the context much more clear, sentences like 'according to this general truth, the following sentences are said: ..' or 'in this context the speaker A says to B the following sentence: ..'. The aim of these prompts is to lead participants' focus on the condition by making the relationships in the context more precise and clear.

Another issue to be discussed in this section is external reliability. External reliability is concerned with checking if the results of a study can be generalized to other situations or participants (Paltridge and Phakiti, 2010). External validity is then about results' being consistent regardless of participants and settings. In this study, as convenience sampling is used and as only university-graduate

participants are chosen, it may seem that external reliability is a bit weak as this group of participants cannot be the representative of all the Turkish speakers. However, the participant characteristic, only university graduates, are decided from the initial stages of this study and this study does not claim that its results are generalizable to all bilingual Turkish speakers. Moreover, as Dornyei (2007) suggests, 15 participants is an enough number for a quantitative study and as long as they are representatives of 'their own' groups, a study does not have to provide results which can be generalized to the whole population. Taking all these points into consideration, it seems that the external validity of this research is robust as 15 participants can give reliable results for a population of the same background. Moreover, information about both the monolinguals and L2 users' exposure to English, the frequency of using English daily and knowing other languages are checked carefully in order to form comparable groups whose comparison yields quite reliable results (Appendix A).

Finally, as White (2003) explains, GJTs can easily be influenced by performance factors as both processing a grammatical structure and also dealing with a context at the same time substantially decrease their processing. In accordance with White's warning, the contexts of the tasks in the study were made as precise as possible to avoid filling participants' short term memory with too long contexts. This is an important factor for reliability and validity issues because if performance factors affect participants' performance, this will affect the results of the study.

3. Results

3.1. Monolinguals

The results of the monolinguals show that the average point for the grammaticality judgement of present tenses in habitual/generic contexts, the grammatical option, is 4,99 while it is 2,92 when future tenses, the ungrammatical options, are used (Chart 1). The standard deviation of the judgements of the use of present tenses is 0,44 and it is 0,59 for the usage of future tenses. The median for the present tense usage is 5 while it is around 2,8 for the usage of future tenses.
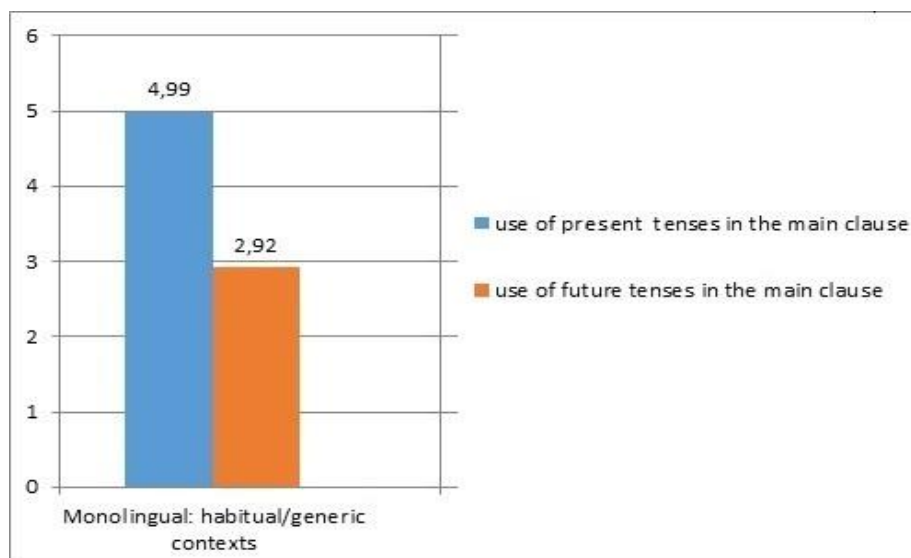

Chart 1. The results of monolinguals

As for the SPSS paired sample test results, as seen in SPSS Analysis 1 below, the significance of the difference between the acceptability of present and future tense usage is .000 at (p<0.05). The t-score is calculated as -9.039 which is higher than the 95% confidence interval.

SPSS Analysis 1. The difference between the grammaticality judgement of present and future tenses for monolinguals

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	VAR1 – VAR2	-2.05333	.87983	.22717	-2.54057	-1.56610	-9.039	14	.000

The results of the monolinguals presented in this section will be discussed in section 5 for both comparing it to the L2 users to see if there is a difference (the first research question) and also these results will be used to answer the second research question which aims at comparing the judgements of the monolinguals to prescriptive grammar books.

3.2. Bilinguals

As for the results for the bilinguals, as seen in Chart 2, the average acceptability rate of present tenses is 5,43 but, it is only 2.53 for future usage. The standard deviation is calculated as 0,34 for the present tense usage and 0,67 for future tenses. The median for present tenses is 5,4 and it is around 2,4 for future tenses.
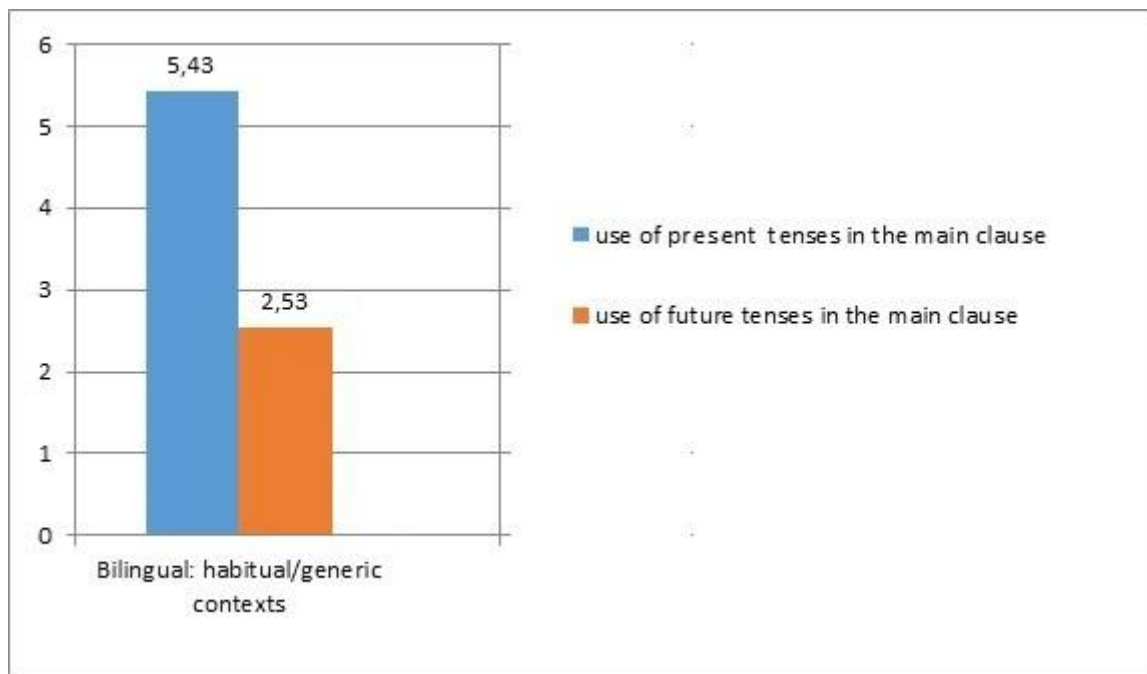

Chart 2. The results of Turkish L2 users of English

As for the SPSS results, the results in SPSS Analysis 2 show that the difference between the acceptability of present tense usage and future tense usage is significant at .000 (p< 0.05). The t-score is calculated as 11.910.

SPPS Analysis 2. The difference between the grammaticality judgement of present and future tenses for bilinguals

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	VAR1 – VAR2	2.82667	.91921	.23734	2.31762	3.33571	11.910	14	.000

3.3. The comparison of the monolinguals and the bilinguals

The findings above suggest that monolinguals and Turkish L2 users rate the acceptability of present tenses with much higher points compared to future tenses in habitual/generic conditionals and this difference has been shown to be significant. This finding is in accordance with the descriptions of Turkish generic/habitual conditionals in the literature (second research question). In Turkish, present tenses are the grammatical structure in the main clauses of habitual/generic conditionals and the study results show that the participants judge the grammaticality as Turkish grammar books suggest. However, although both groups accept the grammaticality of present tense usage and reject future tense usage, it is observed in the comparison of the results of monolinguals and L2 users that L2 users give higher points for the grammatical present tense structure and lower points for the ungrammatical future tense structure compared to monolinguals. For example, the average rating of monolinguals for present tenses is 4.99 (Chart 1) but, it is 5.43 (Chart 2) for L2 users. In the same vein, the average rating of monolinguals for future tenses, which is ungrammatical, is 2.92 and it is 2.53 for the L2 users. These differences show that L2 users give more points for the grammatical present tense structures and lower points for the ungrammatical future tenses. This observation supports the claims of Bassetti and Cook (2011) and Bialystok (2001) about the metalinguistic awareness issue. Bassetti and Cook (2011) and Bialystok (2001) claim that one of the outcomes of being bilingual is an increase in metalinguistic awareness. However, it must be ensured that this difference between the monolinguals and L2 users is also statistically significant as the differences above alone cannot be interpreted as a significant difference. In order to have a clearer idea about this observation, two further SPSS tests are conducted to see if this difference is statistically significant.

SPSS Analysis 3. The comparison of monolinguals and Turkish L2 users of English for the judgement of present tenses

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of VAR00002 is the same across categories of VAR00003.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.002[1]	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

[1]Exact significance is displayed for this test.

SPSS Analysis 4. The comparison of monolinguals and Turkish L2 users of English for the judgement of future tenses

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of VAR00001 is the same across categories of VAR00002.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.023[1]	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

[1]Exact significance is displayed for this test.

The results of the two Mann-Whitney tests above show that the difference between monolinguals and L2 users is indeed significant. Consequently, the results of this study show that the bilinguals in this study are more sensitive while judging the grammaticality of Turkish habitual/generic real conditional structures and this confirm the hypothesis of this study.

4. Discussion

4.1. The evaluation of the results

The aim of this study is to test a hypothesis. The main research question aims at seeing if there is a difference between monolinguals and L2 users in terms of the judgement of the grammatical and ungrammatical tense usages in the main clauses of Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals. The secondary research question aims at seeing if the monolingual Turkish speakers judge generic/habitual real conditionals in Turkish as suggested in prescriptive grammar books. The previous Results section has provided valuable descriptive analysis and SPSS results by which the research questions will be answered in the following sub-sections.

4.1.1. The evaluation of the monolinguals' results

The secondary question of this study is "Do Turkish monolingual speakers judge the grammaticality of present tenses in generic/habitual real conditionals as described in prescriptive Turkish grammar books?". As explained in section 2.3, Turkish always uses present tenses in habitual/generic real conditionals. As a result, the second research question aims to see how Turkish speakers really judge this structure which gives this study the chance to compare the judgments of Turkish monolinguals to the assumptions in the grammar books.

Looking at the results about the monolinguals, it seems that monolinguals distinguish between present (the grammatical tense) and future tenses (ungrammatical tense) in habitual/generic contexts. The descriptive statistics and the SPSS results show that monolinguals confirm the grammaticality of present tenses while they reject the future tenses as grammatical structures. Much more importantly, the difference between present tense and future tense usage is significant at .000 ($p < 0.05$).

Consequently, it can be argued that monolinguals' present tense usage in habitual/generic conditional main clauses is statistically different than future tense usage and this is in accordance with the descriptions in the prescriptive grammar books (e.g. Kerslake and Goksel, 2005; Lewis, 2000).

One more observation in the results of the monolinguals is that the acceptance rates of future tenses are not really low although it is an ungrammatical usage. It is 2.92 for habitual/generic contexts. One explanation for this is that some of the generic/habitual contexts may have been interpreted as a real possibility probably due to making up imaginary contexts. As discussed in the Methodology section, one flaw of the GJTs is that when the participants are asked about the grammaticality of a structure, although they know that that structure is ungrammatical, they think that this structure may be possible in some contexts although it sounds weird. One more possibility which I find more plausible is that both in Turkish and English, real and unreal conditionals are distinguished by the participants very clearly (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002; Lewis, 2000). However, as habitual/generic and predictive conditionals are both real conditionals, they are very similar in many respects (see Kerslake and Goksel, 2005; Lewis, 2000 for more details). Therefore, they are non-parametric in nature and they are not the opposite of each other. Consequently, the participants may have simply abstained from giving very low grades for the usage of future tenses, which is observed in predictive real conditionals, although they know that future tense usage sounds bad.

To sum up the argument about the monolinguals, the results in Chart 1 show that monolinguals indeed use present tenses in Turkish conditionals as described by the prescriptive grammar books although future tense usage is also not very low. However, this may be due to the reasons explained above and much more importantly the results show that Turkish monolinguals overwhelmingly prefer present tenses compared to future tenses and this difference is proven to be statistically significant with SPPS analysis.

4.1.2. The evaluation of the L2 user's results

The results of the L2 users show that the ratings of the acceptability of present tenses are generally in line with the monolinguals' rating. The mean difference for present tenses and future tenses in habitual/generic contexts is 2.90 (out of 6) which is 48% out of 100. It can be argued that this high difference is evidence for the difference of acceptability, thus of grammaticality, between present tense and future tense usage in habitual/generic real conditionals. In addition, SPSS results indicate that this quantitative difference is also statistically significant at a .000 (p< 0.05) significance level. Hence, these results have shown that present tense usage is the acceptable tense for generic/habitual contexts for the L2 users and the standard deviation of 0.34 show that the participants rate this structure in a very consistent way. Then, these results suggest that L2 users behave like monolinguals and accept the present tense usage in habitual/generic conditionals the only difference being the higher ratings of L2 users for both grammatical present tense and ungrammatical future tense usage which is the focus of the next sub-section.

4.1.3. The comparison of the monolinguals and the L2 users and the evaluation of the main research question

The findings in section 4.3 have shown that bilingual Turkish speakers of English have an increased metalinguistic awareness in that they confirm the grammatical present tense structures with higher points and also, they rate the ungrammatical future tense structures with lower points. The SPSS analysis has confirmed that the difference between the monolinguals and the L2 users is a significant one which confirms that Turkish L2 users of English have a higher sensitivity and metalinguistic awareness towards grammar structures in this specific context. Considering the fact that the only significant difference between the two groups in the study is their proficiency level in English (see section 3.1), it is reasonable to argue that learning an L2 indeed has an effect on an L2 user's L1 which is an increased metalinguistic awareness in this context.

The results of this study support the claims of Bassetti and Cook (2011) and Bialystok (2001) regarding the metalinguistic awareness issue. Bassetti and Cook (2011) and Bialystok (2001) claim that one of the outcomes of being bilingual is an increase in metalinguistic awareness. This study has also shown that Turkish L2 users of English have the ability to rate a grammatical structure with much higher confidence. This is also a clear supporting evidence for MCT of Cook (2003) in that not only the L2 (here English) of an L2 user is different than its native speakers, but also the L1 (here Turkish) of an L2 user is different than the native speakers of his/her mother tongue. This is a good evidence of 'multi' competence and one of the positive outcomes of this is a higher metalinguistic awareness as argued in this paper.

4.2. Implications of the study

In accordance with Cook's (1991; 2002; 2003; 2011) claim that L2 users are not two monolinguals in one mind, the results of this study imply that L2 users have both similarities and differences compared to the monolinguals. They rate present tense usage in generic/habitual conditionals as grammatical just like monolinguals. However, at the same time they rate the grammaticality of present tenses and future tenses with higher ratings compared to monolinguals. This finding supports the suggestion of Cook (2002) for judging L2 users in their own terms as they have a different knowledge of languages compared to monolinguals. This finding also supports the rejection of seeing bilinguals as people who have the knowledge of two monolinguals. The reason is, as the results of this study suggest, L2 users divert from monolingual norms in some respects (here metalinguistic awareness) while they also share some aspects with them (e.g. they both judge present tenses as a grammatical usage). This implies that L2 users should not be compared to monolinguals with regard to both their L1 and L2. L2 users are unique people and the pedagogy of L2 teaching and learning should consider this aspect. This implies that L2 users' L2 capacity should not be compared to native speakers, too and in this sense L2 teaching should not target native level proficiency. Rather, the target must be to focus on achieving a 'user' role (Cook, 2003) and achieving a proficiency level which merely depends on the goals of an individual.

The L2 user concept suggested in this paper also alters the perspective of SLA research. As discussed in the Literature Review section, MCT sees L2 users as distinctive people with their own specific characteristics. The results of this study support this claim and it has been demonstrated that L2 users divert from monolingual norms. Therefore, SLA research should not consider them as failures as they cannot reach native-like proficiency. Rather the SLA research should acknowledge that L2 users have some distinctive features and their own unique language system.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to see if there is a difference in the ratings of grammatical structures (present tenses) and ungrammatical structures (future tenses) in Turkish generic/habitual real conditionals by Turkish monolinguals and Turkish L2 users of English. The findings confirm the significant difference between monolinguals and L2 users and it has been shown that L2 users have an increased metalinguistic awareness regarding the focus of this study (the generic/habitual real conditionals). There is not only a big difference quantitatively but, the difference has also been shown to be significant via the SPSS analysis. The second research question aims to understand if monolingual Turkish speakers judge the present tense and future tense usage in habitual/generic conditionals as prescribed in grammar books. Findings in section 4.1 have shown that monolinguals generally judge the grammaticality habitual/generic real conditionals as prescribed in grammar books.

There is a relatively higher average rating for the acceptance of future tenses, but the seemingly high acceptance of future tenses in the main clauses of habitual/generic conditionals is not valid as the average and median scores as well as SPSS results show that the difference between the grammaticality judgement of present and future tense usage for monolinguals is statistically significant.

There are some limitations in this study. Firstly, the representativeness of this study is restricted. The participants are university graduates and as a result, the results of this study may not be valid for people from different socio-economic and educational backgrounds. Moreover, as rating the GJTs is time consuming, which would lead to cognitive overload (see the discussion in section 3.4), participants have been asked to judge only 20 tasks. Therefore, the implications of this paper may be restricted only to this context and the study may be replicated with more tasks in the future.

Although GJTs are considered as a useful research instrument, they solely require the participants to write some answers. Therefore, the responses of the participants include only written data and there is no spoken data. One more issue with the GJTs in this study is that no matter how often the participants are instructed about rating the sentences 'only' according to the given contexts, it is very difficult to make it sure that they do not make up some imaginary contexts in which some of the sentences may possibly be true. One good example of this problem is in the 15th context (Appendix B) in the tasks. In this task, the context is about the Critical Age Hypothesis and it basically says that if students start learning a language before the age of 7, they will be more successful. In the third option about this context, the sentence says (in Turkish): "If students started learning a language before the age of 7, they would learn it better." As an unreal present conditional, this sentence is grammatically wrong for this context. However, because of the prior knowledge of the Turkish participants about the fact that students start learning English at the age of 10 in Turkey, they see the proposition 'If students start learning a language before the age of 7' as an unreal one because of their prior knowledge. Hence, while preparing GJTs and tasks requiring contexts, researchers should be very careful about these kinds of issues.

Finally, as mentioned in the previous paragraph, GJTs ask participants only to judge the grammaticality of some sentences. Therefore, it only focuses on receptive skills and there is no production involved. However, production is also an essential part of the knowledge of a language. In this sense, a further study may focus on the study from a production perspective.

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Appendix A .

Questionnaire and permission form

What's your name?	
In which university did you have your education? *If you are still a student, at which university are you studying?*	
How old were you when you started learning English?	
How many years have you been using English for?	
How much English did you hear outside school, if any (eg films, pop music, English clubs)?	1 = <2 hours per week 2 = 2- 5 hours per week 3 = 5-10 hours per week 4 =more than 10 hours a week
Have you ever been to the UK or any other countries where English is the native language? How long have you been in the UK (or a country where English is the native language)?	1 = No, I have not 2 = < 3 months 3 = 3-12 months 4 = more than 1 year
How much English are you using at the moment?	1 = < 1 hour a day 2 = 1-3 hours a day 3 = more than 3 hours a day
Have you ever taken an English test such as TOEFL, IELTS, KPDS? What was your latest score, and what year was it?	Total: Year:
Do you speak any other languages? If so, please list them and state your level.	
Thank you for taking part in this research project for Newcastle University. This information is confidential and your name will not be used. Please sign below to show that you are happy for your data to be published for research purposes. *Signature:* *Date:*	

Appendix B. The tasks used in the study

15. Bilim adamları yaptıkları çalışmalar sonucunda 'Kritik Yaş' teorisini ortaya atmışlardır ve bu teorinin doğru olduğu birçok araştırma tarafından ispatlanmıştır. Bu teoriye göre 7 yaşından sonra yabancı dil öğrenmeye başlayan bir öğrencinin o yabancı dili tam olarak öğrenme ihtimali 7 yaşından önce başlayanlardan çok daha düşüktür. Yani 7 yaşından önce yabancı dil öğrenmeye başlamak kesin olarak olmasa bile daha iyi bir yabancı dil öğrenimi sağlar.Yabancı dil öğrenimiyle ilgili bu teoriyle ilgili olarak:

A) Öğrenciler 7 yaşından önce dil öğrenmeye başlarlarsa o dili daha kolay öğrenirler.					
Çok kötü	kötü	kötü ama belki olabilir	biraz garip ama kullanılır	doğru	kesinlikle doğru

B) Öğrenciler 7 yaşından önce dil öğrenmeye başlarlarsa o dili daha kolay öğrenecekler.					
Çok kötü	kötü	kötü ama belki olabilir	biraz garip ama kullanılır	doğru	kesinlikle doğru

C) Öğrenciler 7 yaşından önce dil öğrenmeye başlasalardı o dili daha kolay öğrenirlerdi.					
Çok kötü	kötü	kötü ama belki olabilir	biraz garip ama kullanılır	doğru	kesinlikle doğru

İkinci bir dil öğrenmenin birinci dil üzerine etkisi: Artan üst dilbilimsel farkındalık örneği

Öz

Bu çalışma iki dilli Türklerin genel şart cümlelerinin dil bilgisi olarak doğruluğunu tek dilli Türklerden farklı olarak değerlendirip değerlendirmediğini test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bassetti ve Cook (2011) ve Bialystok (2001) iki dilli olmanın getirilerinden birisinin üst dilbilimsel farkındalıkta artma olduğunu iddia ederler. Buna uygun olarak, bu çalışma iki dilli Türklerin üst dilbilimsel farkındalığının artmış olup olmadığını araştırmaktadır. 20 dil bilgisi değerlendirme görevi veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar üniversite mezunu 15 tek dilli Türk ve İngilizce konuşan 15 iki dilli Türk'tür. Katılımcıların cevapları hem betimleyici istatistiklerle hem de SPSS ile değerlendirilmiştir. Analizler göstermiştir ki tek dilli ve iki dilli Türkler arasında Türkçe koşullu cümle yapılarını değerlendirme açısından önemli derecede fark vardır. Bu sonuç ikinci bir dil öğrenmenin iki dilli kişilerin birinci dili üzerinde etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu, iki dilli kişilerin dil bilgisi açısından kendine özgü bir grup olduğuna işaret eder.

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Motivation of engineering students and lecturers toward English medium instruction at tertiary level in Turkey

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Abstract

English is an access to a global society (Normark, 2013), which implies studying a specific subject area through English is crucial in today's educational arena. The reason behind this is that English is a motive for universities to gain a global status as Coleman (2006) argued. Thus, the focal point of this study is to reveal motivational variations of students and lecturers toward English-Medium Instruction (EMI) because motivation may be an influential factor determining the success of EMI implementations. To this end, the study was designed as a mixed methods research to reach a deeper understanding of the issue. The participants were mechanical engineering students and lecturers at a state university in Turkey. In this regard, a Likert-type questionnaire was adapted to examine what factors had an impact on motivation of participants toward EMI. For the analyses of quantitative data, descriptive statistics were used to obtain mean and standard deviation scores; and MANOVA test was utilized via inferential statistics to see whether the year of study was a determinant for the motivation of students. Moreover, focus group interviews were conducted with students whilst lecturers were interviewed individually. Qualitative data obtained from interviews were analyzed using inductive content analysis. The results indicated no significant differences among the first, second, third and fourth year students' motivation toward EMI; yet, it was found that the first year students were slightly more motivated toward EMI. Further, instrumental motivation appeared to be more dominant and lecturers' motivation toward EMI varied depending on numerous reasons.

Keywords: English-medium instruction (EMI); motivation; engineering students and lecturers

1. Introduction

Our world has been globalized in recent years and there came up a need for an international language which could enable people from different countries to interact easily. Needless to say this global language has been English, which has gained an important status as an international language. The reasons behind the excessive use of English can be listed under some categories such as economic developments, scientific improvements, the growth of communication tools and the desire for being

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more advanced in technology. In addition, political groupings and power have become one of the most influential reasons behind the spread of English as the global language. In relation to that, the possessor of political and economic power, namely the USA and England with its imperialist policy, have played an important role to make English an international language (Crystal, 2003). One of the fields considerably affected by the internalization of English is the higher education institutions, both public and private universities. According to Coleman (2006), the reason for this is the fact that English is a motive for universities to gain a global status. One of the main reasons for that is most probably the emergence of Bologna Process initiated to make a harmonized higher education area within Europe (Coleman, 2006). According to the policies of Bologna Process initiated in 1999, it was aimed to guarantee a multilingual arena in higher education. However, the targeted multilingual arena has not come into reality. Instead, English could take its place as the global language.

Recently, the so-called Englishization of higher education around the world can be accepted as an obligation for universities to become international in order to attract more and more international students. This makes "internationalization" and "Englishization of higher education" interrelated terms (Coleman, 2006; Phillipson, 2008). When the instruction is in English, the academic prestige, the chances for having international research funds and the numbers of international alumni tend to increase. This situation even leads to local students to be attracted by the universities offering English-medium courses. This case is also true for Turkish universities which try to increase the number of English-medium courses (Sert, 2008).

Predictably, English-medium courses at tertiary level in Turkey are not maintained without any problems related to in-class implementations. In the simplest terms, EMI has been said to make students' content learning harder (Kırkgöz, 2014). In response to this, the present study aims to lead a new way to deeply understand the sources of motivation for students and lecturers toward EMI.

1.1. Literature review

The unstoppable growing of English as the global language and the need to interact with varied people anywhere at any time lead universities to increase their EMI courses in many countries across the world. It should thus be asserted that not only increasing the number of available EMI course is enough, but also it is necessary for universities to consider the quality and possible consequences of their EMI implementations. In parallel with this notion, some studies carried out in different countries are as follows:

Kim's (2014) study conducted in South Korea showed that students were more likely to learn their subject area for some extrinsic reasons. This study may be one of the supporters of the usefulness of EMI because the results were positive although the extrinsic orientations seemed to be more dominant on the part of EMI students. However, it is very normal that scores for extrinsic motivation were higher because students may be willing to be involved in EMI for the sake of getting a good job or making much money in future. Another study conducted on motivation along with L2 proficiency in EMI context by Madileng (2009) in South Africa indicated that EMI students had both extrinsic and intrinsic motivational variables such as gaining new ideas in life or performing better in other subjects. That is, Madileng (2009) reported that both types of motivations were influential for EMI students while Kim (2014) argued about the dominance of extrinsic motivation on EMI students. In a similar vein, Chen and Kraklow's (2014) study revealed that the extrinsic motivation variables were dominant on English learning engagement of EMI students compared to students involved in non-EMI programs.

In terms of attitudes, Chang (2010) investigated the reactions of Taiwanese students and concluded that most of the EMI students did not show any negative attitudes towards EMI and they asserted that

their listening skills started to improve with the help of EMI. This indicates EMI can have the potential to provide some benefits for the language skills of students even if it does not have any explicit aim for the improvement of students' language skills. Identically, Kim (2014) stated that there was a consensus upon the positive effects of EMI on speaking skills of students. Accordingly, it can be interpreted that EMI students had an opportunity to improve their language skills and content knowledge concurrently.

With regard to perspectives of lecturers, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) reached out some striking conclusions in their study conducted in Denmark. One of them was about not all lecturers were prepared to teach through English. Another finding was that Danish researchers should publish their work in their mother tongue because Danish technical language was in danger of disappearing. Maybe the most striking perspective of lecturers was that they believed students learnt best in the mother tongue. In opposition to these, English was described as an important incentive to learn content and an essential part of the school culture (Normark, 2013). Morell et al. (2014) also reached positive findings about EMI in their study conducted with both lecturers and students. They claimed that EMI provided more academic and professional opportunities and it fostered international relationships.

Regarding motivation of EMI students in Turkish context, Kırkgöz (2005) made a research in Çukurova University and found out both first and final year EMI students perceived that they were strongest in reading and listening, but weaker in writing, and especially weak in speaking. That is, EMI students differed in terms of proficiency in four language skills. She also mentioned that final year EMI students perceived greater strengths in language skills. This shows that experience and process of involving in an EMI setting might play a crucial role in improving linguistic skills of students. Another important finding was that EMI students were in favor of a mixture of integrative and instrumental motivations as in the study of Madileng (2009). According to another study about perceptions toward EMI conducted by Atik (2010), Turkish students were found to support EMI at tertiary level and to hold positive attitudes towards EMI in terms of the improvement of language skills in English; yet, they experienced difficulties in content learning in English. Overall, it was reported in this study that there was a positive link between students' proficiency levels and perceptions towards EMI.

Probably, the most intriguing result about EMI research belonged to Maniraho's (2013) study on motivation and attitudes toward EMI. For most of the respondents, using English to teach/learn was useful; but this was not because it helped in teaching or learning subject area. Instead, EMI was useful because it was a way to teach or learn English. This is very interesting because in essence, EMI is an attempt to promote content learning through a foreign language, namely English.

1.2. Theoretical background

Motivation is a basis for explaining why people do something, how much time they persist doing it and how much difficulty they can handle while doing it. However, it would be wrong to say that variables that characterize the concept of motivation are limited to these aforementioned aspects (the choice, determination and effort) because the concept of motivation is a natural part of human nature that may not be explained with only some simple theories.

According to Dörnyei (1994), there are three levels to explain the motivational variations in a foreign language teaching/learning setting and the first level is "Language Level". This level has two subsystems as Integrative Motivational Subsystem and Instrumental Motivational Subsystem. The former refers to individuals' tendencies into social, cultural or ethnic components in addition to a general interest into the foreign language itself. The latter covers the two most developed categories of extrinsic motivation continuum, namely "identified and integrative regulation". The second level is

"Learner Level" which includes some complicated personality traits that are mainly constituted by "need for achievement and self-confidence". The third level is "Learning Situation Level" which combined three areas as follows:

1) Course-specific motivational components can be associated with teaching methodology, tasks, materials and syllabus. 2) Teacher-specific motivational components are related to the concepts of pleasing the teacher, the extent of teacher authority, feedback and ways for presenting the tasks. 3) Group-specific motivational components are made up of components such as rewarding, group interaction, having a common learning goal, and so on.

As understood, many factors that affect any learning environment have been available in Dörnyei's (1994) framework, including the language that aims to be learnt, the teacher and his/her teaching methods as well as the classroom atmosphere and group dynamics. Considering all these, it was targeted to scrutinize EMI students' and lecturers' motivations from a broader perspective rather than solely taking into account instrumental and integrative motivational dichotomy. In parallel with this notion, three research questions were formulated:

1.3. Research questions

1.   What are the sources for motivation of first, second, third and fourth year engineering students toward EMI?

2.   Is there a significant/meaningful relation between the year of study and motivation of engineering students toward EMI?

3.   What are the sources for motivation of engineering lecturers toward EMI?

2. Method

The study was designed as a mixed methods research. The rationale was to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches in order to minimize the weaknesses and to maximize the strengths. To be more precise, Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) point out that the investigator tries to make inferences by integrating the findings of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This definition suggests that mixed methods approach gathers the requirements of quantitative and qualitative approaches together in an attempt to interpret the data from different points of views. In parallel with this, Creswell (2003) gives an idea about how complex mixed methods approach is:

> *A mixed methods study involves the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research.* (p. 212).

Accordingly, the timing of mixing the data, the priority given to both of them and the stage which the integration takes place should be considered to meet the pre-requisites of a good study. Another aspect of mixed methods approach is that it is used to gain broad and deep understanding and interpretation (Johnson et al., 2007). Moreover, to triangulate the identical findings, it is appropriate to mix the quantitative and qualitative methods. Table 1 summarizes the design of the study:

Table 1. Design of the study

Underlying Theory	Theoretical Perspective	Methodology	Methods
At tertiary level, students and lecturers may have different motivational sources toward EMI.	Motivation toward learning/teaching content knowledge through EMI	Mixed Type	Questionnaire Interviews

(adapted from Yuan, 2012, p.102)

As in Table 1, the underlying theory comprised both students' and lecturers' motivations toward EMI. In terms of methodology, mixed type was preferred because the EMI situation in Turkey was expected to be examined in a detailed way using different data collection tools which were questionnaires and interviews for the sake of triangulation and having more valid and reliable results.

2.1. Participants

Participants were randomly chosen from Mechanical Engineering (ME) Department and the sampling groups were constituted of first, second, third and fourth year students. The number of student participants was 125 in total. This size of sampling was approximately 40% of all students at the department. 31 first year, 32 second year, 32 third year and 30 fourth year students participated in the study. Their ages ranged between 19 and 34 but the majority of them were at the age of 22 and 23. In addition, there were 15 lecturers working in the aforementioned department, but 6 of them were volunteer to be involved in the study. The year of experiences ranges between 2 and 26 years. Only one lecturer took courses in relation to EMI in the USA and UK and the other lecturers received PhD degrees from the USA.

2.2. Instruments

Data collection instruments included an adopted questionnaire, individual and focus group interviews; each of which was administered in such a way that the researcher could compare and contrast quantitative and qualitative findings. Details about the instruments are presented in the following sub-sections:

2.2.1. The questionnaire

The questionnaire, designed as a 5 point Likert-type questionnaire for EMI students, contained three sections. Section 1 sought background information about EMI students' gender, age, department, level of English or their perceived proficiency level on using four skills in general English and also in their subject area, the relevant items were chosen from the questionnaire of Kırkgöz (2005). The researcher added extra questions about English use outside the classroom, preparation program and students' perceived English level. Section 2 was designed to reveal "Some General Aspects" for students' motivation toward EMI and there were three subsections named as Motivation at Language Level (Integrative Motivation, Instrumental Motivation), Motivation at Learner Level and Motivation at Learning Situation Level. Integrative and Instrumental Motivation subsections were put together with the items from the questionnaires of Maniraho (2013) and Kırkgöz (2005). Additionally, on the basis of Dörnyei's classification for foreign language motivation (1994), a group of items in relation to Learner Level and Learning Situation Level were added. Finally, Section 3 which was about "Some Specific Aspects for Motivation toward EMI" dealt with students' specific motivation sources toward

EMI such as "Cognitive, Affective and Conative Aspects". With the "Cognitive Aspect", what students thought about EMI was under investigation and "Affective Aspect" was used for discovering students' feelings toward EMI. Lastly, "Conative Aspect" was aiming at exploring students' actions in EMI courses. Subsection 3 was totally adapted from Maniraho (2013). Subsequent to the translation of the English version of the questionnaire into Turkish, three native speakers of Turkish who had also an advanced level of English checked the consistency between the Turkish and English versions to ensure validity. Afterwards, the questionnaire was piloted and the alpha coefficient was found to be .87 indicating that items in the questionnaire were reliable enough for the actual study.

2.2.2.. The interview

Individual interviews were conducted with 6 lecturers whereas there were 4 focus groups; each of which included 4 or 5 students who were at the same year of study. Both interviews included semi-structured questions aiming to discover opinions of participants about what motivated or what did not motivate them toward EMI. Moreover, there were questions searching for detailed information on some specific aspects for participants' motivation toward EMI. Interview questions were in parallel with the items in the questionnaire. Interview questions directed to students and lecturers were also in the same direction so that the researchers could corroborate qualitative and quantitative findings. For the sake of validity, interviews were carried out in Turkish in order to provide participants to express themselves fully and clearly.

2.3. Data collection procedures

The study was conducted in the Spring Term of 2015-2016 Academic Years at a state university in Turkey. This university offers some Bachelor programs which include 100% EMI courses, especially in the Engineering Faculty. The Centre for Foreign Languages (CFL) gives a one-year EAP (English for Academic Purposes) program to prepare students for their future departments where they will be involved in EMI courses (Kırkgöz, 2006). CFL has an important role to play in providing students to have enough Basic English knowledge that they will use in their English-medium departments (Kırkgöz, 2009). The curriculum of CFL includes an integrated skills practice with the help of some course-books and some other extra teaching materials (Kırkgöz, 2006). Within this context, a formal permission was received from the dean of the engineering faculty. First, paper and pencil questionnaires were administered to 125 students from different grades. Second, focus group interviews with 4 or 5 students from different grades were employed. Third, individual interviews were conducted with 6 lecturers. All interviews were audio-recorded on the consent of participants. Throughout the data collection procedure, participants were determined on a volunteer basis.

2.4. Data analysis

The close-ended items involved in the questionnaires were analyzed according to the principles of Descriptive Statistics with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 23.0). Via MANOVA test, the first, second, third and fourth year EMI students' responses to the close-ended questions were compared.

To analyze interview data, content analysis was employed. Interviews were transcribed and filed separately. Participants were assigned different codes like "Lecturer or Student A, B, C, D, E, F". After that, the data were read over and over again by taking short notes in order not to ignore every single detail. The focus was on inductive content analysis in which themes emerge from the raw data through repeated examination and comparison. The reason behind the selection of inductive content analysis was because of the fact that inductive content analysis made it easier to establish a connection between the research aims and the transparent main findings from the raw data (Thomas, 2006).

Furthermore, both researchers were involved in the analysis process so that analysis of coders could be compared and coders could decide on concurrent resolutions together to ascertain reliability.

3. Results

3.1. Findings obtained from questionnaires

In accordance with research questions 1 and 2, description and comparison of motivational variations of students toward EMI were revealed through the analysis of questionnaire items via SPSS. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics and MANOVA results of each motivation level for Grades 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Table 2. Description and comparison of general aspects for motivation toward EMI

	Groups	Number	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Integrative Motivation	Grade 1	31	4.18	0.52	3	.532	.661
	Grade 2	32	4.05	0.52			
	Grade 3	32	4.02	0.44			
	Grade 4	30	4.03	0.77			
Instrumental Motivation	Grade 1	31	4.40	0.49	3	.518	.670
	Grade 2	32	4.22	0.52			
	Grade 3	32	4.31	0.42			
	Grade 4	30	4.27	0.85			
Motivation at Learner Level	Grade 1	31	3.58	0.73	3	.337	.799
	Grade 2	32	3.70	0.72			
	Grade 3	32	3.54	0.69			
	Grade 4	30	3.50	1.04			
Motivation at Learning Situation Level	Grade 1	31	3.83	0.56	3	1.230	.302
	Grade 2	32	3.67	0.65			
	Grade 3	32	3.52	0.74			
	Grade 4	30	3.79	0.88			

Table 2 illustrates that mean scores of participants from different grades for each section were not so much different from each other. This can also be understood when the p scores for each section was examined because each section had a p score over 0.05. That is, there was not a statistically significant difference between the results of each section. With regard to standard deviation scores, Grade 4 had the highest standard deviation scores in each section. This shows that fourth year students had more varied opinions about their motivation toward EMI. It can also be asserted that the highest mean scores for each section belonged to Grade 1 except for "Motivation at Learner Level". For this section, Grade 2 had the highest mean score (3.70); namely, the second year students were the most motivated ones toward EMI as language learners. Another significant finding was that Instrumental Motivation Level was the most motivating level toward EMI for each grade. This means that EMI students were mostly motivated toward EMI because of some pragmatic or extrinsic reasons. Following this,

Integrative Motivation Level was found to be the other most motivating level toward EMI compared to the other levels. As for Motivation at Learning Situation Level, it is seen that the most motivated grade was the first year students as in the other levels; however, the least motivated grade was found to be the third year students. Namely, Grade 3 was the least motivated group about the learning environment in EMI courses. Apart from General Aspects, Table 3 demonstrates the findings in relation to descriptive statistics and MANOVA results of each specific aspect for Grade 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Table 3. Description and comparison of specific aspects for motivation toward EMI

	Groups	Number	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Cognitive Aspect	Grade 1	31	3.54	0.67	3	1.246	.296
	Grade 2	32	3.47	0.61			
	Grade 3	32	3.33	0.51			
	Grade 4	30	3.66	0.95			
Affective Aspect	Grade 1	31	3.31	0.45	3	4.076	.009
	Grade 2	32	3.19	0.38			
	Grade 3	32	3.01	0.26			
	Grade 4	30	3.21	0.28			
Conative Aspect	Grade 1	31	3.61	0.68	3	.376	.771
	Grade 2	32	3.45	0.55			
	Grade 3	32	3.58	0.48			
	Grade 4	30	3.56	0.80			

As Table 3 illustrates, each section in the questionnaire has approximately similar means scores for Grade 1, 2, 3 and 4. In fact, Grade 1 had the highest mean scores in each section and Grade 4 had the highest standard deviation scores except for "Affective Aspect" section. In this section, Grade 1 had the highest standard deviation score (0.45). It is seen that p score in "Affective Aspect" section (0.009) is below 0.05. That is, there can be a meaningful difference between results of Grade 1, 2, 3 and 4. Concerning the other "Cognitive and Conative Aspect" sections, p scores were over 0.05. That means there was not a significant difference between results of Grade 1, 2, 3 and 4 regarding Cognitive and Conative Aspects. Overall, it can be interpreted that "Cognitive and Conative Aspects" were slightly more influential in students' motivation toward EMI than "Affective Aspect", which means thoughts about EMI and actions performed to study content through EMI had more impacts on students' motivation than the impacts of emotions on EMI. Apart from these, total results were also examined regardless of the year of study as shown in Table 4:

Table 4. Total results of sections irrespective to EMI students' year of study

Sections	Mean	SD
Motivation at Language Level (Integrative Motivation)	4.07	0.57
Motivation at Language Level (Instrumental Motivation)	4.30	0.59
Motivation at Learner Level	3.58	0.80
Motivation at Learning Situation Level	3.70	0.72
Cognitive Aspect in Motivation toward EMI	3.50	0.70
Affective Aspect in Motivation toward EMI	3.18	0.37
Conative Aspect in Motivation toward EMI	3.55	0.63

Table 4 summarizes the total results for each section regardless of students' year of study. As seen, the most motivating reasons were associated with "Instrumental Motivation" which had the highest

mean score (4.30) and one of the lowest standard deviation scores (0.59). As for the lowest mean score (3.18), "Affective Aspect" had the least motivating reasons. This section had also the lowest standard deviation score (0.37) which means participants' responses to the items in this section did not differ so much. Following this, Table 5 shows the results of MANOVA test:

Table 5. Description and comparison of overall motivation of students toward EMI

	Groups	Number	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Overall Results	Grade 1	31	3.84	0.39	3	.894	.446
	Grade 2	32	3.72	0.37			
	Grade 3	32	3.66	0.36			
	Grade 4	30	3.77	0.66			
	Total	125	3.74	0.46			

Table 5 suggests that there is not a significant difference between overall motivation of Grade 1, 2, 3 and 4 toward EMI (p≥0.05). In other words, the year of study may not be an influential factor in the motivation level of participants toward EMI. Nevertheless, it can be pointed out that the highest mean score (3.84) belonged to Grade 1 whereas the lowest mean score (3.66) belonged to Grade 3. According to standard deviation scores, Grade 4 had the highest standard deviation score (0.66) which shows that participants from Grade 4 had more differing motivations toward EMI.

3.2. Findings obtained from interviews

3.2.1. Focus group interviews with students

Regarding the feelings toward EMI, participants expressed different feelings such as anger, unhappiness, disappointment, hope and joy. The interesting point was that second year students reported that they had no specific feeling toward EMI because EMI was what should be implemented, particularly in their department. The relevant excerpts about the issue are given below:

If I pay too much attention, I can understand the lecture but at one point, I lose my concentration. This is the same when I study alone at home. Then I feel I do not understand, I stop studying and I become angry. I say to myself why I am studying in this department. (SA, Grade 1)

I do not feel anything special because EMI is a necessity for us. Also, knowing English is not an advantageous factor but it is a truth that engineers who have a good level of English are the popular ones. Moreover, finding a job in international companies across the globe, for example, being involved in EMI is a must. (SH, Grade 2)

I feel joyful because Turkish sources are not sufficient. When we search for some new information, we cannot find them in Turkish sources. Ideas about engineering expressed in English are more meaningful to me. (SQ, Grade 4)

Regarding challenges posed by EMI, participants mentioned that they did not understand content knowledge totally, not speaking in English about their profession, losing concentration, difficulty in note-taking, differences in lecturers' use of English, expensive English materials, having no special dictionary for technical terms and lecturers' fast talk. Statements of two participants represent those challenges:

I could not listen to an English lecture after a certain period of time. For example, I want the lesson to end after 45 minutes. As in listening, I could not take appropriate notes if the lecturer talks too fast in English. This causes me to miss the information in the content. (SG, Grade 2)

In terms of teachers, their fast talk prevents us from taking notes appropriately. Or if lecturers use long sentences with transitions, we are confused. Plus, lecturers' different accents may cause our comprehension level to decrease. (SR, Grade 4)

Pertinent to integrative and instrumental motivation levels of EMI, participants mainly referred to instrumental motivation levels such as having a well-paid job, studying/working abroad or in international companies, making much money, having priority for employment, academic career and respect and a good status. Considering integrative motivation levels, they only mentioned becoming familiar with different cultures, perspectives and identities, improving daily English use and effective communication with foreign colleagues. The interesting point emphasized by both the first and fourth year students was that there was no integrative motivation sources for EMI because they believed there was no connection between English used in their departments and in daily life. Excerpts below shed light into the issue:

I think there is no connection between daily English and our technical English. Therefore, EMI is not helpful for us to make interactions with people outside school. (SO, Grade 4)

In Turkey, I do not think that there is a chance to communicate with various people in English but when I was an ERASMUS student, I realized that I could interact with foreign people in English easily. This could be thanks to EMI at the department. (SK, Grade 3)

I want to be an academician and for this, EMI is a good chance. I also believe EMI will provide us respect from other people in business life. For example, even while trying to find a company where we can complete our industrial training, companies want us to have a good level of English. (SH, Grade 2)

In relation to effects of EMI on intellectual development, all participants without any exception were of the opinion that EMI was beneficial for their intellectual development:

EMI makes things harder first but it is beneficial in the long term. Learning content through a second language improves intelligence. (SK, Grade 3)

As for the effects of learning/teaching environment on EMI, participants generally emphasized the importance of lecturers' behaviours. To exemplify, lecturers might not adopt language according to students' level, encourage or motivate students, not use body language to clarify meaning, not lead them to discuss meaning instead of memorization. All these inevitably affected students' motivation toward EMI negatively. Regarding peers, participants suggested that it could be motivating if their peers spoke in English in the classroom. As to materials, there was a consensus that English materials were easy to find but expensive. Excerpts below illustrate these:

The most important thing is the teaching skills of our teachers. I mean teaching skills do not depend on how teachers are successful academically. They should know how to present the content in a foreign language. (SL, Grade 3)

Teachers just give the information and do not want us to discuss or comment. This leads us to memorize. (SM, Grade 3)

When a friend asks a question in English, this encourages me. I say to myself that I can achieve talking in English about my field of study if my peer can do this. The negative thing is that students are not good at English and teachers do not generally encourage us to speak English. (SQ, Grade 4)

There are lots of English sources that we can use but most of them are really expensive. (SG, Grade 2)

In relation to learning/teaching strategies in EMI courses, findings show that participants primarily used some certain learning strategies such as translation, reviewing the content, note-taking/writing,

audio-recording of the lectures, reading academic articles, memorization, being active in the lessons and using visual aids.

We audio-record the lectures. Then, we transcribe what the lecturers teach from the recording because sometimes it is difficult to take notes in the lesson. Especially in verbal lessons, I like to write and re-write the information in my own words. (SG, Grade 2)

There are numerous variables that have an impact upon the motivation of university students toward EMI. Even the participants' level of study are different, there can be some identical opinions and comments about EMI. Thereof, such a complicated issue as motivational levels and aspects should not be neglected if the aim is to improve the quality of EMI courses.

3.2.2. Interviews with lecturers

Five themes similar to what was found in focus-group interviews with students emerged in total. In accordance with feelings toward EMI, lecturers highlighted that they could be demotivated, unsatisfied, doubtful or happy depending on what they experienced in EMI courses as demonstrated in excerpts below:

I am not sure whether students understand me or not when I teach the content even in Turkish. For this reason, I switch to Turkish in verbal courses if there is a critical point to teach. (LC)

I am happy to teach through English because all sources are already available in English… (LF)

When challenges of EMI are considered, lecturers mentioned difficulties experienced because of code-switching, curriculum, preparation for courses and demotivated or non-reactive students. Excerpts below can be an explanation for the issue:

I may not be sure about the time when I should make code-switching and my accent may cause students not to be able to understand the content well. Especially in verbal lessons, language is a challenge for us because there are so many new terms to be explained. I try to compensate for the language-related problems by using visuals. (LA)

The low motivation level of students toward EMI is the most challenging thing for me. Students' motivation level is low because they are aware of difficulties they have in EMI courses. Therefore, I try to use shorter and clearer sentences in order not to confuse them with complicated sentences … (LF).

As for integrative and instrumental motivation levels of EMI, lecturers referred to instrumental reasons more than integrative ones. They believed that it was easier to review literature in English, to read or write English articles, to give English presentations, to find a good job and to study or work abroad. With respect to integrative reasons, they suggested that EMI provided them to interact with people speaking English, to gain different perspectives and to improve their English.

It provides me to gain different perspectives. I can easily understand different cultures and this helps me broaden my horizon. (LD)

English is the world language and it is necessary for finding a good and well-paid job. English and EMI are very vital for me because they help me write English articles and I can make academic interactions in international conferences (LD).

In terms of effects of learning/teaching environment on EMI, lecturers were generally positive about their own teaching skills in English whereas they were not content with their students' English language skills and motivation level. As to materials, they agreed with students on the idea that it was easier to find English materials. Statements of lecturers related to this issue are as in below:

…I love teaching through English so I can motivate myself on my own... (LF)

...Students demotivate me because they are uninterested and they give up at once. I cannot make them feel curious about the subjects unfortunately. (LD)

Materials are easy to find and they are really well-prepared... (LB)

Lastly, for learning/teaching strategies in EMI courses, lecturers pointed out that they frequently used PowerPoint slides, visuals, animations and lecturing technique. They also stated that their teaching strategies would not change if they had to teach through Turkish as in the excerpt below:

My teaching strategies do not change. I talk in the classroom mostly. I use PowerPoint slides and animations. It is more like lecturing. I give special importance to visuals in order to make the content simpler and to erase the language-related problems because students understand better if there are visuals and formulas on the board, I believe. (LF)

Overall, interview findings of students and lecturers are in consistency in respect to instrumental and integrative motivation levels of EMI, effects of learning/teaching environment and challenges of EMI to a great extent.

4. Discussion

Based on the findings, students in all groups seemed to be mostly motivated by both integrative and instrumental reasons toward EMI as in the studies of Kırkgöz (2005), Tabaro (2015) and Chen and Kraklow (2014). This finding confirmed by questionnaire results might not be in accordance with interview results because interview results showed that both EMI students and lecturers referred to instrumental reasons to a great extent. This may point to the fact that extrinsic or pragmatic reasons were dominant in the motivation of students and lecturers.

Appertaining to cognitive, affective and conative aspects, cognitive and conative aspects seemed to influence the student's motivation slightly more than affective aspect. That is, most of the students in all groups thought that EMI was good for their country at large as mentioned in the studies of Normark (2013) and Biggs (1990). They were in the idea that EMI provided countries to have access to the global world. This could be associated with cognitive aspect. Besides, it was found out that EMI helped students learn English fast and this was related to conative aspect. Similar to that, Maniraho (2013) claims that EMI was more suitable for language learning, in fact it was a way to teach/learn language. Contrarily, students mostly were not in the idea that EMI facilitated their work. Interestingly, they believed that EMI made easier for them to learn English but they did not believe that EMI was a facilitator for their subject area. This finding is in consistency with the notion that EMI made understanding the content in English harder (Arkın, 2013; Atik, 2010; Kırkgöz, 2014; Wilkinson, 2005). However, Morell et al. (2014) proposed that EMI fostered academic and professional development but the point was that people needed more English training.

In terms of Affective Aspect, it is seen that all groups of students were mostly motivated toward EMI thanks to the reasons such as chance to use English and improvement of their communication skills. In relation to this, Kırkgöz (2015) found out that final year students felt themselves strong in linguistic skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Identically, Kim (2014) concluded that there was a positive relation between the effectiveness of EMI and students' English speaking abilities. The least motivating reasons about Affective Aspect were linked to being angry and being unsure of oneself. That is, students might feel angry, disappointed or unsure about EMI from time to time.

Feelings in relation to EMI were diverse and depended on what students experienced in EMI courses. The most common feeling was anger because of not understanding the content knowledge,

failing in EMI courses and losing concentration. In spite of these, they could feel hopeful about their success in dealing with EMI courses and they could feel joyful about EMI because the content would be more meaningful if presented in English. They could also feel joyful if lecturers motivated them or if they felt their English language skills were improving constantly. The only differing feelings about EMI belonged to the second year students. They asserted that they had no special feelings about EMI because EMI was a necessity. That is to say, EMI was what should be applied in all educational settings. The reason for this may be because the better understanding of internationally published books and articles was possible thanks to EMI (Zare-ee & Gholami, 2013).

All participants in focus-group interviews underlined the fact that EMI was beneficial for their cognitive development as Probyn (2010) mentioned that lecturers could use various teaching strategies to mediate students' cognitive needs. However, lecturers were found to talk much and be more active than students in EMI courses Relatedly, Kyeyune (2010) argued that teacher talk domination should be abandoned because it prevents a healthy communication between students and lecturers resulting in negative effects on learning (Probyn, 2010). Also, the third year students mentioned that lecturers' way of teaching led them to memorize information, which is similar to what was found in the study of Kırkgöz (2014). At this point, it should be stressed that EMI lecturers should be given pedagogical support to encourage student talk (Vu & Burns, 2014). In other words, lecturers should be trained for effective lecturing in English (Başıbek, et. al, 2013) or they may be assisted in terms of effective teaching strategies that could be used in EMI courses.

In relation to findings from interviews with lecturers, they were found to be not satisfied with their students' linguistic skills, which is in the same vein with Cho's (2012) consideration that implementation of EMI in an EFL context may be ineffective owing to both lecturers' and students' limited command of English. Correspondingly, EMI may be an ineffective way to teach because of linguistic limitations resulting from clarity and accuracy problems in teaching through English (Vinke, et al., 1998). In spite of these, lecturers believed that English sources were well-prepared and numerous; thereof, should be used instead of Turkish sources. Concordantly, Zare-ee and Ggolami (2013) supported the idea that EMI may be beneficial for understanding international books and articles and it also provides to share knowledge with the world because English has a status as an international language. Nevertheless, Jensen and Thogersen (2011) who said that lecturers were not prepared to teach EMI courses and this may be acceptable for the present study because students were of the opinion that lecturers could alter their way of teaching. To exemplify, lecturers' code-switching might hinder students' understanding the content as Kyenune (2010) proposed that switch to mother tongue was not useful. All in all, it can be suggested that lecturers use a wide range of teaching strategies according to Probyn (2010) rather than constantly resorting to PowerPoint slides.

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

The focal point of this study was to examine students' and lecturers' motivation toward EMI in terms of different aspects and fundamental findings indicate that students need to be more encouraged to improve their English communication skills, especially writing and speaking skills in their subject area. For this, lecturers should try to create a motivating and supportive environment in the classroom. Also, the preparatory school has so many things to do to help students gain sufficient linguistic skills in learning through English. Most especially, language courses should be focused on how to write and speak in English efficiently. Specifically, writing in English can pose some problems such as finding the suitable words from the engineering terminology. It is seen that lecturers should focus on productive skills more.

As the present study suggested that teacher talk was more dominant in EMI courses, lecturers should concentrate more on students' speaking skills rather than just making them to listen to lectures without doing anything. That is, the interaction in the classroom should be mutual. If it becomes mutual, then students could feel themselves successful in terms of English use in EMI courses. Inevitably, this will make students have positive perceptions and emotions toward EMI because they need to be aware of the vitality of their feelings toward EMI. If they have positive feelings, then they can be more relaxed and happier to be involved in EMI courses. To achieve this, especially EMI students can be given meaningful tasks in which they use English and content knowledge. If they do so, this may directly or indirectly increase their motivation in learning through English.

To sum up, the present study mainly demonstrates that there is an urgent need to re-regulate the current EMI policy in Turkey. Firstly, it could be made possible to implement EMI in other education levels after necessary regulations are completed for the basis of EMI. Related to this, language courses in the preparatory programs can be reshaped according to the pre-requisites of EMI which is offered in departments. These two points are to provide students to have a sufficient level of English because if they do, then they become more qualified in their specific study area and this directly affects their motivation positively. Moreover, institutional support might be necessary for long-term success in contexts where English is the medium of instruction (Paseka, 2000). Otherwise, EMI implementations may be ineffective if students' proficiency level of English is limited (Cho, 2012).

Note: This article is a modified version of the MA thesis entitled "An Investigation into Motivation of Engineering Students and Lecturers toward English Medium Instruction at Tertiary Level in Turkey" (Turhan, 2017).

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Türkiye'de yükseköğretim düzeyinde mühendislik öğrencileri ve öğretim elemanlarının İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı motivasyonları

Öz

Normark'a (2013) göre İngilizce'nin evrensel bir toplum düzeyine ulaşma aracı olması günümüz eğitim alanında belli bir konuyu İngiliz dilinde çalışmanın ne kadar önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. Bunun sebebi ise İngilizce'nin üniversitelerin evrensel bir statü kazanması için bir motivasyon kaynağı olmasıdır (Coleman, 2006). Bu nedenle bu çalışmanın odak noktası öğrencilerin ve öğretim elemanlarının İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı olan motivasyon değişimlerini açığa çıkarmaktır çünkü motivasyon İngiliz dilinde öğretim uygulamalarının başarısında belirleyici bir etken olabilir. Bu amaçla konuyla ilgili derin bir anlayış elde etmek adına bu çalışma karma yöntem araştırması olarak tasarlanmıştır. Katılımcılar Türkiye'de bir devlet üniversitendeki makine mühendisliği bölümü öğrencileri ve öğretim elemanlarıdır. Bu bağlamda katılımcıların İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı motivasyonlarını etkileyen unsurları incelemek için likert tipi bir anket adapte edilmiştir. Nicel verilerin analizinde ortalama ve standart sapma değerlerine ulaşmak için "Betimleyici İstatistik" ve öğrencelerin motivasyonunda kaçıncı sınıf olduklarının belirleyici bir etken olup olmadığını saptamak içinse "Yorumlayıcı İstatistik" yöntemlerinden MANOVA testi uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerle odak grup görüşmeleri ve öğretim elemanları ile de bireysel görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Görüşmelerden elde edilen nitel veriler tümevarımsal içerik analizi yoluyla analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar birinci, ikinci, üçüncü ve dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı motivasyonları arasında önemli bir fark olmadığını gösterse de birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin az da olsa İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı daha motive oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra araçsal

motivasyon daha baskın olabilmektedir ve öğretim elemanlarının İngiliz dilinde öğretime karşı motivasyonları çeşitli sebeplere göre farklılaşmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: İngiliz dilinde öğretim; motivasyon; mühendislik öğrencileri ve öğretim elemanları

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The effect of virtual reality on EFL writing performance

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Abstract

Today technological developments emerge in a blink of an eye with an astounding speed and each update or development is investigated by educational researchers to contribute educational research and practice. VR (Virtual Reality), one of these technologies, can be defined as the visual technology in which a person experiences various virtual environments through dedicated hardware and software. Having adopted a Sequential Exploratory Mixed Method, the current research was inspired by the virtual opportunity provided by VR technologies and aimed to examine the effect of VR experience on developing EFL writing skills. 24 freshman EFL students initially attended a semi-structured interview and watched a VR and a 2D traditional video in different time periods. After completing a short writing task, learners were interviewed again for post-experience opinions. The results showed that (1) EFL learners were aware of VR technology, (2) VR experience did not affect short term writing performance but was found to be promising in the long run and (3) a majority of learners enjoyed VR videos but also expressed a number of technical limitations such as low video quality and physical discomfort. VR technologies were also discussed in terms of language teaching research.

Keywords: Virtual reality; language learning; EFL writing; mixed method

1. Introduction

Developments in information and communication technologies are happening in the blink of an eye and this incredibly rapid process has been used in numerous practices for various purposes. One of these recent technologies; Virtual Reality (VR) has turned out to be a trendy technological application. VR encompasses numerous practices including gaming, simulation technologies and education. While being an expensive technology in the past, today VR applications are much more accessible. Due to its interdisciplinary nature, VR has many definitions in related literature. VR refers to the implementations by which individuals find themselves in a virtually created environment using various tools and interact with the environment (Çavas, Çavas & Can, 2004; Carrozzino, & Bergamasco, 2010). According to Rheingold (1991), VR refers to experiences in which users could walk around in three dimensional environments and this environment could be observed from all angles. The definition by Hay (1997) describes VR as the technology which simulates real-life

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experiences and constructs thoughts by using computers and various accessories, thus promoting communication between people, machines and other entities. Another definition handles VR as a novel technology that allows users to communicate in a dynamic medium by providing perceptions for sensory organs to feel real and feel like being in another place (Çavaş, Çavaş & Can, 2004; Bayraktar & Kaleli, 2007).
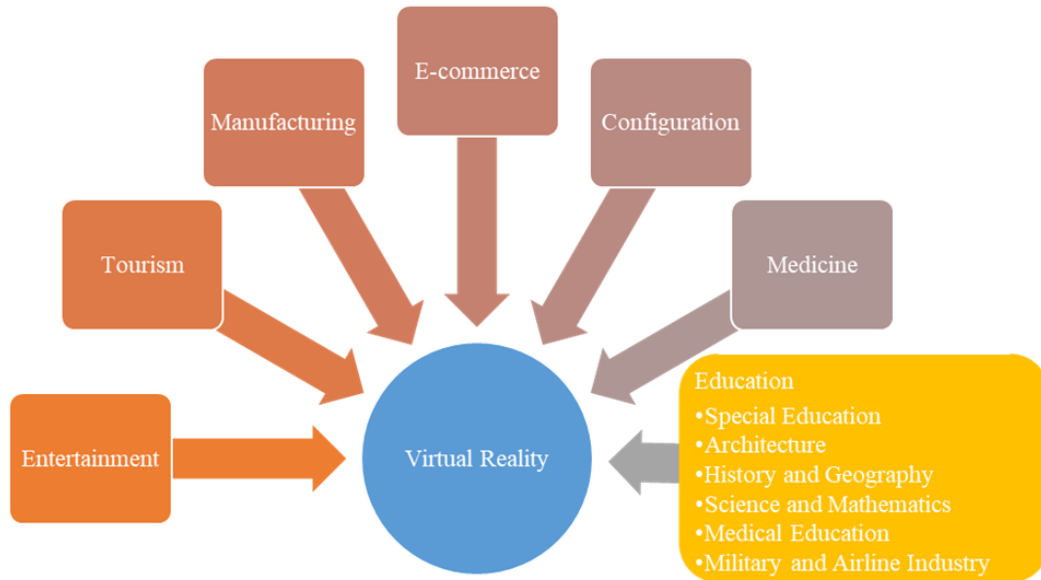
Figure 1. VR fields of Use

1.1. Theoretical Background

1.1.1. VR as an Educational Technology

Simply put, VR technology operates through VR software and hardware. While software connected to a computer processes the visual stimuli, hardware (VR goggles) displays visual content for the wearer. The users' sense of presence and interactivity are provided by the hardware, which is the basic characteristic of the VR applications. According to Kayapa and Tong (2011), the components of this technology are as follows:

Visual Providers
- Three-dimensional monitors and projections for visualization of software data, imagers placed on head, virtual reality goggles, and so on. The VR goggles;
- **Internal VR Goggles**
- **Mobile VR Goggles**
- **Integrated VR Goggles**

VR Robots
- Mechanical tool that allows interaction with a three-dimensional medium created via software.

Interaction Tools
- Tools that allow users to interact with content, such as a mouse, a manoeuvre, or a data glove.

Positional Tracking
- A set of wearable vehicles based on navigation.

Figure 2. Components of VR Technology

VR technologies are not stable; since it is used in various disciplines such as medicine and education, its abilities and opportunities provided are continually updated. Its field of use have been expanded recently and applied in more areas such as gaming, sports, tourism and advertising. The large scope of VR enables its use in education also and thus, VR has recently been a tool of education technology. Çavas, Çavas & Can (2004) classified use of VR in education environments and Başaran (2010) classified use of VR implementations in all areas. A combination of these two classifications was given in Figure 1.

Widespread fame of computer assisted education fostered the use of VR technologies in educational settings in which VR was thought to be applied firstly in 1989 (Pantelidis, 2010). VR is no magic but what makes it attractive as an education tool is that learners are provided a virtual learning environment which boosts their interest and motivation (Başaran, 2010; Nooriafshar, Williams & Maraseni, 2004). Additionally, VR is economical and simulates learning environments which are nearly impossible in traditional classroom context (such as meeting a native speaker in London or visiting a museum in Washington), or organizing emotion arousing activities (observing a live dinosaur or meeting a shark in the deep ocean) (Nooriafshar, Williams & Maraseni, 2004). Eventually, it is widely accepted that VR technology could support education in both motivational and economic dimensions (Youngblut, 1998).

In a nutshell, VR provides an independent learning environment in which time and place are defined by the video material (Roussou, 2004). Additionally, it can provide an informal learning context which can support the learning gains acquired in classroom setting. Moreover, it presents both joyful and exciting course moments by simulating impossible and dangerous events in the classroom (Williams-Bell, Kapralos, Hogue, Murphy, & Weckman, 2015). Thus, it can be used to evaluate learner reactions and skill development. With these aspects, VR may provide valuable solutions in EFL settings in which learners do not have the opportunity to involve target language context in real life.

1.1.2. VR Technology and Language Learning: An Overview

VR is a visual experience which is distinguished with its feature of "reality" and the feeling of involvement. As an educational tool, it provides valuable opportunities to enhance learning. According to Dalgarno and Lee (2010), 5 main benefits made VR technologies unique and distinguished. First one is "Enhanced spatial knowledge of visual stimuli" which refers to the opportunity to explore the visuals as desired unlike 2D traditional videos. Secondly, "Tasks that would not be possible in real world" could be possible with VR such as visiting an arctic cave. Thirdly, "Enhanced motivation and engagement" means that VR boosts learner motivation and increases the involvement in activities. Next, "contextualized learning" is another opportunity in which learners are exposed to the input in the related context especially for CLIL (Shuster, 2016). And finally "effective collaborative learning" is easier with VR; learners can interact in real-like environments which enhance learning gains. In education, a number of research showed that VR use improved learning gains (Merchant, Goetz, Cifuentes, Keeney-Kennicutt, & Davis, 2014) and motivated learners (Gay & Santiago, 1994).

In language learning context, VR is yet in its infancy. Long term future predictions are fairly positive on the use of VR in learning and teaching a language (Lloyd, Rogerson & Stead, 2017) however, evaluation of language learning skills with VR application is not adequate. Among some recent research in language learning and the use of VR technologies, Yang, Chen, & Jeng, (2010) examined the effect of VR on simulating a learning environment including physical interaction. In their 6 stage lesson plan, learners physically interacted with the learning environment. Their results showed that learner motivation increased with VR and teachers developed a positive attitude towards

VR applications in language classrooms. In another research, Shih (2015) conducted a study aiming to improve culture acquisition by using VR technology. In her study, learners walked in the streets of London with an English guide presenting virtual objects, history and architect. Participants were also able to use chat and voice functions interacting with the guide. The results showed that learners benefited VR experience. Four learner factors, namely linguistic proficiency, motivation, character traits and attitudes were found to have predicted the rate of learning gains. The study by Ernest et. al., (2012) aimed to develop teachers' experience of online group work and to identify professional development needs in this area. Their study relied on the hands-on experience of a group of 20 language teachers and investigated some of the competences that are needed to successfully collaborate in virtual environments. Their results revealed the skills that teachers need to apply online collaborative learning in the virtual classroom. Some other studies also focused on second life and virtual environments in language learning (Wang, Calandra, Hibbard, & Lefaiver, 2012; Peterson, 2010), games and VR (Liu & Chu, 2010) and 3D instructional design (Ibáñez et. al., 2011).

1.1.3. Purpose and Significance of the Study

In relation to some previous related research, this study is significant as it aimed to examine the role of VR technologies on developing writing skill in EFL context. According to Jonassen (2000), use of Technologies could activate cognitive tools and enable meaningful learning. Thus, VR Technologies can improve learner capacity to perceive, imagine in a creative sense, especially for teaching abstract concepts (Burdea & Coiffet, 2003). Additionally, VR reduces cognitive load with the feeling of reality and immersion which boosts learner capacity to conceptualize and learn (Wetzel, Radtke, & Stern, 1994). Primarily, only 2D visuals (i.e. pictures, videos) are commonly used in language classrooms as a pre-writing activity to provide background information. Our study targets to evaluate the effects of 3D VR videos on learner retention of details on a given topic and its reflections on their writing performance. Another purpose is to investigate VR awareness of EFL students along with their liking of VR experience and the effect of VR technologies on EFL writing performance in contrast to 2D traditional videos.

1.2. Research questions

In accordance with the research aims, answers for the following research questions were sought:

1. Are the participants aware of VR technology?

    a. Have they experienced it before?

    b. What are the opinions of participants toward use of VR Goggles in EFL instruction?

2. Is there an effect of VR technology on EFL writing performance and remembering the details?

    a. What is the effect on VR on delayed writing performance?

    b. Can it provide long term retention in comparison to 2D traditional video?

3. What are the opinions of EFL learners towards VR after experiencing it in EFL context? Are there any limitations of VR?

2. Method

2.1. Design

This study adopted Sequential Exploratory Mixed Method in which qualitative data was analyzed first and then synchronized with quantitative findings (Cresswell & Plano-Clark, 2014). In this respect,

this study initially aimed to reveal VR awareness among EFL learners via the first set of qualitative data and then used quantitative data to examine EFL writing performance. For the final phase, second set of qualitative data was analyzed to examine learner ideas about their experience with VR. For quantitative data, this study adopted a within subject design in which all participants were tested under the same 2 conditions; VR and 2D Traditional Video.

2.2. Participants

24 EFL freshman students (12 males and 12 females) in an age range of 18 to 19 in an ELT department voluntarily participated in this study. Depending on the proficiency exam conducted in the beginning of this semester, all participants were intermediate learners of English. All participants also attended English preparation class last year and successfully passed. For sampling procedure, purposive sampling was adopted to obtain robust results and hold the effect of language proficiency constant.

2.3. Materials and Visual Stimuli

For VR experience, Samsung VR Goggles with Samsung S7 Edge Mobile Phone was utilized. This mobile phone can be attached to the VR goggles easily. 2 VR videos were chosen by the researchers; one was about Chernobyl and another one was giving brief information about bears and their natural habitat. Both VR videos included only short talks in English and duration for both videos was about 5 minutes in 800x600 resolution. For 2D traditional video condition, mp4 formats for the same videos were downloaded from YouTube and presented in classroom setting via a computer and a projector.

2.4. Data collection

To collect qualitative data, a semi-structured interview form was prepared by researchers. This form consisted of 6 open-ended questions and learners were required to respond freely. To ensure the validity of the interview form, opinions of 3 experts were obtained and the final version of the interview form was created with the help of Turkish language experts. Interviews were organized depending on voluntary basis and were recorded with an audio recording device for further transcription procedures.

For quantitative data collection, learners were instructed to write a short paragraph on the topic of the video right after attending either 2D video and VR sessions. They were free to use a bilingual dictionary and allocated time for the writing task was 15 minutes. As VR sessions were conducted individually, writing tasks after VR experience was conducted in an isolated room individually. For delayed writing tasks, the data was collected collectively in a classroom.

Writing scores were defined depending on inter-rater reliability; 2 instructors of writing scored each paper independently and their results were averaged. The raters also watched the videos before they assessed papers and instructed that they should score each paper solely depending on how much detail was given, thus minor grammatical and organizational errors were ignored.

2.5. Data analysis

Content analysis method was used to analyze qualitative data. Answers of interviewees stored in audio recording device were deciphered. The transcribed content was analyzed by creating related themes in the context of research questions. In order to sustain coding security during these processes, researchers worked on the same interview records. Coding security ensures that different coders code the same text or message accordingly or reach the same results in different times (Bilgin, 1999). At the

end of the analysis process, category and theme structures were created and relational structures were obtained.

To analyze quantitative data, Friedman Test (non-parametric equivalent of one-way repeated measures ANOVA) was preferred. The reason was that the data was observed to have been slightly skewed and kurtic with significant Shapiro Wilk values. In this respect, Friedman Test enables the analysis of non-normal repeated measures data as an extension of paired samples t-test with several levels of factor aiming to reveal any significant differences within factor levels (Field, 2005). As all learners were tested under the same 2 conditions in a within subject design (two levels as VR and 2D Traditional Video), this test suits best to reveal any statistical effect of VR experience.

2.6. Procedure

For the first phase of the study, 24 learners were interviewed and their VR awareness was evaluated. In the second phase, all participants were randomly assigned to VR and Video groups equally. While VR group individually watched a VR video "Chernobyl" with VR Goggles seating on 360º rotating chairs, the other group collectively watched the same video in 2D format projected on the wall in a traditional classroom setting. Thirdly, immediately after watching the video, all participants were given 15 minutes to write a short paragraph on the topic "Chernobyl" and were asked write down as many details as they remember. After one day, participants who watched the video with VR goggles were interviewed about their experience. Finally, for delayed writing task, all participants were asked to write about the same topic after a month.

For the next data collection procedure, same steps were applied but this time, participants who initially attended VR group were taken into 2D traditional video group. The previous video group also took all VR procedures. In this procedure, learners watched a video about "Bears and their habitat". With this way, all learners were exposed to a 2D traditional video instruction and VR experience. Learners' papers were then given to 2 raters for scoring.

3. Results

To assess and interpret the effect of VR experience on EFL writing performance, the results obtained were presented in accordance with the research questions.

3.1. Are the participants aware of VR technology? Have they experienced it before? What are the opinions of participants toward use of VR Goggles in EFL instruction?

According to the initial interview results, a vast majority of the learners stated that they have never experienced VR technology before (N:23, %96). However, they also mentioned that they heard of this technology in the internet, on TV or from their friends. They reported that they know how it works and what it provides.

Participants were asked how VR could be used as an educational tool in language learning and teaching. Their ideas on which skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary) VR could be implemented were examined. Each participant was allowed to express more than one opinion. Their ideas were summarized in Table 1:

Table 1. EFL Learner Ideas on the Use of VR

VR in EFL Learning and Teaching	Ideas	
	f	*%*
Listening	22	62,85
Speaking	8	22,85
Writing	4	11,42
Reading	1	2,85
Vocabulary	0	0

Initial results indicated that majority of learners thought VR technology provides most benefit for the development of listening skill. This was followed by speaking; learners thought VR could also be helpful for developing speaking skill. Only a few students thought that VR could enhance writing performance. Nearly no participant reported that VR technology could be used for developing EFL reading and vocabulary. Some examples were as follows:

> P_3: … actually, there may be an object its name written on it. By doing so, it may improve vocabulary skills. … For example, we have a speaking course, we always watch videos during the course. I think it would be great to look around while watching a video (means with VR here). I mean, it may develop speaking skills.

> P_4: I think it may be beneficial for listening, watching a series would be interesting as VR provides real like environment, people are real-like and when they talk, it may be much more memorable I guess because it is as if you are one of them. Listening may develop and vocabulary may be more memorable, it would be as if you talk with them as in real life.

> P_8: These real-like visuals would be great for listening courses. I mean it is so much beneficial for listening skills.

> P_13: I think it would not be beneficial for writing and reading though it may not pose something negative I guess…

3.2. Is there an effect of VR technology on EFL writing performance and remembering the details?

Initial qualitative findings showed that some learners thought VR can boost EFL writing performance. Thus, this section presented quantitative findings with regard to the effect of VR on writing skills.

Some variables in the data was observed to have skewed and kurtocic with significant Shapiro Wilk values indicating deviation from normality. Shapiro Wilk was given as it is widely used and recommended (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). Thus, Friedman Test was adopted.

Table 2. Shapiro Wilk Values

Writing Performance	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
2D Video Initial	,918	24	,053
2D Video Delayed	,920	24	,059
VR Initial	,854	24	,003
VR Delayed	,778	24	,000

To investigate whether VR procedure affected EFL writing performance or not, a Friedman Test was performed. Results showed that learners scored slightly higher in 2D traditional video condition (M=67, SD=11) than they did on VR condition (M=63, SD=12). Friedman Test results of VR and 2D video scores indicated that there was a differential rank ordered performance for these 2 conditions; $(X^2(1)=3.85$, p<.05. No post hoc was applied as there were only 2 levels. In sum, learners did significantly better in traditional 2D video condition than they did in VR condition.

3.3. Can VR provide long term retention in comparison to 2D traditional video?

Initial Friedman Test results indicated no superior effect of VR on EFL writing performance. This research question aimed to reveal if VR would affect long term retention of details and delayed writing performance. To investigate the effect of VR in more detail, writing performances in initial and delayed sessions were also analyzed. For this analysis, a Friedman test was conducted to determine whether participants had a differential rank ordered test scores for initial and delayed 2D video conditions. Initial 2D video scores (M=67, SD=11) decreased by over 10 points in delayed 2D video condition (M=56, SD=7). This decrease was observed to have been significant; $(X^2(1)=22.0$, p<.05. In sum, learner scores significantly decreased for over 10 points in 2D traditional video condition. No post hoc was applied as there were only 2 levels. A line graph presenting the performance decline was as follows:
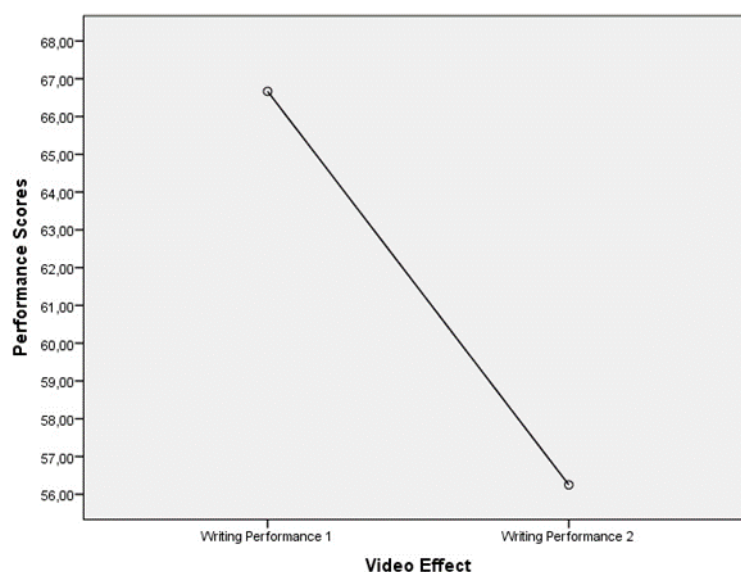
Graph 1. Two-Timed Writing Performance in 2D Traditional Video Condition

Similar to previous procedure, another Friedman Test was performed to examine initial and delayed VR writing performances. Initial VR scores (M=63, SD=12) decreased by 6 points in delayed VR condition (M=57, SD=11). This decrease was also observed to have been significant; $(X^2(1)=16.2$, p<.05. In both 2D video and VR condition, delayed writing performances significantly decreased and learners were exposed to memory decay. However, this decrease was slightly less for VR condition. No post hoc was applied as there were only 2 levels. The graph illustrating the decrease was as follows:
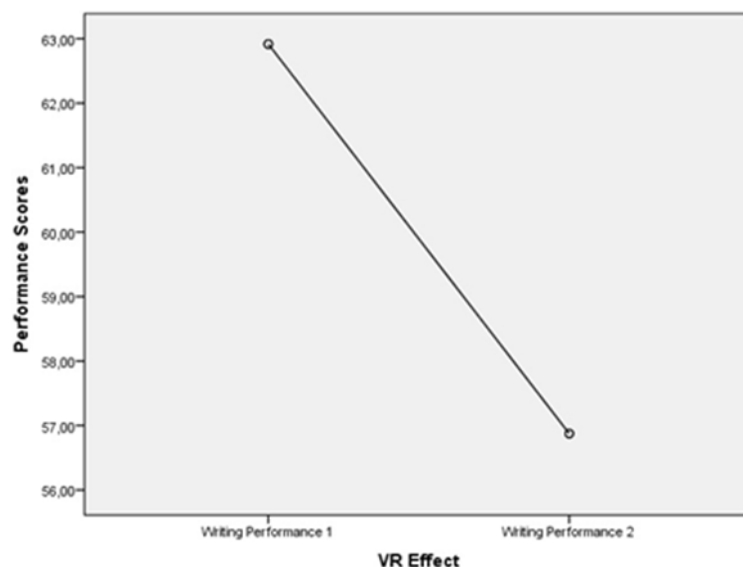
Graph 2. Two-Timed Writing Performance in VR condition

Quantitative findings showed that VR did not significantly affect EFL writing performance. On the contrary, learners scored better in traditional 2D video condition than they did in VR condition. For delayed writing performance, learner writing performance significantly decreased after a month in both traditional 2D video and VR conditions. Albeit, this decline was less in VR condition in which writing scores decreased for about 6 points in comparison to 2D traditional video condition in which a decrease of 10 points was observed. In this respect, the assumption was that EFL learners slightly remembered more details in the long run when they acquired background information with VR for writing purposes.

3.4. What are the opinions of EFL learners towards VR after experiencing it in EFL context? What are its cons and pros?

After VR sessions and writing tasks, learner ideas were examined via interviews. All learners generally liked the new technology and the experience (N: 24, %100). In this respect, why they liked VR was analyzed through content analysis by constructing themes. Each participant was free to express several opinions. The positive themes were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Positive Themes on VR Experience

+ Themes	Like Ratio	
	f	*%*
Real-like environment	22	42,3
Feeling of involvement	20	38,5
Excitement	5	9,6
Joy	3	5,8
Ease of use	1	1,9
Detailed observation	1	1,9

According to the results, real like environment and feeling of involvement were observed to be the most liked features of VR experience among EFL learners. Additionally, excitement and joy VR provided were other factors that learners liked. Some ideas were as follows:

> P_1: It was really portable and feels real, as it works with a mobile phone, it can be used at anywhere. Firstly, you are not limited like a normal video, you can look and observe anywhere on the video, you can see more details. Thus you can have more opportunity to learn about the environment.

> P_2: It was strange at first, as if I was in somewhere different. But then I used to it, I noticed that I have fear of heights, it was as if I was about to fall. It was exciting. Also as far as I know Chernobyll is a forbidden place, impossible to go and take a look around. With VR it was as if I was there.

> P_4: It was real-like, I could go deep and take a look around easily.

> P_7: …it is as if real, more detailed…I mean it was as if you are there at that moment, it is exciting…

> P_8: It was very real, I experienced different feelings. For example, while you flying, it rises a fear like emotion. The rotating chair affected me also, I could turn whenever I wanted, without it, I don't think I could feel so real.

> P_9: I felt as if I was in the room, all that dirty walls, as if it smells…other friend watched it in projection, I think I saw more than they saw…it was not like a normal video, it made me feel real.

Although participants generally liked VR experience, they also reported a number of limitations. These limitations were not about the technology but were mostly about implementation process. Participants were free to express more than a single opinion. Negative themes were given below:

Table 4. Negative Themes on VR Experience

- Themes	Like Ratio	
	f	*%*
Video quality	8	50
Fear	4	25
Dizziness – Headache – Eye fatigue	3	18,75
VR goggle size	1	6,25

Top limitation reported was the quality of the video used. Learners complained about the quality of the video and stated that high resolution videos would be better. Additionally, the results also showed that video quality and feeling of reality were in parallel. Although VR goggles were portable, some learners mentioned that it was heavy and did not fit their heads well. Moreover, in long term use, learners stated that there might be some problems such as dizziness and eye fatigue. Sample participant ideas on limitations were given below:

> P_10: I guess video was in low quality. Wish it would be better, it would be more realistic.

> P_11: In the video, there were some scenes in which I rise to the sky, very high, I felt dizzy. For example, on the helicopter especially, I felt dizzy. It was so realistic.

P_12: For a limitation, I think we are too stable, I mean we just stay where we are. Wish this technology would be further developed that we walk and explore more, I guess these technologies exists. With this feature it would be incredible!

4. Discussion and Conclusions

Our results showed that VR did not affect EFL writing performance but it affected long term retention. Additionally, the findings showed that EFL learners were aware of this technology and reported some pros and cons about it.

The study showed no significant effect of VR experience on EFL writing performance. Quantitative results indicated that 2D traditional video condition improved writing performance better than VR condition did. However, related literature showed that VR videos attracted more learner attention with its content (Freina & Ott, 2015). In this respect, this attention was expected to have a facilitative effect on retention (Dolgunsöz, 2015). Our findings contradicted with these expectations; VR experience did not provide any short term positive effect on EFL writing performance. This may due to the very nature of VR in which users were totally in control of the environment and had to move and turn around to see the details unlike 2D traditional videos in which all details were presented at the same time. Hence, VR users might have missed some details as they were required to turn and look around to see more details. When they turned or moved their head to see more, they might have missed some details. As a result, this self-control status might have affected the number of details exposed.

Although initial analysis of 2D video writing performance was found to be better, VR users were observed to have slightly scored more than learners who watched 2D traditional video in terms of delayed writing performance conducted after a month. This finding may be interpreted as the positive effect of VR experience on long term retention. It was also supported by a number of related research proposing that VR experience could support long term retention and inhibit time-decay effects on memory (Dong, 2016; Freina & Ott, 2015; Garland, Vasquez and Pearl, 2012). In sum, VR technology is not a miracle solution in short term EFL writing instruction but may seriously support retention and performance in the long run. In this respect, VR can be utilized in long term instructional designs to support learner retention and writing performance in EFL classrooms.

Regarding qualitative findings, EFL learners were knowledgeable about VR technologies. The results indicated that learners were aware of VR technology via social media, friends and internet. This awareness may be due to the rapid development of VR technologies recently (Dong, 2016). Additionally, reasonable prices for VR and the increase of new VR content might have boosted the number of users recently and improved VR awareness. (Ferrer-Garcia, Gutiérrez-Maldonado & Riva, 2013; Parsons, Rizzo, Rogers & York, 2009; Wiederhold, 2006).

Learners presented positive opinions towards the use of VR in EFL instruction beside a number of technical limitations. EFL learners thought that VR technologies were promising and motivating. A majority of the learners found VR enjoyable and effective as it could present a real-like learning environment and created a feeling of involvement. Especially, some features of VR technologies such as amusement, ease of use, user friendly interface and portability provided positive outcomes among learners. These findings confirmed previous related research which especially emphasized the feeling of reality and involvement VR provided (Dong, 2016; Earnshaw, 2014; Hensel, 1992; Hussein & Nätterdal, 2015). Yet, VR is a developing technology and learners also expressed some emotional, technical and comfort related limitations. Our findings showed that primary limitation was the quality of the video. In this respect, Zara & Slavik (2003) previously argued that a number of problems related

to VR experience might have emerged as VR videos had relatively in lower video resolution and quality when compared to other video environments and real life visuals. Personal fears (i.e. fear of height) also were reported to be a limitation. Additionally, feeling of discomfort was also expressed by some learners mainly due to the goggles used. This finding confirmed a recent research by Yildirim (2017) who proposed that prolonged use of VR might bring about a number of physical discomfort. However, when compared to pros of VR, these cons were much less.

In general, EFL learners were not only amused by VR experience but also reported a number of drawbacks. This amusement might have been a result of the novelty of the technology and learners' first experience with VR. Regarding EFL writing performance, VR is no miracle and cannot provide short term solutions. Instead, VR technologies should be embedded in the language curriculum and their effects should be tested in long term language instruction. It still requires some technical and content related improvements such as increased resolution and quality to be effectively used in language teaching.

4.1. Recommendations and Further Research

A similar but longitudinal study may be carried out with more learners from different age groups. The effect of VR technologies may be examined regarding other language skills; speaking, listening and reading.

4.2. Limitations

This study was conducted only with university students. Younger learners may respond differently. Only 2 contents were used to assess EFL writing performance, more videos may be used in a long term study.

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Sanal gerçeklik teknolojisinin yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretiminde yazma becerisine etkisi

Öz

Günümüzde teknoloji alanında yaşanan gelişmeler göz önüne alındığında eğitim ortamlarında çok sık olarak farklı teknolojiler kullanılmakta ve öğretimsel etkileri incelenmektedir. Sanal gerçeklik uygulamaları da bu teknolojilerin en son örneklerinden biri olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Sanal Gerçeklik kişinin sanal ortamla birebir ilişki içinde bulunduğu ve etkileşime geçebildiği modern bir teknolojidir. Çok aşamalı açımlayıcı karma desene sahip bu çalışmada İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 24 öğrenci hem sanal gerçeklik hem geleneksel 2 boyutlu video izlemiş ve yazma performanslarına bakılmıştır. Ayrıca tüm öğrencilerle yarı yapılandırılmış röportaj yapılmıştır. Çalışma sonucunda; VR teknolojisinin kullanıcılar tarafından kullanılmasa bile medya, arkadaş ve sosyal ağlar gibi ortamlarla bu teknolojiden haberdar oldukları görülmüştür. Nicel sonuçlar öğrencilerin geleneksel video da daha başarılı olduğunu göstermiş olsa da, sanal gerçeklik tecrübesi uzun süreli hafızaya daha olumlu etki etmiştir. Sanal gerçeklik uygulamalarının sunmuş oldukları gerçeklik ve ortamda bulunma hislerinden dolayı kullanıcıları tarafından çok fazla beğendikleri görülmüştür. Ancak sunulan içeriğin görüntü kalitesi gibi teknik özellikleri beğeni durumunu olumsuz yönde etkileyebilmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sanal gerçeklik; dil öğrenimi; yazma becerisi; karma desen

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Word combinations of English in academic writing

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Abstract

Collocations, no matter where to use them, are an important linguistic issue if it is native fluency that is longed for in academic writing. In line with that, the present study aimed at increasing the awareness towards the importance of collocations in order to have native fluency in academic writing; making some suggestions regarding involvement of collocations in academic texts, and creating a practicable list of collocations to be used especially in research articles by non-native writers of English. A hundred research articles written in English in the field of ELT by native speakers of English made up the data of the present study. The data were analysed and the collocations were identified and categorized. The categorized collocations were enhanced through collocations dictionaries to be able to create a comprehensive list of collocations. The findings showed that native speakers heavily rely on collocations while writing academic texts. In addition, the literature also provided compelling evidence regarding the close relation between native fluency in academic texts and correct collocation use.

Keywords: Lexical collocations; word combinations; native fluency; writing; academic writing

1. Introduction

The impact and role of phraseology have received due recognition in foreign language teaching. Thanks to the advent of corpus linguistics, phraseological patterns in academic texts became visible, which spawned valuable building blocks in vocabulary learning of a learner (Jurko, 2010). Later Nation (2006) pointed out that L2 word combination, also called collocation, deserved special attention. Collocation is recurrence of two or more words in a way more than arbitrary, and is instinctively used by writers heavily in academic texts. In contrast with the views that often regard collocations as arbitrary, many wording preferences in English sentence structure cannot be explained on the base of syntactic or semantic grounds, but on the base of relations between words that mostly occur together (Smadja, 1989).

It is commonly known that many important facts that were previously neglected as extralinguistic gradually started to expand its influence (Telia, Bragina, Oparina, & Sandomirskaya, 1994). Once considered as trivial, collocations began to gain importance, and a considerable interest was attributed to lexical collocations, which were largely seen as pre-fabricate language units at earlier times (Cowie,

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1994). Today it is a definite proof that lexical collocations have pivotal roles in ELT particularly in vocabulary acquisition and phraseology. There is an extensive literature that proves the benefit of collocations for language producers. The first benefit is that collocations are valuable for learners in order to increase their knowledge of lexicon and general language proficiency. The second is that brain seems to work better with chunks and formulaic expressions while L1 influence in meta-cognitive issues remain as a major challenge that needs to be overcome. The final is that collocation may assist writers to have native-like writing skill. In other words, it is through collocations that a language user has native-fluency in their spoken or written discourses because "collocation is the key to fluency" (Hill, 2000, p. 164).

1.1. What is a collocation?

Better understanding of collocations may contribute us to increase our awareness toward them. For that purpose, definitions explaining collocations from various aspects by different researchers are due to help us understanding the importance of collocations for academic writing. Although definitions of a collocation in the literature centre around intuitive co-occurrence of words in the speaker's mind, many other definitions provide us a better way of understanding collocations, some of which chronologically are:

- A collocation addresses to syntagmatic relations, the meaning of which is not directly committed to the conceptual meaning (Firth, 1957).
- Collocations are two or more words occurring together with a strong tendency (Halliday, McIntosh, & Strevens, 1964).
- Contextually, collocations are appropriate forms of language. They have the power of specifying one another's occurrence (Kororsadowicz-Strazynska, 1980).
- Because a collocation is a sequence of lexical item that occurs habitually together, it is idiomatic. Yet, there is a difference that makes a collocation different from an idiomatic expression, which is that a collocation is wholly transparent, and a semantic constituent (Benson, 1985).
- A collocation is a type of semantic cohesion in which varies by the constituent elements in mutual degrees. The co-occurrence between lexical units in a collocational constituent may be strong or weak (Cruise, 1986).
- A collocation is composed of two co-occurring words that are connected in a native-speaker's memory (Aghbar, 1990).
- A collocation in English is described as a formulaic, prefabricated, and conventionalized combination of two or more words (Zhang, 1993).

Apart from being word combinations, the issue that should not be overlooked is that collocations are *patterned speech*. These patterned speeches include (Becker, 1975; cited in Kennedy, 1990):

formulaic speech	*(as a matter of fact)*
prefabricated patterns	*(that's a .....)*
unassimilated fragments	*("to meet you" as a greeting)*
prefabricated routines	*(how are you)*
sentence builders	*(that's a .....)*
idioms	*(kick the bucket)*
clichés	*(as a matter of fact)*
lexicalized sentence stems	*(as a matter of fact)*
set phrases	*(in brief; at the present time)*
polywords	*(the powder room)*
deictic locutions	*(as a matter of fact)*
situational utterances	*(I'm glad to meet you)*
verbatim texts	*(oozing charm from every pore)*

phrasal constraints   *(by pure coincidence)*
non-canonical forms   *(on with the show)*
fixed phrases   *(in brief; at the present time)*

Although collocations include majority of the patterned speech, they do not cover all of them. For example, idioms are patterned speech that should not be confused with collocations. Concisely, every patterned speech should not be considered as a collocation, which is "recurring sequences of words" (Kennedy, 1990, p.217).

1.2. Types of collocation

Lexical collocations vs. Grammatical collocations- Collocations, which previously had been regarded as a single title were divided into two as lexical and grammatical collocations by Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986). Grammatical collocations include an adjective, a verb or noun, plus an infinitive, a preposition or clause. The patterns of a phrasal grammatical collocations form from a lexical unit and a pattern that specifies the sub-categorization property of the head (Bentivogli & Pianta, 2003). Similarly, verb + noun, preposition + noun, and infinitive verbs have dominant places in grammatical collocations, reported Fontenelle (1998). On the other hand, lexical collocations, as stated by Bahns (1993), do not include infinitives, prepositions, or clauses; instead, various combinations of adjectives, adverbs, verbs, and nouns. Again, if compared to closed class structure of grammatical collocations, lexical collocations are composed of two equal open-class lexical items, and include no subordinate element (Fontenelle, 1998). This study dealt with lexical collocations rather than grammatical collocations.

Solid lexical collocations- When compared to lexical collocations, solid lexical collocations are much more rigorous in constructing a lexical word combination. The term was first used in a dissertation titled "Personal Communication" in 2002 under Dr. Aghbar' advising (cited from Sung, 2003) to refer to sequences of lexical items that occur repeatedly, hence get a strong bound to each other. There is such a strong interconnection among lexical items in solid lexical collocations that the native speaker hardly considers them as separate items or free combinations. *High winds, acute pain, light drizzle* can be considered as examples of solid lexical collocations. The present study did not make a distinction between lexical collocations and solid lexical collocations, and referred to both as lexical collocations.

Mis-collocation- Mis-collocations, contrary to well-established collocations, are in contravention of co-occurrence restrictions (Cruise, 1990). Though, they are very prevalent in non-native writers' writings. For example, a native speaker would say *the fast train; rancid butter;* or *a quick shower* but not *the quick train; rotten butter;* or *a fast shower*. Incorrect collocations are not acceptable in academic discourse at all, and they are regarded as "a major indicator of foreignness" (McArthur, 1992, p. 232).

1.3. The Importance of collocation

Having been introduced by Palmer (1933) and then brought to the discipline of theoretical linguistics by Firth (1957), collocations have had a growing influence on ELT. Vocabulary teaching, to which Lewis (2001) attracted attention through his theory of *Lexical approach*, is one of the issues that fell under the influence of collocations. Lexical approach entails teaching vocabulary to learners by using the power of word combinations already in their chunks. Accordingly, vocabulary knowledge is not only to know its dictionary meaning but to understand a number of details about the word. In addition to possible combinations of words, their derivational aspects such as suffixes and prefixes, their semantic behaviour, and their sociolinguistic attributes have importance in familiarizing with a

word (Richards, 1976). Therefore, word combination predictability plays a significant role in determining the way we use language, and likewise, prefabricated sentences taught in units make the learner to store and recall words readily (Nattinger, 1980) because "the importance of prefabricated speech routines in language behaviour" (Nattinger, 1980, p. 337) is known to language users.

Not all researchers made a consensus on the influence of collocation. For instance, Kennedy (1990) casted some doubts on whether collocation truly existed, which is a view in stark contrast with other eminent researchers in the field (e.g. Lewis, Nattinger, Pawley) who achieved an agreement on overwhelming prevalence of collocations. Similar to Kennedy, Krashen and Scarcella (1980) denied the views of that a large part of language included collocations. In spite of the objections regarding the prevalence of collocations, they did not make any serious claims with respect to the importance of collocations.

The close relationship between collation and specialized translation is worth mentioning specifically. Some researchers (e.g. Castro, Martinez, & Faber, 2014) established a strong bond between specialized translation and collocation. Specialised translation cannot be achieved only with accurate meaning transfer but adjustment to format specifications, punctuality in delivery (Bonet, 2002), satisfaction of communicative expectations (Montero, Silvia, & Mercedes, 2001), and understanding the concepts formed by various types of specialized lexical units; for example terminological phrases and terms (Montero, Silvia, & Pedro, 2002). It is understood that -to a great extent- phraseological units composed of prefabricated chunks and collocations contribute to achieve better specialised translations. Similarly, Castro et al. (2014) stated that collocations gain importance for both decoding and encoding the texts in the course of specialized translation. According to Rundell (2010), even grammar is not more important than collocations while making a translation because collocations make writers sound fluent.

It is becoming gradually apparent that "language is largely formulaic in nature, and that the competent use of formulaic sequences is an important part of fluent and natural language use" (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009, p. 157). Although to what extent non-native writers use collocation is not evident (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009), it is stated that non-native writers tend not to know much about collocations (Kjellmer, 1990), which are ready-at-hand and pre-constructed in minds of natives. That is not a no-objection case in terms of having native fluency because the strong bond between academic writing and collocations is well-established.

Howarth (1998) reported that ESL/EFL learners may become native-like writers if they become aware of the important role of collocations, and pay the necessary attention on collocation competence. Brown (1974) stressed that collocation competence enables language producers to realize formulaic expressions or language chunks used by natives in their writings, and to get the intuitive use of word combinations in a natural way as natives do. Thanks to collocations, a writer may shift his/her concentration from individual words to structures of the discourse, which is a case done through teaching lexical phrases in ELT, and the most important reason to teach lexical phrase is that it leads to writing fluency (Li C, 2005).

We have witnessed different studies persevering on the benefits of collocations on behalf of language users in the last decade. For example, an early experimental study by Zhang (1993) was conducted to detect the effect of collocations on EFL/ESL writing. In addition, the relationship between collocations and general language proficiency was aroused some researchers' interests (e.g. Al-Zahrani, 1998; Bonk, 2000). The literature points to studies which aim to detect the relation between collocation and four English skill: collocation and listening (Hsu & Hsu, 2007); between collocations and reading (Lien, 2003), between collocations and speaking (Sung, 2003; Hsu & Chiu, 2008), and collocation and vocabulary acquisition (Kennedy, 1990). However, although it seems that

collocation does not only have an influence on writing skill but also on other basic skills like speaking, reading, and speaking, the most significant benefit remains for writing quality.

1.4. Collocations, lexical competence, and general English proficiency

Some studies focused on positive correlation between collocational knowledge and level of lexicon (cf. Wray, 2002). To start with, the foremost of them belongs to Nation (2001) who claimed that a language producer's collocational knowledge constitutes "one important aspect of vocabulary knowledge" (p. 328). There are passive and active vocabularies in our mind. Active vocabularies are much faster than passive vocabularies in recalling when needed. Wu (1996) conducted an empirical study in order to find out whether passive vocabularies could be turned into active vocabularies through the frequent use of lexical collocations, and concluded that a good command of lexical collocations is a useful way to turn passive vocabularies into active ones.

Concerning the relationship between language proficiency and lexical competence a study (Zareva, Schwanenflugel, & Nikolova, 2005) that aimed to determine what features of language were associated with the macrolevel of lexical competence showed that word association increased lexical competence of language producers, and accordingly their L2 proficiency. Likewise, turning back to Nattinger's study (1980), it is understood that there are some prefabricated phrases and sentences that could be taught in chunks. According to Nattinger, if vocabularies are taught in chunks, a learner could get use of them by expanding their lexicon, which is to say concisely; collocations may assist writers in enhancing their vocabulary fluency and accuracy in L2 by improving communicative functions of language. Similarly, Howarth (1998) made a comparison between native and non-native writers in terms of measuring their language performances. The findings put forth that lexically competent writers internalized collocation successfully, which may be seen as a sign of relation between collocation and lexical competence. In contrast to studies favouring the contribution of collocation, Tekingul (2012) conducted a study to find out whether explicit collocation teaching or single-item vocabulary instruction is more successful on reading comprehension. She reported an inconclusive result, which proved no significant difference between collocation teaching treatment and single-item vocabulary instruction treatment. Though, she did not deny the importance of collocation on vocabulary teaching, but only stressed no superiority regarding the two teaching methods.

The issue of whether lower-level language users had limited knowledge of collocations when compared to higher-level language users was investigated, and it was concluded that language users with lower collocational knowledge demonstrated lower language proficiency when compared to learner with high collocational knowledge (Bonk, 2000). Another study (Nizonkiza, 2011) assessed the relationship between lexical competence, EFL proficiency, and collocational competence. Nizonkiza performed an experiment with 104 freshmen, sophomore, and senior students in total, and the results clearly revealed that lexical competence is a reliable predictor of L2 proficiency and mastery of collocations is found to be related to frequency. To be able to enhance academic performance, and make a voice in the wider community, together with lexical competence, Turner (2004) stressed the importance of improving, what he called, "collocation repertoire" (p. 107). It is understood from Turner's writings that collocation is at least as much important as other linguistic features in academic prose. An empirical study with a purpose of measuring the direct effect of collocation on English language proficiency by Rahimi and Momeni (2012) showed systematic teaching of collocation could enhance learners' language proficiency. Cloze tests are generally designed to gauge the general English proficiency of learner due to its large sphere of measuring area ranging from vocabularies and prepositions to basic grammar skills. Whether there was a correlation between collocational competence and cloze test proficiency was investigated (Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007), and statistical analyses yielded a statistically significant difference between performance on

cloze tests and competence of collocation, which may be construed as the effect of collocational knowledge on general English proficiency.

1.5. Collocations, metacognition, and L1 influence

Since Ellis's (1986) study, L1 influence has always been a factor that should not be kept outdoor while investigating linguistic issues. It is quite common for non-native English speakers to transfer L1 word combinations into target language, which is a major cause of errors in non-native speakers' language productions (Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). The negative effect of L1 on L2 collocation acquisition was studied by Gabrys-Biskup (1992), and the interference was seen as the prime cause of errors in mis-collocations. A year later, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) argued that non-native speakers of English could convey their L1 collocational knowledge conventions into target language inappropriately. Sadeghi (2009) aimed at discovering whether native language might be an obstacle for non-native speakers in the course of acquiring English collocations and demonstrated that negative transfer of linguistic knowledge of L1 into L2 context was a troublesome issue that must be dealt with immediately. Similarly, Martelli (2006) gathered a group of advanced Italian students of English in order to detect the influence of L1 in L2 lexical collocation use. Unsurprisingly, he corroborated the role of L1 interference in the generation of wrong lexical collocations. Different from other studies, Martelli's study yielded that certain types of collocation errors are more prone to occurring than others, which carried the issue to a different point. Martelli prompted us to notice that some types of collocations could be affected from L1 influence more than other types of collocations. Martelli's findings corroborated Li (2005) who detected that *verb+noun* collocation types are the most common errors while *adjective+infinitive* errors are the least experienced ones, which proved that not all types of collocations are affected by L1 interference on an equal basis. Another study (Fan, 2009) attempted to have a deeper understanding of collocation usage and problems by adopting a task based approach while analysing British and Honk Kong ESL learners' written texts. Likewise, apart from absolute L1 influence, the study found that any lexical or grammatical inadequacy in L2 could adversely affect L2 collocation use. Concisely, L1 transfer seems to be an important issue that may affect academic writing negatively, thus should be taken into consideration while creating a word combination.

1.6. Collocation and nativeness

It does not matter whether collocations are associated to "ready-made chunks (Robins, 1967, p. 21)", or to "mutual expectancy (Zhang, 1993, p. 1)", they are word combinations that are well-linked in a native speaker's memory (Aghbar, 1990). According to Fillmore (1979), the proficiency of how to combine words in association with one another is a source of fluency. Therefore, knowledge of collocation undoubtedly brings benefits to non-native writers who desperately long for native fluency in writing.

It is understood that collocations are word combinations that occur in a native speaker's mind intuitively (Sung, 2003), which refers to a situation occurring without restoring to vocabulary memory purposely but instinctively. The instinctive formation of word combinations in a native speaker's mind can be attributed to its association with nativeness because there is a strong positive correlation between nativeness and automation on a linguistic component (Nation, 2001). According to Allerton (1984), words in non-native writers' minds do not co-occur freely; instead they lead to co-occurrence restrictions. Accordingly, Hill (2000) commented on the natural way of word combinations occurring in mind as "within the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally occurring text" (p. 49). Concerning non-native writers' characterization of collocation fallacies, Korosadowicz-Struzynska (1980) uttered that "errors in the use of word collocations surely add to the foreign flavour in the learner's speech and writing, and along with his

faulty pronunciation they are the strongest markers of an accent (p. 115)." Similar to all, Stubbs (2001) emphasized that "Native speakers' unconscious knowledge of collocation is an essential component of their idiomatic and fluent language use and an important part of their communicative competence (p. 73)." Until now, it seems blatantly apparent that the collocation competence differentiates native and non-native speakers from one another (Wouden, 1997; Nation, 2001; Ellis, 2001; Koya, 2006). Due to the fact that knowledge of collocation is an essential component of communicative competence (Partington, 1998) and a source of fluency, non-native writers should aim at gaining the competence of collocation to have native fluency in the target language (Coxhead, 2000; Olson, Scarcella, & Matuchniak, 2013; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2013).

What about if a writer is not a native speaker of the language? Does it make any sense to claim that the competence of collocation is not possible to acquire by non-native writers because it is a skill that is intuitively acquired and used? We know that collocations are ready-made chunks just like other fixed expressions and idioms (Benson, Benson, & Ilson, 1986), and it is possible to teach ready-made chunks, including collocations, to all types of learners (Approach, 1993). Likewise, Wray (2002) claimed that learning formulaic language like collocations through conscious effort is possible. Therefore, any claims that address to impossibility of acquiring collocations must be dismissed because the literature provides the opposite.

1.7. Collocations and native fluency in writing

According to Prodromou (2003), on the path of achieving native-fluency in written productions, the use of collocation is a potential difficulty that non-native writers usually face. Prodromou, like many other researchers, claims that there is a close relationship between collocations and native fluency. Some researchers carried their allegations further, and made experimental and/or theoretical investigations in order to prove the relationship. One of these valuable studies belongs to Martynska (2004) who had a study with a twofold purpose; one of which was to reveal non-native English speakers' level of collocational competence, and the latter of which was to take attention to the role of collocation in the process of L2 learning. Martynska concluded that the knowledge of how to combine words into chunks efficiently is a compulsory act, and non-native speakers of English are bound to have collocational competence if native-like proficiency is wanted. Furthermore, Martynska reported that "the richer in collocations the learner's lexicon is, the higher precision, accuracy, coherence and authenticity of his/her speech, which is a perfect way to fluency and proficiency in the language as well as to greater language competence" (p. 11).

Hsu (2007) compared Taiwanese English majors' and non-English majors' written texts in order to obtain some insights on how Taiwanese English majors and non-English majors used lexical collocations in their writings. The findings showed a statistically significant correlation between two types of majors in terms of writing scores and frequency of lexical collocations. Furthermore, the analysis put forth a significant correlation between subjects' online writing scores and their variety of lexical collocations. In other words, diversity and frequency of lexical collocations in an academic paper obtained higher writing scores. Therefore, it can be said that the effect of lexical collocation awareness on writing skill is overwhelming and lexical collocation awareness helps writers have fluency in their writing (cf. Eidian, Gorjian, & Aghvami, 2014).

Brain function is an important process in collocation acquisition. In terms of brain functionality, the processes of learning a collocation involve the same paths as learning a vocabulary. Different from vocabulary, a collocation involves sequences of words that are processed in a more efficient way because single memorized units can be processed more easily and quickly than the same sequences of words that are produced creatively (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Conklin and Schmitt (2008) investigated

the processing of formulaic sequences by comparing reading times for nonformulaic phrases and formulaic sequences of native and non-native speakers of English. The findings showed that nonformulaic phrases were read more slowly than formulaic sequences, which proved that formulaic sequences have a processing advantage. At the end of their study, Conklin and Schmitt advised non-native speakers to get accustomed to formulaic sequences if they want to enjoy the same type of processing advantages as native speakers do.

Having considered playing a significant role in written language (Wei & Lei, 2011), collocations is a must for scholarly writing, and a non-native writer with insufficient collocation knowledge will have difficulties and some infelicities regarding their academic positions while composing a scientific writing. One important problem that could rise due to insufficient collocation knowledge is inappropriate word combinations. McArthur (1992) asserted that a failure to use collocations appropriately is a principal indicator of foreignness in academic texts. Therefore, any inappropriacy of collocations , i.e. wrong or weird word combinations may give rise to lack of confidence to writer's language ability no matter how worthy the content of the writing is. It is difficult for non-native writers to escape seemingly inept and unnatural expressions in their written production without appropriate knowledge of collocation because the knowledge of collocation is critical for L2 writers to be able to have full communicative mastery of English (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993). Therefore, writers who want to improve their writing fluency need to have competence of collocation at a certain extent (Sung, 2003), otherwise they may fall into collocation failures that may adversely affect the language quality of the manuscript.

1.8. The aims of the research

The present study aimed at increasing the awareness towards the importance of collocations in order to have native fluency in academic writing. In line with this, the study aimed at making some suggestions regarding involvement of collocations in academic texts, and creating a practicable list of collocations to be used especially in research articles by non-native writers of English.

2. Methodology

2.1. Data

The corpus was composed of 100 research articles written in English by native speakers of English in the field of ELT. Verification about the nationality of authors was not assured by contacting them in person or through mass communication tools. Author status of nationality was presumed based on the author name and country. The corresponding author was regarded as the writer of article, in which more than one scholar existed, hence the nationality of the corresponding author represented for all other authors in the affiliation.

The articles were selected randomly from 13 SSCI journals publishing in the field of ELT. Each journal provided equal many of articles as shown in the Table 1.

Table 1. The journals that built the data

The name of the journal	Number	%	Tokens	Types
ELT journal	30	30	219275	5825
English for Specific Purposes	13	13	65229	3686
System	10	10	57565	2788
Applied Linguistics	8	8	40254	1801
Language Learning	8	8	39221	1855
TESOL Quarterly	8	8	36352	1699
Language Teaching Research	5	5	29424	1252
Journal of Second Language Writing	4	4	25026	1012
Language Teaching	4	4	22558	990
First Language	3	3	17398	893
RELC Journal	3	3	17265	850
Journal of English for Academic Purposes	2	2	16458	713
Journal of Second Language Writing	2	2	15000	712
Total	100	100	601025	24076

To ensure the representativeness of the data, a probabilistic sample using simple random sampling technique was used to compile articles, hence to construct the corpora. Probabilistic sample technique refers to a sampling procedure in which "all members of the population have the same probability of being selected" (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011, p. 87).

2.2. Categorization of collocations

The categorization of collocations was made with some minor changes on the categorization of Benson, Benson, &Ilson (1986). Collocations were divided into seven as shown below:

1- Verb + Noun (achieve a purpose)
2- Verb + Adverb/Adjective (become embedded)
3- Noun + Verb (article seeks)
4- Noun + Noun (discussion board)
5- Adjective + Noun (adequate account)
6- Adverb + Adjective (culturally biased)
7- Adverb + verb (continually change)
2.3. Data analysis and procedure

The whole data was manually scanned by the researcher and collocation samples were compiled. Then, the compiled collocations found by the researcher were checked through collocations dictionaries (e.g. Macmillan, Longman, Oxford) in order to affirm the reliability of the researcher. A concordance programme was used to find the pivot words and their frequencies as well as token and type numbers. Each pivot word that was taken from the data was checked through the collocations dictionaries to enhance the number of collocate words. Thanks to the second check many new collocation examples that did not exist in the articles were discovered. For example, in the course of manually scanning a *verb + noun* collocation i.e. *provided evidence* was found. Then the pivot word *provide* was exposed to a second check through collocations dictionaries in order to find more collocate words apart from *evidence*. The second check enabled us to find more collocate words like *insight, opportunity, understanding, care, base etc*.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Category of verb + noun

According to the findings, this category included 861 word tokens and 400 word types. Four pivot words that were mostly used by Anglophonic writers are respectively *make, provide, give,* and *gain.* Some authentic examples including most frequently used pivot words are as follows:

(1) Ellis (1993) argued for the importance of having a grammatical syllabus to __make provision__ for an explicit focus on individual grammatical forms...

(2) The entire departmental teaching staff (n = 28) was then interviewed to __provide an insight__ into the ramifications of context...

(3) It was also __given credence__ by Nation's...

(4) ELT and its affiliated academic units can __gain power__ through their ability to make money.

3.2. Category of verb + adverb/adjective

This collocation category included 673 tokens and 370 types. The most frequently used pivot words are respectively *become, seem, make,* and *feel.* Some examples are those:

(5) ...and even then the frequency is starting to __become marginal__.

(6) This __seems sensible__, but despite this, the topic-based focus of many materials means that...

(7) The study findings __make clear__ that...

(8) Still, they __feel unsure__ about how to teach using media and pop culture.

3.3. Category of noun + verb

The results gave relatively small number of tokens (234) and types (100) when compared to other collocation categories. The most frequently used pivot words are *study, show, table,* and *data.* The authentic examples regarding the use of these pivot words are as follows:

(9) The present __study did not find__ essays and short tasks to occur frequently.

(10) The __data in this way shows__ that...

(11) __Table 1 contains__ the first nine idea units from her written story...

(12) ... __data suggest__ a partial advantage for one subset of chat output that...

3.4. Category of noun + noun

The category included 406 tokens and 220 types. The pivot words with the highest frequencies are respectively *lack, learning, knowledge,* and *research.* The examples are those:

(13) A __lack of fluency__ can have a major impact on the way English can be used...

(14) Learner variables consist of everything the student brings to the __learning experience__.

(15) ...with effects on the creation and __dissemination of knowledge__ and ideology in the global ideoscape...

(16) ... the interventions in this study were designed to fill the __research gap__ noted by...

3.5. Category of adjective + noun

This category has the highest frequency in both word tokens and word types, 2425; 1066 respectively. *Important, difference, significant,* and *effect* are the pivot words ranked from top to less. The examples for each most frequent pivot words are as follows:

*(17) It also emphasizes originality as an **important criterion** for effective response.*

*(18) The **fundamental differences** between the two types of presentation are discussed in Section 3.*

*(19) Despite **significant challenges** such as access to limited hardware and infrastructure...*

*(20) Findings suggested that grades had **little effect** on student writing...*

3.6. Category of adverb + adjective

This is another category heavily used by native writers of English. It was calculated that 684 word tokens and 349 word types were used with top pivot words of *highly, relatively, particularly,* and *quite*. The examples are those:

*(21) While such a structure appears to be **highly conventional**, the difference between this set of materials...*

*(22) This is a **relatively new** idea in listening pedagogy and...*

*(23) The textual data itself suggest that within each stance option, some language resources are **particularly popular**.*

*(24) The interaction pattern is **quite different** in bus driver dialogues.*

3.7. Category of adverb + verb

In this category, 555 word tokens and 313 words existed. The most frequently used pivot words are *use, widely, clearly,* and *explicitly*. The examples of pivot words are as follows:

*(25) Passive structures were **extensively used** in the professional corpus...*

*(26) It is **widely argued** in EAP that...*

*(27) ... our findings raise has to do with the need to **clearly define** the construct that...*

*(28) ...post-reading tasks **explicitly focusing** on target words led to better vocabulary learning than...*

Table 2 summaries the most used pivot words, and type and token numbers in the categories that have been provided so far.

Table 2. The summary of the categories

Variables	Verb+ Noun	Verb+ Adj./Adv.	Noun+ Verb	Noun+ Noun	Adjective+ Noun	Adverb+ Adjective	Adverb+ Verb
Tokens	861	673	234	406	2452	684	555
Types	400	370	100	220	1066	349	313
Pivot Words	Make Provide Give Gain	Become Seem Make Feel	Study Show Table Data	Lack Learning Knowledge Research	Important Difference Significant Effect	Highly Relatively Particularly Quite	Use Widely Clearly Explicitly

When the numbers provided in the table 2 were considered, it can be easily understood that native writers of English are heavily depended upon the use of collocations, which is not an unexpected result because there is a strong positive correlation between competence of collocations and L2 proficiency (Quiang, 2002; Alsulayyi & Fan, 2009).

The present study found that native writers of English tend to use low-frequency word combinations as Durrant and Schmitt (2009) reported. When the list of collocations in the appendix was checked, it will be seen that native writers of English used many low-frequency collocations, which is a robust indicator for sounding native in the language because the use of low-frequency collocations instead of repeating high-frequency ones boosts lexical diversity of a writer, and high lexical diversity is as an illuminative predictor of writers' language competence and an essential indicator of their writing quality (Guoxing, 2009).

4. Conclusion

It is crystal clear that there exists a strong link of interdependence between knowledge of collocation and native-fluency in academic writing according to the literature. Seen in this light, it can assuredly be stated that knowledge of collocation brings invaluable benefits particularly to non-native writers who desperately aspire for fluency in the English language. Because "errors in the use of word collocations surely add to the foreign flavour in the learner's speech and writing, and along with his faulty pronunciation they are the strongest markers of 'an accent (Korosadowicz-Struzynska, 1980, p. 115)", a miscollocation may lead an academic paper to end up with misery in academe, hence may create infelicities in publishing opportunities.

Even if the acquisition of collocation competence is seen as an intuitive process occurring in mind without any special effort to restore memory on purpose, it was proven that conscious acquisition of collocation knowledge is possible even at the very late stages of life (cf. Approach, 1993; Wray, 2002). In accordance with that, some pedagogical implications were provided as follows in order to offer non-native writers genuine opportunities in the acquisition of collocations and how to involve them in academic writing:

1) Lewis (1997) suggested collocation exercises that may contribute to increase learners' awareness of collocations. Particularly two exercises may help substantially: matching and de-lexicalised verbs exercises. Matching exercises, the source of which was borrowed from native sentences, could be of utmost benefit. For de-lexicalised verbs exercises, a list of verbs can be noted down (take, make, have, do etc) and their collocate words can be written (a laugh, a smoke, an experience, a trip etc.).

2) Ready-made collocation lists will be of paramount importance for those who desire to expand productive collocation skills. The list presented in the appendix A kindly submitted to the service for specifically non-native writers or those who are already in the need of enhancing their native-fluency in writing.

3) To avoid producing inappropriate or odd collocations, some exercises should be done to improve collocational behaviour of synonyms; that is, which synonym associates well with a collocate word. For example two synonyms verbs *join* and *attend* are used with different collocates; *join a club, join the army, attend a class, attend a meeting etc*. Therefore, what should be kept in mind is that even exact synonyms have different collocate words, and they cannot be used interchangeably (Liu, 2000).

4) Translation is also an effective practice for the acquisition of collocations. However, the point that should be cared extensively is to do translations as "collocation to collocation" (Newmark, 1988, p. 69) or "chunk-for-chunk" (Lewis, 1997, p.62) instead of word-for-word translation.

5) Using a collocation dictionary may help improve collocation competence subconsciously. Nearly all prominent publishers have collocation dictionaries at different proficiency levels. In addition,

online-collocation dictionaries may also be helpful by way of calling the required information quicker than conventional hardcopy dictionaries.

6) Some on-going computational approaches that are able to detect collocation errors can be of paramount importance for particularly novice-writers. Those who are in such a need should stay tuned in up-to-date literature (cf. Futagi, Deane, Chodorow, & Tetreault, 2008; Chang, Chang, Chen, & Liou, 2008).

7) Collocation attainment can be supported via digital library works (Wu, Franken, & Witten, 2010). A digital library has distinctive advantages when compared to other conventional initiatives. Firstly, it provides a great amount of authentic sources to access free of charge. Secondly, they are fast and accessible all over the world with no or partial restriction. The studies in the linguistic literature proved that collocations are intuitive, yet they can be learned sizeably through extensive reading (Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013). One thing to mind is that reading types such as skimming or scanning are likely to cause overlooking word combinations; therefore critical reading is required not to miss good collocation samples.

8) It is indicated that any failure in non-native writers' competence of collocation is due to inadequate input (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010). Seen in this light, data-driven studies and web-sites (e.g. BNC or COCA) may greatly help non-native writers with endless authentic examples and well-ordered data submission features. Data-driven learning is claimed to be robustly effective in acquisition of native-like collocation knowledge (Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). When compared to digital libraries, corpora websites are easier to use and get what you look for. Furthermore, data-driven learning works can be accessed easily on various databases.

9) One challenge for non-native writer of English is L1 interference. In order not to be seen foreign or odd to the audience, the writer should check his/her newly used word combinations. What is understood from the literature is that it is highly possible the writer may associate words similar in his/her native language. Therefore, to get rid of L1 negative transfer, the newly constructed word combinations should be checked through collocation dictionaries or authentic samples in corpora to justify whether they are in agreement with native-use.

10) Different from conventional suggestions, Cowie and Howarth (1999) considered that the collocational competence is not likely to develop through massive exposure to or repeated use of collocations. For them, familiarization with collocations or possible collocational competence is supposed to come about through writers' gradual growing perception of idiosyncratic properties. Therefore, idiomatic expressions are important like other formulaic expressions.

11) Concordancing activities can increase collocation competence of non-native writers of English (Yoon, 2008).

5. Suggestions for Further Research

Durrant and Schmitt (2009) suggested that claims concerning indeterminacy of non-native writers' collocation and formulaicity are a problematic issue requiring to be solved immediately and Durrant and Schmitt found that non-native writers depended heavily on high-frequency collocations than less frequent ones that are decidedly salient for native writers. However, "Unfortunately, the high percentage of appropriate collocations does not mean that non-native writers of English necessarily develop fully native-like knowledge of collocation (Siyanova and Schmitt, 2008, p. 429)", which means that using high frequency and strongly associated word combinations is not sufficient to be seen native-like; i.e. non-native speakers should also use less frequent collocations to have native-like

writing flair (cf. Durrant & Schmitt, 2009). Therefore, a study that investigates why non-native writers have a tendency on low-frequency collocations will be of importance to gain an insight on the issue and to find ways of encouraging non-native writers to use low-frequency collocations.

The present study created a list of collocations to be used primarily in ELT. A study that will construct new lists of collocations may also be helpful for non-native writers writing in other fields. Moreover, grammatical collocations are also one of two collocation types being widely used in linguistics (Granger & Paquot, 2008) but this study only created a list of lexical collocations. Therefore, a list of grammatical collocations may offer generous contribution.

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Appendix A.
Collocations List

VERB + NOUN

1. Achieve aims
2. Achieve goal
3. Achieve purpose
4. Add interest
5. Add weight
6. Adopt a methodology
7. Adopt a stance
8. Affect performance
9. Allocate resource
10. Allow acquisition
11. Appeal for assistance
12. Ask question
13. Ask clarification
14. Assure confidentiality
15. Attend class
16. Attend conference
17. Attend school
18. Attract attention
19. Avoid confusion
20. Avoid loss
21. Avoid overuse
22. Avoid problem
23. Become a focus
24. Become (active) agents
25. Become commonplace
26. Become example
27. Boost confidence
28. Borrow technique
29. Bridge the gap
30. Build a connection
31. Build confidence
32. Build corpus
33. Build up understanding
34. Call attention
35. Capture insight
36. Capture relationship
37. Challenge views
38. Change roles
39. Claim authority
40. Clarify uncertainties
41. Collect information
42. Complete task
43. Complete test
44. Compile a corpus (of)
45. Compose a response
46. Conduct a study
47. Conduct an investigation
48. Construct corpora
49. Convey a message
50. Correct error
51. Create an image
52. Create demand
53. Create interest
54. Create opportunity
55. Create possibility
56. Create tension
57. Cut off conversation
58. Demonstrate a benefit
59. Demonstrate a concern
60. Demonstrate a desire
61. Demonstrate evidence
62. Demonstrate variability
63. Deserve attention
64. Devalue the content
65. Develop a persona
66. Develop awareness
67. Develop idea
68. Develop insight
69. Develop skill
70. Develop strategy
71. Display familiarity
72. Display similarity
73. Draw attention
74. Draw a distinction
75. Draw conclusion
76. Edit message
77. Effect a change
78. Effect an upheaval
79. Enable generalization
80. Encourage compliance
81. Enter the university
82. Ensure consistency
83. Ensure safety
84. Entail a shift
85. Eradicate dissatisfaction
86. Espouse ideas
87. Establish a link
88. Establish authority
89. Establish groundwork
90. Examine correlation
91. Examine problems
92. Exchange farewell
93. Exchange greetings
94. Exchange ideas
95. Exchange information
96. Exhibit a tendency
97. Experience a shift
98. Experience confusion
99. Experience difficulty
100. Exploit benefits
101. Express emotion
102. Express opinion
103. Extend discussion
104. Extract information
105. Face challenge
106. Face difficulty
107. Facilitate acquisition
108. Feel gap
109. Feel guilty
110. Feel need
111. Fill gap
112. Fill out questionnaire
113. Find a benefit
114. Find challenging
115. Find correlation
116. Find opportunity
117. Focus on target
118. Form a basis (for)
119. Foster acquisition
120. Foster learning
121. Furnish information
122. Gain acceptance
123. Gain an overview
124. Gain appreciation
125. Gain ascendance
126. Gain confidence
127. Gain control
128. Gain flexibility
129. Gain ground
130. Gain insight
131. Gain inspiration
132. Gain perspective
133. Gain popularity
134. Gain power
135. Gain recognition
136. Gain resource
137. Gain support
138. Gain understanding
139. Gauge development
140. Generate understanding
141. Get grade
142. Give access
143. Give attention
144. Give confidence
145. Give credence
146. Give credit
147. Give evidence
148. Give experience
149. Give feedback
150. Give freedom
151. Give indication
152. Give insight
153. Give opportunity
154. Give order
155. Give outline
156. Give permission
157. Give security
158. Give thought
159. Give voice
160. Give weight
161. Outline guideline
162. Have a provenance
163. Have a tendency
164. Have an impact
165. Have confidence
166. Have difficulty
167. Have experience
168. Have limitation
169. Have merit

170. Have opportunity
171. Have trouble
172. Heighten awareness
173. Hold belief
174. Identify changes
175. Identify words
176. Illustrate benefits
177. Improve pronunciation
178. Incentivize collaboration
179. Increase confidence
180. Intensify demand
181. Interpret meaning
182. Invest effort
183. Investigate evidence
184. Justify an evaluation
185. Lack access
186. Lack authenticity
187. Lack confidence
188. Lack competence
189. Lack depth
190. Lead to scepticism
191. Lend credence
192. Lend weight
193. Lessen impact
194. Limit progress
195. Load baggage
196. Make a claim
197. Make a comparison
198. Make a difference
199. Make a distinction
200. Make a decision
201. Make agreement
202. Make an effort
203. Make argument
204. Make attempt
205. Make challenging
206. Make change
207. Make choice
208. Make clear
209. Make comment
210. Make comparison
211. Make connection
212. Make contribution
213. Make correction
214. Make decision
215. Make effort
216. Make error
217. Make gains
218. Make generalisation
219. Make gesture
220. Make introduction
221. Make investigation
222. Make judgements
223. Make mistake
224. Make notes
225. Make observation
226. Make progress
227. Make promise
228. Make provision
229. Make recording

230. Make request
231. Make sense
232. Make suggestion
233. Make transition
234. Meet (certain) criteria
235. Meet desiderate
236. Merit a position
237. Merit attention
238. Miss opportunity
239. Motivate learning
240. Narrow the gap
241. Need attention
242. Need support
243. Negotiate meaning
244. Obscure difference
245. Offer evidence
246. Offer insight
247. Offer opportunity
248. Offer solution
249. Offer suggestion
250. Offer support
251. Offer window
252. Obscure information
253. Open up discussion
254. Open up space
255. Overlook errors
256. Pay attention
257. Pilot an activity
258. Play a part
259. Play role
260. Pose a challenge
261. Pose a problem
262. Pose question
263. Present challenges
264. Present challenges
265. Present opportunities
266. Produce evidence
267. Promote a sense (of)
268. Promote development
269. Promote engagement
270. Promote learning
271. Propose a solution
272. Propose desiderata
273. Provide a basis
274. Provide a foundation
275. Provide a framework
276. Provide a snapshot (of)
277. Provide access
278. Provide advantageous
279. Provide advice
280. Provide an alternative
281. Provide an example
282. Provide an impetus (for)
283. Provide an overview
284. Provide assistant
285. Provide base
286. Provide care
287. Provide complete picture
288. Provide data
289. Provide database

290. Provide details
291. Provide definition
292. Provide description
293. Provide disambiguation
294. Provide discussion
295. Provide evidence
296. Provide example
297. Provide feedback
298. Provide information
299. Provide input
300. Provide insight
301. Provide opportunity
302. Prove problematic
303. Provide reason
304. Provide response
305. Provide service
306. Provide support
307. Provide understanding
308. Provide view
309. Put an effort
310. Raise awareness
311. Raise concern
312. Raise doubts
313. Raise interest
314. Raise possibility
315. Raise question
316. Raise standard
317. Reach a point
318. Reach an agreement
319. Receive attention
320. Receive feedback
321. Receive instruction
322. Receive knowledge
323. Reduce pressure
324. Repair errors
325. Report uncertainty
326. Require attention
327. Require (detailed) research
328. Require substantiation
329. Resolve a problem
330. Reveal difference
331. See a growth
332. See emergence
333. Seek permission
334. Serve (as a) backup
335. Serve (as a) baseline
336. Serve (as a) buffer
337. Serve food
338. Set a foundation
339. Set a model
340. Settle issue
341. Share experience
342. Share ideas
343. Share interest
344. Shed light
345. Shift orientation
346. Show awareness
347. Show benefit
348. Show interest
349. Show   evidence

350. Show results
351. Show sensitivity
352. Show tendency
353. Solve problem
354. Stimulate knowledge
355. Stimulate learning
356. Spark controversy
357. Stand a chance
358. Support claim
359. Take a stance
360. Take a test
361. Take a view
362. Take advantage
363. Take notes
364. Take position
365. Take responsibility
366. Take risk
367. Take up life
368. Trigger a change
369. Trigger biases
370. Uncover differences
371. Uncover similarities
372. Understand difficulties
373. Unload baggage
374. Unravel complexities
375. Use knowledge
376. View as burden
377. Welcome a possibility
378. Wield influence
379. Worth consideration
380. Worth (the) effort
381. Worth asking
382. Worth noting
383. Yield a result
384. Yield outcome

VERB + ADVERB / ADJECTIVE

1. Add greatly
2. Addressed peripherally
3. Adopt quickly
4. Affect profoundly
5. Analyze qualitatively
6. Appear crucial
7. Appear frequently
8. Appear important
9. Apply primarily
10. Ask directly
11. Attend close
12. Become adept
13. Become apparent
14. Become attuned
15. Become autonomous
16. Become aware
17. Become boring
18. Become clear
19. Become common

20. Become complex
21. Become concrete
22. Become confident
23. Become contested
24. Become effective
25. Become embedded
26. Become essential
27. Become evident
28. Become familiar
29. Become fluent
30. Become fragmented
31. Become important
32. Become independent
33. Become interested
34. Become interesting
35. Become known
36. Become major
37. Become marginal
38. Become prevalent
39. Become proficient
40. Become sensitized
41. Become sophisticated
42. Become specific
43. Become tolerant
44. Become topical
45. Calculate separately
46. Carry out intensively
47. Change fundamentally
48. Change radically
49. Check carefully
50. Check manually
51. Choose evenly
52. Clearly illustrate
53. Close improperly
54. Code separately
55. Come close
56. Comment positively
57. Communicate effectively
58. Communicate orally
59. Communicate successfully
60. Compete globally
61. Complete accurately
62. Compose concisely
63. Compose quickly
64. Concentrate strictly
65. Conduct independently
66. Consider briefly
67. Considered appropriate
68. Consult independently
69. Construct meaning
70. Contrast strikingly
71. Contribute little
72. Contribute positively
73. Correct consistently
74. Correlate significantly
75. Correlate strongly
76. Deal effectively
77. Decrease dramatically
78. Deem acceptable
79. Deemed appropriate

80. Deemed important
81. Delve deeply
82. Depend heavily (on)
83. Develop naturally
84. Developed unexpectedly
85. Differ considerably
86. Differ markedly
87. Differ significantly
88. Disregard strongly
89. Discuss directly
90. Discuss individually
91. Discuss intensively
92. Do better
93. Do well
94. Drop precipitously
95. Drop substantially
96. Elaborate extensively
97. Evidence (no) interest (in)
98. Evolve strongly
99. Examine carefully
100. Examine closely
101. Explore extensively
102. Express explicitly
103. Express independently
104. Express orally
105. Fall short
106. Fare better
107. Fare well
108. Feel challenged
109. Feel comfortable
110. Feel confident
111. Feel confused
112. Feel encouraged
113. Feel enormous
114. Feel inclined
115. Feel isolated
116. Feel motivated
117. Feel overwhelmed
118. Feel similarly
119. Feel proud
120. Feel uncomfortable
121. Feel unsure
122. Find challenging
123. Find difficult
124. Find easy
125. Find helpful
126. Find necessary
127. Find sparingly
128. Find useful
129. Find valuable
130. Fit neatly
131. Fit well
132. Flow naturally
133. Flow uninterruptedly
134. Focus exclusively
135. Focus explicitly
136. Focus mainly
137. Focus predominantly
138. Focus primarily
139. Found predominantly

140. Function differently
141. Grow rapidly
142. Go awry
143. Go further
144. Guess correctly
145. Hold potential
146. Hold true
147. Impact positively
148. Impact significantly
149. Implement effectively
150. Improve firmly
151. Improve substantially
152. Indicate clearly
153. Indicate verbally
154. Influence inappropriately
155. Keep current
156. Keep occupied
157. Link directly
158. Look carefully (into)
159. Look closely (at)
160. Look deeply (into)
161. Make accessible
162. Make apparent
163. Make arduous
164. Make attainable
165. Make available
166. Make better
167. Make briefly
168. Make certain
169. Make clear
170. Make comfortable
171. Make concise
172. Make covert
173. Make difficult
174. Make explicit
175. Make feasible
176. Make impossible
177. Make overt
178. Make possible
179. Make realistic
180. Make untenable
181. Make visible
182. Measure rigorously
183. Merit additional research
184. Move simultaneously
185. Navigate successfully
186. Negotiate explicitly
187. Negotiate implicitly
188. Occur frequently
189. Occur instantaneously
190. Occur often
191. Occur significantly
192. Occur spontaneously
193. Operate effectively
194. Operate independently
195. Participate effectively
196. Participate voluntarily
197. Pay particular attention
198. Perform better
199. Perform extensively

200. Perform highly
201. Perform poorly
202. Perform well
203. Portray comprehensively
204. Portray transparently
205. Post regularly
206. Predict accurately
207. Present effectively
208. Present orally
209. Present persuasively
210. Pronounced differently
211. Prove (to be) effective
212. Prove (to be) efficient
213. Prove (to be) sure
214. Prove fruitful
215. Prove impossible
216. Prove (to be) useful
217. Provide potential (for)
218. Provide profitable (over)
219. Put differently
220. Rate equally
221. Read silently
222. Record alphabetically
223. Rely exclusively (on)
224. Rely heavily (on)
225. Remain accessible
226. Remain consistently
227. Remain imperfect
228. Remain opaque
229. Remain similar
230. Remain strong
231. Remain unanswered
232. Remain unchanged
233. Remain unclear
234. Remain undecided
235. Remind regularly
236. Report explicitly
237. Respond freely
238. Respond physically
239. Respond verbally
240. Review critically
241. Run counter
242. Seem achievable
243. Score better
244. Seem common
245. Seem competent
246. Seem conclusive
247. Seem desirable
248. Seem feasible
249. Seem intuitive
250. Seem largely
251. Seem likely
252. Seem minor
253. Seem obvious
254. Seem pertinent
255. Seem plausible
256. Seem prudent
257. Seem reasonable
258. Seem relevant
259. Seem sensible

260. Seem sensitive
261. Seem similar
262. Seem undesirable
263. Seem unexpected
264. Seem uninteresting
265. Seem unreasonable
266. Seem unsure
267. Select randomly
268. Set to stepwise
269. Shift dramatically
270. Sit uncomfortably (with)
271. Sound better
272. Sound positive
273. Speak correctly
274. Speak fluently
275. Speak freely
276. Speak openly
277. Speak positively
278. Speak proficiently
279. Spoken informally
280. Stay connected
281. Stem largely (from)
282. Submit electronically
283. Suggest alternative
284. Take further
285. Take part voluntarily
286. Take place incidentally
287. Take seriously
288. Talk enthusiastically
289. Teach explicitly
290. Think consciously
291. Think critically
292. Think deeply
293. Think longitudinally
294. Think nonlinearly
295. Translate quickly
296. Trigger new idea
297. Use correctly
298. Use effectively
299. Use heavily
300. Use inappropriately
301. Use independently
302. Use indiscriminately
303. Use inductively
304. Used frequently
305. Used subsequently
306. Used variably
307. Utilize successfully
308. Vary greatly
309. Vary significantly
310. Vary widely
311. View effectively
312. Viewed differently
313. Wish fervently
314. Work autonomously
315. Work collaboratively
316. Work creatively
317. Work independently
318. Work individually
319. Work   together

320. Write accurately
321. Write academically
322. Write extensively
323. Write fluently

NOUN + VERB

1. Analyses indicate
2. Analyses show
3. Article describe
4. Article discuss
5. Article examine
6. Article focus
7. Article present
8. Article report
9. Article seek
10. Article suggest
11. Attempt to achieve
12. Change to practise
13. Concern arise
14. Data consist
15. Data elicit
16. Data indicate
17. Data provide
18. Data reveal
19. Data show
20. Data suggest
21. Data were analyzed
22. Data were collected
23. Desire to interact
24. Difference were found
25. Evidence exist
26. Evidence suggest
27. Evidence support
28. Figure illustrate
29. Figure indicate
30. Figure represent
31. Figure show
32. Findings demonstrate
33. Findings find
34. Findings indicate
35. Findings reveal
36. Findings show
37. Findings suggest
38. Findings support
39. Investigation describe
40. Issues to consider
41. Lack of knowledge
42. Learning environment
43. Literature propose
44. Literature reveal
45. Literature show
46. Literature suggest
47. Misunderstanding occur
48. Need to communicate
49. Need to go
50. Need to help
51. Paper consider
52. Paper examines
53. Paper report

54. Paper summarize
55. Program design
56. Question arise
57. Report claim
58. Report confirm
59. Research show
60. Results demonstrate
61. Results determine
62. Results enable
63. Results give
64. Results indicate
65. Result provide
66. Results reveal
67. Results show
68. Results suggest
69. Story reveal
70. Studies prove
71. Study address
72. Study aim
73. Study analyze
74. Study attempt
75. Study combine
76. Study compare
77. Study contribute
78. Study demonstrate
79. Study employ
80. Study examine
81. Study explore
82. Study find
83. Study focus
84. Study give
85. Study intend
86. Study investigate
87. Study look at
88. Study mark
89. Study provide
90. Study raise
91. Study report
92. Study reveal
93. Study set out
94. Study show
95. Study suggest
96. Study use
97. Study was conducted
98. Survey reveal
99. Survey show
100. Table compare
101. Table contain
102. Table include
103. Table shed light on
104. Table show
105. Table summarize
106. Table present
107. Table provide
108. Table represent
109. Table reveal

NOUN + NOUN

1. Access information
2. Achievement gap
3. Assessment criteria
4. Blanket statement
5. Book review
6. Capstone experience
7. Case of death
8. Case of life
9. Catering staff
10. Chance of success
11. (in) Class use
12. Composing process
13. Conference attendance
14. Consent form
15. Context cue
16. Correction of error
17. Construing meaning
18. Construing reality
19. Curriculum development
20. Data analysis
21. Data collection
22. Data description
23. Decision-making process
24. Developmental opportunities
25. Development study
26. Devoid of originality
27. Discourse community
28. Discussion board
29. Dissemination of knowledge
30. Education reform
31. Effect size
32. Effect value
33. Equipment failure
34. Error correction
35. Error detection
36. Feeling of insecurity
37. Feeling of isolation
38. Feeling of unease
39. Frequency of occurrence
40. Future success
41. Gender difference
42. Hallmark of data
43. Harbinger of change
44. Head start
45. Home discipline
46. Humanist orientation
47. Identity construction
48. Importance of repetition
49. Information retrieval
50. Input flood
51. Intend of study
52. Key to understanding
53. Knowledge source
54. Lack of awareness
55. Lack of clarity
56. Lack of competence
57. Lack of confidence
58. Lack of credibility
59. Lack of evidence
60. Lack of exposure

61. Lack of familiarity
62. Lack of fluency
63. Lack of interactivity
64. Lack of interest
65. Lack of knowledge
66. Lack of outcome
67. Lack of time
68. Lack of understanding
69. Language awareness
70. Language development
71. Language minority
72. Language proficiency
73. Language use
74. Learner autonomy
75. Learning experience
76. Learning opportunity
77. Learning outcome
78. Learning preference
79. Learning style
80. Learning tool
81. Level of proficiency
82. Life expectancy
83. Life experience
84. List of names
85. Matter of perspective
86. Mother tongue
87. Paucity of research
88. Peer feedback
89. Period of fluctuation
90. Policy decision
91. Policy maker
92. Pool of participants
93. Poverty reduction
94. Power relationship
95. Preparation class
96. Priority topic
97. Proficiency level
98. Reading achievement
99. Reading comprehension
100. Reading for pleasure
101. Reference material
102. Repertoire of practice
103. Research gap
104. Research paradigm
105. Research proposal
106. Research question
107. Research study
108. Retention of word
109. Risk factor
110. Risk taker
111. Role model
112. Role play
113. Rote learning
114. Search engine
115. Security guards
116. Sense of dissatisfaction
117. Sense of solidarity
118. Sense of uncertainty
119. Set of values
120. Shortcoming of study

121. Sign of deficiency
122. Significance of difference
123. Socialization process
124. Solidarity activity
125. Source of dissatisfaction
126. Source of frustration
127. Source of information
128. Source of knowledge
129. Speed of access
130. Stereotype threat
131. Student achievement
132. Student failure
133. Student success
134. Subject matter
135. Subject of debate
136. Teacher assessment
137. Teacher correction
138. Teacher education
139. Teacher intervention
140. Teacher involvement
141. Teaching practice
142. Teaching session
143. Technology use
144. Time management
145. Time constraint
146. Topic familiarity
147. Topic of interest
148. Transmission of ideologies
149. Tutor feedback
150. Umbrella term
151. University culture
152. Use of information
153. Use of knowledge
154. Vantage level
155. Vantage point
156. Vocabulary acquisition
157. Vocabulary competence
158. Vocabulary complexity
159. Vocabulary development
160. Vocabulary growth
161. Vocabulary knowledge
162. Waste of time
163. Wealth of data
164. Woking day
165. Woking experience
166. Working hours
167. Workplace communication
168. Worthy of comment
169. Writing ability
170. Writing competence
171. Writing development
172. Writing performance
173. Writing task

ADJECTIVE + NOUN

1. Absolute growth
2. Absolute learning
3. Abstract meaning
4. Academic affairs

5. Academic communication
6. Academic community
7. Academic development
8. Academic literacy
9. Academic prestige
10. Academic rigor
11. Academic setting
12. Academic success
13. Academic text
14. Academic values
15. Academic writing
16. Acceptable errors
17. Acceptable level
18. Accurate assessment
19. Acquisitional benefits
20. Active role
21. Actual role
22. Added value
23. Additional attention
24. Additional benefit
25. Additional factors
26. Additional help
27. Additional information
28. Additional instruction
29. Additional work
30. Additive revision
31. Adequate account
32. Adequate data
33. Administrative efficiency
34. Adult learner
35. Advantageous positions
36. Adversarial aspect
37. Adverse experience
38. Adverse impact
39. Affective factors
40. Agitated passengers
41. Agreed solution
42. Alternative applications
43. Alternative perspective
44. Amalgamated corpora
45. Ambiguous idea
46. Ambiguous notion
47. Ample evidence
48. Ample opportunity
49. Analytic insights
50. Anecdotal evidence
51. Anecdotal observation
52. Annual conference
53. Antagonistic question
54. Apparent discrepancy
55. Apparent growth
56. Apparent reluctance
57. Appealing idea
58. Applied science
59. Ardent support
60. Arduous challenge
61. Attainable goal
62. Attentional span
63. Attentive observation
64. Attractive feature

65. Authentic data
66. Authentic materials
67. Authentic purpose
68. Authoritative stance
69. Autonomous activity
70. Autonomous learning
71. Awkward implication
72. Awkward question
73. Background knowledge
74. Baseline population
75. Basic claim
76. Basic concept
77. Basic design
78. Basic fact
79. Basic feature
80. Basic goal
81. Basic principles
82. Basic skill
83. Basic outline
84. Baseline knowledge
85. Beneficial effect
86. Best solution
87. Better understanding
88. Better indication
89. Better insight
90. Better way
91. Blind rating
92. Bilingual competence
93. Blunt measures
94. Bootstrapping process
95. Bridging strategy
96. Brief comment
97. Brief description
98. Brief discussion
99. Brief glance
100. Brief outline
101. Brief prompt
102. Brief statement
103. Broad base
104. Broad-brush picture
105. Capturing idea
106. Catalytic effect
107. Categorical claim
108. Central aim
109. Central concern
110. Central goal
111. Central position
112. Central purpose
113. Central role
114. Certain knowledge
115. Certain requirement
116. Challenging goal
117. Challenging skill
118. Challenging task
119. Changing market
120. Changing nature
121. Chronicling process
122. Chronological framework
123. Clarification question
124. Clarification request

125. Clear answer
126. Clear assessment
127. Clear conclusion
128. Clear contradiction
129. Clear criticism
130. Clear demarcations
131. Clear difference
132. Clear effect
133. Clear evidence
134. Clear impetus
135. Clear improvement
136. Clear instability
137. Clear orientation
138. Clear purpose
139. Clear sense
140. Clear tendency
141. Clear understanding
142. Clerical work
143. Close attention
144. Close connection
145. Close resemblance
146. Cognitive effort
147. Cognitive load
148. Cognitive overlook
149. Cognitive process
150. Cognitive skill
151. Cognitive strategy
152. Collaborative environment
153. Collaborative task
154. Collective knowledge
155. Common errors
156. Common goal
157. Common language
158. Common purpose
159. Common subject
160. Common thread
161. Communicative purpose
162. Competitive ethos
163. Competitive relationship
164. Complete agreement
165. Complete convergence
166. Complete list
167. Complete picture
168. Complex pattern
169. Complex process
170. Complicated construct
171. Comprehensible input
172. Comprehensive analysis
173. Comprehensive overview
174. Comprehensive review
175. Comprehensive understanding
176. Comprehensive view
177. Concerted effort
178. Conclusive difference
179. Concomitant changes
180. Concrete example
181. Concrete meaning
182. Conflicting nature
183. Conflicting results
184. Conscious attention

185. Conscious effort
186. Considerable attention
187. Considerable variation
188. Considerable controversy
189. Considerable difficulty
190. Considerable evidence
191. Considerable importance
192. Considerable progression
193. Considerable revision
194. Considerable variation
195. Consistent effect
196. Consistent predictor
197. Consistent use
198. Constructive feedback
199. Context-sensitive perspective
200. Contextual information
201. Continued disparities
202. Continuing debate
203. Continuous assessment
204. Continuous development
205. Continuous growth
206. Contradictive topic
207. Contradictory account
208. Contradictory finding
209. Contributory factor
210. Controlled task
211. Conventional look
212. Convergent evidence
213. Convergent goal
214. Core belief
215. Core characteristic
216. Core reason
217. Core subject
218. Correct answer
219. Correct prediction
220. Corrective device
221. Corrective feedback
222. Cost/benefit analysis
223. Covert racism
224. Creative beings
225. Creative use
226. Creative writing
227. Critical analyses
228. Critical awareness
229. Critical component
230. Critical essay
231. Critical influence
232. Critical issue
233. Critical perspective
234. Critical problem
235. Critical thinking
236. Critical viewpoint
237. Cross-sectional study
238. Crucial point
239. Crucial role
240. Culminating experience
241. Cultural background
242. Cultural difference
243. Cultural heterogenization
244. Cultural homogenization

245. Cultural identity
246. Cumulative process
247. Cumulative view
248. Curricular constraints
249. Curricular goals
250. Cursory glance
251. Cut-off point
252. Daily conversation
253. Daily interaction
254. Daily life
255. Daily lives
256. Dampening effect
257. Daunting task
258. Debriefing session
259. Decent pronunciation
260. Declarative knowledge
261. Decreased use
262. Deep level
263. Deeper insight
264. Deeper understanding
265. Delaying consideration
266. Demographic characteristics
267. Demographic information
268. Demotivating effect
269. Descriptive data
270. Descriptive feedback
271. Desirable outcome
272. Desired goal
273. Detailed attention
274. Detailed research
275. Detailed scrutiny
276. Detailed suggestion
277. Determining factor
278. Determining role
279. Detrimental effect
280. Descriptive feedback
281. Developed countries
282. Developing knowledge
283. Developmental milestone
284. Developmental phenomenon
285. Different assumptions
286. Different path
287. Different view
288. Differential effect
289. Differential performance
290. Differing opinions
291. Digital device
292. Digital education
293. Digital technology
294. Direct instruction
295. Direct learning
296. Discernible biases
297. Discernible impact
298. Disciplinary context
299. Disciplinary knowledge
300. Discontiguous idea
301. Discrete information
302. Discrete phenomenon
303. Discrete stages
304. Disinterested generation

305. Distinct pattern
306. Distinctive feature
307. Divergent view
308. Diverging ideas
309. Diverging needs
310. Diverging patterns
311. Doctoral student
312. Dominant focus
313. Dominant language
314. Dominant norm
315. Dominant theme
316. Dramatic change
317. Driving force
318. Dubious quality
319. Durable learning
320. Dynamic interplay
321. Early descriptions
322. Early development
323. Early stage
324. Early work
325. Ease-of-learning ranking
326. Economic opportunities
327. Educational contexts
328. Educational experience
329. Educational goal
330. Educational profile
331. Effective communication
332. Effective description
333. Effective means (of)
334. Effective measure
335. Effective reading
336. Effective strategy
337. Effective teaching
338. Effective tool
339. Effective use
340. Effective voice
341. Effective ways
342. Efficient reading
343. Efficient use
344. Electronic submission
345. Eliciting ideas
346. Eminent researcher
347. Empirical analyses
348. Empirical basis
349. Empirical data
350. Empirical evidence
351. Empirical finding
352. Empirical investigation
353. Empirical research
354. Empirical study
355. Empirical work
356. Enslaved individuals
357. Enthusiastic advocates
358. Environmental awareness
359. Environmental variables
360. Ephemeral nature
361. Epilinguistic level
362. Equal chance
363. Equal opportunity
364. Equal prominence

365. Erroneous assumption
366. Erroneous correction
367. Essential component
368. Essential criteria
369. Essential information
370. Essential method
371. Ethical obligation
372. Even distribution
373. Evident ground
374. Evolutionary advantage
375. Excellent examples
376. Excessive control
377. Excessive reliance
378. Exhaustive research
379. Existing evidence
380. Experienced raters
381. Experienced teacher
382. Experiential study
383. Explicit attention
384. Explicit discussion
385. Explicit learning
386. Explicit instruction
387. Explicit knowledge
388. Explicit intervention
389. Explicit opportunity
390. Explicit teaching
391. Explicit treatment
392. Exploratory study
393. Extensive control
394. Extensive difference
395. Extensive experience
396. Extensive use
397. External factor
398. Extrinsic motive
399. Facile access
400. False impression
401. Fair assumption
402. Fair treatment
403. False start
404. Fast-growing countries
405. Fatal accident
406. Fertile sites (for)
407. Final resolution
408. Financial loss
409. Fine distinction
410. Fine-grained distinctions
411. Firm grasp
412. Fixed view
413. Flat tone
414. For-credit work
415. Foregoing discussion
416. Foreign accent
417. Formal presentation
418. Fragmented account
419. Front-line practitioners
420. Fruitful area
421. Fruitful research
422. Full account
423. Full credit
424. Full participation

425. Full review
426. Fundamental aim
427. Fundamental difference
428. Fundamental goal
429. Functional purpose
430. Functional relation
431. Fundamental factors
432. Fundamental issue
433. Fundamental role
434. Further analyses
435. Further challenge
436. Further consideration
437. Further correction
438. Further drop
439. Further evidence
440. Further exploration
441. Further information
442. Further insight
443. Further level
444. Further point
445. Further reinforcement
446. Further research
447. Further studies
448. Further support
449. Future possibilities
450. Future studies
451. General acceptance
452. General pattern
453. General rise
454. General trend
455. Generic term
456. Genuine opportunity
457. Global access
458. Global connectivity
459. Global importance
460. Global investment
461. Global phenomenon
462. Good comprehension
463. Grave concern
464. Great advantage
465. Great appetite
466. Great care
467. Great effect
468. Great effort
469. Great gap
470. Great impediment
471. Great interest
472. Ground-breaking investigation
473. Growing interest
474. Growing evidence
475. Handsome benefits
476. Hard copy
477. Hard science
478. Hard work
479. Heated debate
480. Heated discussion
481. Heavy demand
482. Heavy strain
483. Helpful suggestion
484. High-quality instructions

485. Historical evidence
486. Holistic scoring
487. Homogenous group
488. Hushed asides
489. Ideological presuppositions
490. Idiomatic usage
491. Ill-served needs
492. Immediate use
493. Implicit instruction
494. Implicit intervention
495. Implicit knowledge
496. Implicit learning
497. Implicit treatment
498. Important advantage
499. Important bearing (on)
500. Important caveats
501. Important challenges
502. Important changes
503. Important characteristics
504. Important concern
505. Important consideration
506. Important contribution
507. Important criterion
508. Important development
509. Important disadvantage
510. Important factor
511. Important feature
512. Important finding
513. Important gap
514. Important goal
515. Important implications
516. Important insight
517. Important issue
518. Important limitations
519. Important milestone
520. Important observation
521. Important problem
522. Important question
523. Important ramification
524. Important reason
525. Important resource
526. Important role
527. Important similarities
528. Important source
529. Important stage
530. Important steps
531. Important task
532. Important themes
533. Important values
534. Impressionistic look
535. Inaccurate evidence
536. Inadequate attention
537. Inadequate training
538. Inadvertent oversight
539. Inappropriate response
540. Incidental learning
541. Inconclusive findings
542. Incorrect use
543. Increased practice
544. Increased scrutiny

545. Increasing conformity
546. Increasing interest
547. Increasing prominence
548. Increasing urgency
549. Independent coding
550. Independent evaluation
551. Independent learning
552. Independent measure
553. Indigenous language
554. Indirect effect
555. Individual difference
556. Individual thought
557. Individualistic activity
558. In-depth distinction
559. In-depth examination
560. In-depth understanding
561. Individual variability
562. Individualistic view
563. Informal conversation
564. Inherent property
565. Initial contribution
566. Initial experience
567. Initial study
568. Initial support
569. Innovative knowledge
570. Innovative project
571. Insightful comment
572. Insightful enquiry
573. Insightful overview
574. Instant payback
575. Intangible nature
576. Interesting insight
577. Intrinsic motivation
578. Instant payback
579. Instant messaging
580. Instructional content
581. Instructional practice
582. Instructional support
583. Insufficient training
584. Integrative view
585. Intellectual rigour
586. Intense criticism
587. Intense struggle
588. Intensive writing
589. Intercultural communication
590. Interesting difference
591. Interesting finding
592. Interesting insight
593. Interesting signs
594. International student
595. Intimidate knowledge
596. Intriguing case
597. Intriguing finding
598. Intriguing question
599. Intrinsic motive
600. Irritating errors
601. Iterative process
602. Jarring effect
603. Judicious intervention
604. Key changes

605. Key characteristics
606. Key component
607. Key development
608. Key element
609. Key evidence
610. Key factor
611. Key feature
612. Key Figure
613. Key finding
614. Key issue
615. Key person
616. Key point
617. Key question
618. Key research
619. Key resource
620. Key role
621. Key skill
622. Key subject
623. Key term
624. Key theme
625. Key values
626. Key words
627. Labour-intensive research
628. Language-analytic ability
629. Large corpora
630. Large difference
631. Large effect
632. Large impact
633. Large-scale movement
634. Large-scale studies
635. Lasting impact
636. Legal advice
637. Less-researched discipline
638. Lexical access
639. Lexical accessibility
640. Lexical choice
641. Lexical competence
642. Lexical complexity
643. Lexical deterioration
644. Lexical development
645. Lexical diversity
646. Lexical inference
647. Lexical knowledge
648. Lexical retrieval
649. Lexical sophistication
650. Life-claiming failure
651. Liberating opportunities
652. Limited accessibility
653. Limited contact
654. Limited experience
655. Limited opportunity
656. Limited resource
657. Limitless ways
658. Lingering affection
659. Lingering tendency
660. Linguistic awareness
661. Linguistic development
662. Linguistic gains
663. Little attention
664. Little consensus

665. Little difference
666. Little evidence
667. Little experience
668. Little impact
669. Little interest
670. Little room (space)
671. Little work
672. Lived experiences
673. Lively debate
674. Living creatures
675. Local errors
676. Local adaptations
677. Localized dialect
678. Logical issue
679. Longitudinal study
680. Long-term effect
681. Long-term exponent
682. Long-term memory
683. Main contribution
684. Main development
685. Main difference
686. Main features
687. Main stakeholders
688. Main topic
689. Major changes
690. Major findings
691. Major focus
692. Major goal
693. Major impact
694. Major paradigm
695. Major struggle
696. Major task
697. Mandatory examination
698. Manifold needs
699. Marginally significant
700. Massive collection
701. Meaningful contribution
702. Meaningful way
703. Measurable contribution
704. Mediating factor
705. Mental lexicon
706. Merit-based scholarship
707. Metaphorical use
708. Metalinguistic knowledge
709. Methodological design
710. Methodological rigor
711. Minimal difference
712. Minimum requirements
713. Mobile devices
714. Moderate correlation
715. Modest impact
716. Motivational factor
717. Multiple experience
718. Mutable state
719. Native English
720. Natural phenomenon
721. Naturalistic setting
722. Naturally-occurring interactions
723. Near-native English
724. Negative association

725. Negative comment
726. Negative consequence
727. Negative effect
728. Negative emotion
729. Negative evaluation
730. Negative evidence
731. Negative reaction
732. Negligible effect
733. Negligible impact
734. New word
735. Noisy data
736. Nonlinear relationship
737. Non-native English
738. Notable difference
739. Notable example
740. Notable exceptions
741. Notable features
742. Notable issue
743. Notable success
744. Noteworthy exception
745. Noticeable difference
746. Noticeable growth
747. Noticeable way
748. Novice student
749. Novice user
750. Nuanced view
751. Obedient listeners
752. Obfuscatory works
753. Obligatory features
754. Observable difference
755. Observational experience
756. Observed difference
757. Obvious effect
758. Obvious limitations
759. Obvious potential
760. Obvious similarities
761. Offline use
762. Ongoing debates
763. Ongoing discussion
764. Ongoing emergence
765. Ongoing evaluation
766. Ongoing opportunity
767. Ongoing process
768. Online verification
769. Operating costs
770. Optimal condition
771. Optimal level
772. Optimal performance
773. Oral communication
774. Oral development
775. Oral negotiations
776. Oral performance
777. Oral presentation
778. Out-of-class experience
779. Out-of-class opportunity
780. Overall changes
781. Overall evaluation
782. Overall finding
783. Overall impression
784. Overall picture

785. Overall purpose
786. Overall quality
787. Overall responsibility
788. Overall use
789. Overarching aim
790. Overarching criterion
791. Overarching goal
792. Overarching issue
793. Overarching question
794. Overhead transparency
795. Overt correction
796. Overt evidence
797. Paradoxical relationship
798. Parallel development
799. Parallel work
800. Partial advantage
801. Partial knowledge
802. Particular attention
803. Particular interest
804. Passing score
805. Pedagogical belief
806. Pedagogical challenge
807. Pedagogical implications
808. Pedestrian safety
809. Pedagogic challenges
810. Pedagogic use
811. Pedagogical intervention
812. Perceptible difference
813. Perennial problem
814. Permanent career
815. Permanent imprint
816. Persistent instability
817. Personal biases
818. Personal experience
819. Personal profile
820. Personal thing
821. Persuasive arguments
822. Persuasive research
823. Pertinent questions
824. Physical skill
825. Piecemeal weighing
826. Pilot study
827. Pioneering work
828. Pivot word
829. Pivotal role
830. Planning talk
831. Plausible explanation
832. Plausible idea
833. Plausible option
834. Plurilingual identity
835. Poignant analogy
836. Polarized debate
837. Political realities
838. Political stance
839. Poor performance
840. Populous states
841. Positive affirmation
842. Positive change
843. Positive contribution
844. Positive correlation
845. Positive effect
846. Positive emotion
847. Positive evaluation
848. Positive evidence
849. Positive finding
850. Positive impact
851. Positive interdependence
852. Positive relationship
853. Possible conclusion
854. Possible errors
855. Possible explanation
856. Possible outcome
857. Possible solution
858. Potential benefit
859. Potential consequence
860. Potential efficacy
861. Potential effect
862. Potential implication
863. Potential influence
864. Potential link
865. Potential opportunity
866. Potential pitfall
867. Potential problem
868. Potential shortcoming
869. Potential similarities
870. Potential source
871. Powerful difference
872. Powerful hardware
873. Powerful influence
874. Powerful tool
875. Powerful vehicles
876. Practical application
877. Practical suggestions
878. Practical terms
879. Pragmatic competence
880. Pragmatic knowledge
881. Predictable difference
882. Predictable effect
883. Predictable outcome
884. Predictive accuracy
885. Predictive power
886. Predominant features
887. Preliminary indication
888. Preventative intervention
889. Prevailing orientation
890. Previous research
891. Prior experience
892. Prior knowledge
893. Primary aim
894. Primary concern
895. Primary criterion
896. Principal component
897. Principled manner
898. Private belongings
899. Probable reasons
900. Problem-solving task
901. Procedural knowledge
902. Professional development
903. Professional purposes
904. Profound effect
905. Prominent feature
906. Prominent words
907. Protective effect
908. Provisional answer
909. Publishable article
910. Published work
911. Pure science
912. Purpose-built corpora
913. Push-back scenario
914. Putative contribution
915. Putative stage
916. Puzzling term
917. Qualitative analysis
918. Qualitative evidence
919. Qualitative study
920. Quantitative analysis
921. Quantitative evidence
922. Quantitative study
923. Quick access
924. Radical implication
925. Random selection
926. Rapid expansion
927. Rapid growth
928. Rapid increase
929. Rapid change
930. Rapid development
931. Rare occurrence
932. Rating criteria
933. Raw comment
934. Ready-made corpora
935. Real advantage
936. Real problem
937. Real world
938. Real-world task
939. Reasonable degree
940. Reasoned argument
941. Recent studies
942. Receptive knowledge
943. Recognizable phenomenon
944. Recommended value
945. Reductionist view
946. Recurring question
947. Regular basis
948. Real-life experience
949. Real-life situation
950. Reliable criteria
951. Reliable insight
952. Reliable prediction
953. Residual capacity
954. Restricted true
955. Rigorous manner
956. Rigorous training
957. Robust argument
958. Robust contribution
959. Robust difference
960. Robust effect
961. Robust finding
962. Robust inquiry
963. Robust predictor
964. Robust reason

965. Robust role
966. Rote-learning ability
967. Routine activities
968. Rubric-based decision
969. Rudimentary purpose
970. Running costs
971. Qualitative investigation
972. Quantitative investigation
973. Salient difference
974. Salient features
975. Scaffolding skills
976. Selective process
977. Sensitive dependence
978. Serious problem
979. Scientific knowledge
980. Semantic integrity
981. Semantic knowledge
982. Sensitive intervention
983. Sequential order
984. Severe criticism
985. Sheer number
986. Short-term gains
987. Significant advantage
988. Significant assistant
989. Significant attention
990. Significant bearing
991. Significant benefit
992. Significant challenges
993. Significant contribution
994. Significant correlation
995. Significant difference
996. Significant drop
997. Significant effect
998. Significant exception
999. Significant example
1000. Significant factor
1001. Significant gains
1002. Significant gap
1003. Significant impact
1004. Significant improvement
1005. Significant level
1006. Significant part
1007. Significant predictor
1008. Significant relationship
1009. Significant result
1010. Significant role
1011. Significant stimulus
1012. Similar point
1013. Simple task
1014. Specific context
1015. Similar concern
1016. Similar situations
1017. Similar outcome
1018. Slight difference
1019. Slight effect
1020. Slight increase
1021. Small difference
1022. Small gains
1023. Small-scale study
1024. Small tendency
1025. Social interaction
1026. Social justice
1027. Social opportunities
1028. Social relationship
1029. Social underpinning
1030. Societal biases
1031. Socio-economic status
1032. Soft science
1033. Sophisticated idea
1034. Sophisticated information
1035. Sophisticated use
1036. Specialized corpora
1037. Specialized knowledge
1038. Specific context
1039. Specific purpose
1040. Spontaneous conversation
1041. Spontaneous speech
1042. Stable trait
1043. Static relation
1044. Starting point
1045. State-wide exam
1046. Static view
1047. Statistically significant
1048. Steady flow
1049. Steady improvement
1050. Straightforward task
1051. Straightforward tendency
1052. Stratified sampling
1053. Striking difference
1054. Striking feature
1055. Striking finding
1056. Striking similarity
1057. Strong agreement
1058. Strong association
1059. Strong benefit
1060. Strong bias
1061. Strong caution
1062. Strong claim
1063. Strong correlation
1064. Strong effect
1065. Strong emphasis
1066. Strong evidence
1067. Strong focus
1068. Strong foundation
1069. Strong indication
1070. Strong interest
1071. Strong performance
1072. Strong possibility
1073. Strong preference
1074. Strong presence
1075. Strong support
1076. Strong tendencies
1077. Stylistic difference
1078. Subsidiary aim
1079. Subsidiary focus
1080. Substantial claim
1081. Substantial difference
1082. Substantial evidence
1083. Substantial goal
1084. Substantial handicap
1085. Substantial mismatch
1086. Substantial shift
1087. Subtle difference
1088. Successful presentation
1089. Succinct idea
1090. Sudden shift
1091. Sufficient attention
1092. Suggested alternative
1093. Suitable stimuli
1094. Superior performance
1095. Supervised teaching
1096. Supplementary material
1097. Supplementary resource
1098. Surprising advantages
1099. Surprising results
1100. Surrounding area
1101. Sustained development
1102. Systematic analysis
1103. Systematic evidence
1104. Target-centric perspective
1105. Technical advantage
1106. Technical support
1107. Tedious work
1108. Tentative interest
1109. Tentative suggestion
1110. Thematic content
1111. Theoretical commitment
1112. Theoretical foundation
1113. Theoretical framework
1114. Theoretical grounding
1115. Theoretical interest
1116. Theoretical prediction
1117. Theoretical support
1118. Timely feedback
1119. Timely movement
1120. Top-down initiative
1121. Top priority
1122. True description
1123. Ultimate aim
1124. Ultimate control
1125. Ultimate goal
1126. Ultimate hope
1127. Ultimate purpose
1128. Unabridged text
1129. Unbridgeable gulf
1130. Unconscious application
1131. Unconscious process
1132. Underlying assumptions
1133. Underlying similarities
1134. Unelaborated source
1135. Unexpected circumstance
1136. Unexpected finding
1137. Unexpected problem
1138. Unexpected question
1139. Unfamiliar words
1140. Unguided speech
1141. Uniform trend
1142. Unique contribution
1143. Unique experience

1144. Unique nature
1145. Unique opportunity
1146. Unique reason
1147. Universal norms
1148. Unknown vocabulary
1149. Unknown word
1150. Unlikely event
1151. Unofficial language
1152. Unpredictable situations
1153. Unrealistic expectation
1154. Unrefined measurement
1155. Unsatisfactory situation
1156. Unsettling experience
1157. Unsurprising finding
1158. Untameable assumption
1159. Untapped area
1160. Unusual challenge
1161. Unusual scenarios
1162. Urgent need
1163. Useful aid
1164. Useful development
1165. Useful surrogate
1166. Useful tips
1167. Vague expectation
1168. Vague term
1169. Valid conclusion
1170. Valid indicator
1171. Valid interpretation
1172. Valuable endeavour
1173. Valuable experience
1174. Valuable information
1175. Valuable input
1176. Valuable insight
1177. Valuable resource
1178. Valuable step forward
1179. Valuable suggestion
1180. Value-laden behaviour
1181. Vanishing point
1182. (at) varying levels
1183. Vast literature
1184. Verbal fluency
1185. Vexing question
1186. Viable alternatives
1187. Viable tool
1188. Violated rule
1189. Virtual environment
1190. Visual cue
1191. Vital assumption
1192. Vital clues
1193. Vital role
1194. Vocabulary knowledge
1195. Weak impact
1196. Welcome outcome
1197. Widespread belief
1198. Widespread popularity
1199. Widespread resistance
1200. Widespread use
1201. Wildly-held beliefs
1202. Wired world
1203. Working memory
1204. World-wide interest
1205. Worrisome feature
1206. Worthwhile experience
1207. Written feedback
1208. Wrong answer
1209. Zero relevance

ADVERB + ADJECTIVE

1. Admittedly problematic
2. Adversely impact
3. Apparently beneficial
4. Arguably beneficial
5. Barely adequate
6. Barely coherent
7. Barely perceptible
8. Broadly applicable
9. Broadly confident
10. Broadly contrasting
11. Broadly representative
12. Centrally concerned
13. Certainly possible
14. Certainly problematic
15. Clearly adept
16. Clearly crucial
17. Clearly defined
18. Clearly evident
19. Clearly important
20. Clearly impossible
21. Clearly impractical
22. Clearly interpretable
23. Clearly specify
24. Clearly useful
25. Closely associated
26. Closely connected
27. Closely interconnected
28. Closely linked
29. Closely related
30. Cognitively challenging
31. Cognitively complex
32. Cognitively mature
33. Cognitively salient
34. Commonly known
35. Comparatively weaker
36. Completely appropriate
37. Completely comfortable
38. Completely discrete
39. Completely familiar
40. Completely free
41. Completely irrelevant
42. Completely negative
43. Completely positive
44. Completely wrong
45. Conceptually plausible
46. Conceptually simple
47. Concisely written
48. Considerably different
49. Considerable harder
50. Considerably weak
51. Consistently higher
52. Constantly changing
53. Contextually clear
54. Conventionally construed
55. Critically important
56. Culturally appropriate
57. Culturally biased
58. Culturally bond
59. Culturally different
60. Culturally distinct
61. Culturally familiar
62. Culturally sensitive
63. Culturally unfamiliar
64. Culturally variable
65. Daily routine
66. Descriptively real
67. Diametrically opposed
68. Directly related
69. Directly relevant
70. Directly transferable
71. Distantly related
72. Doubtlessly important
73. Dramatically different
74. Easily accessible
75. Easily definable
76. Easily forgotten
77. Easily replicable
78. Easily understandable
79. Economically disadvantaged
80. Effectively develop
81. Entirely new
82. Entirely plausible
83. Entirely unexpected
84. Equally challenging
85. Equally complex
86. Equally effective
87. Equally important
88. Equally sized
89. Equally well
90. Especially helpful
91. Especially important
92. Especially interesting
93. Especially notable
94. Especially true
95. Essentially practical
96. Explicitly present
97. Extremely attractive
98. Extremely common
99. Extremely controversial
100. Extremely difficult
101. Extremely frequent
102. Extremely helpful
103. Extremely high
104. Extremely small
105. Extremely successful
106. Extremely useful
107. Fairly efficient
108. Fairly experienced
109. Fairly straightforward
110. Freely available

111. Frequently cited
112. Fully correct
113. Fully established
114. Fully realisable
115. Fully trained
116. Generally accepted
117. Generally agreed
118. Generally easier
119. Generally high
120. Generally positive
121. Generally reluctant
122. Genuinely interesting
123. Genuinely unexpected
124. Globally connected
125. Globally minded
126. Grammatically complex
127. Greatly opposed
128. Grossly inadequate
129. Hardly controversial
130. Hardly surprising
131. Highly conventional
132. Highly dependent
133. Highly diverse
134. Highly diversified
135. Highly influential
136. Highly interactive
137. Highly motivated
138. Highly problematic
139. Highly proficient
140. Highly ranked
141. Highly relevant
142. Highly reliable
143. Highly rated
144. Highly sensitive
145. Highly specialized
146. Highly specific
147. Highly trained
148. Highly likely
149. Highly unfavourable
150. Highly valued
151. Immediately concerned
152. Immediately obvious
153. Immediately striking
154. Increasingly important
155. Increasingly acceptable
156. Increasingly disengaged
157. Increasingly practical
158. Increasingly topical
159. Incredibly rich
160. Indirectly relevant
161. Inevitably limited
162. Inherently easy
163. Inherently problematic
164. Inherently wrong
165. Interestingly ambivalent
166. Internally cohesive
167. Intricately designed
168. Judiciously selected
169. Largely invisible
170. Largely similar

171. Largely superficial
172. Linearly related
173. Linguistically distinct
174. Locally educated
175. Mainly instrumental
176. Mainly interested
177. Marginally better
178. Marginally higher
179. Marginally significant
180. Marginally superior
181. Mostly significant
182. Narrowly distributed
183. Narrowly focused
184. Necessarily available
185. Necessarily correct
186. Necessarily valid
187. Newly prominent
188. Newly qualified
189. Notably limited
190. Notably rare
191. Noticeably stronger
192. Notoriously impervious
193. Oddly enough
194. Ostensibly desirable
195. Overly modest
196. Overly optimistic
197. Painfully aware
198. Partially attributable
199. Partially correct
200. Particularly challenging
201. Particularly complex
202. Particularly crucial
203. Particularly important
204. Particularly interested
205. Particularly interesting
206. Particularly motivated
207. Particularly popular
208. Particularly prominent
209. Particularly true
210. Particularly strong
211. Particularly useful
212. Particularly well
213. Partly attributable
214. Pedagogically oriented
215. Pedagogically useful
216. Pedagogically worthless
217. Perfectly possible
218. Polar opposite
219. Possibly obligatory
220. Potentially available
221. Potentially effective
222. Potentially important
223. Potentially negative
224. Potentially positive
225. Potentially problematic
226. Potentially useful
227. Potentially valuable
228. Precisely written
229. Predominantly active
230. Presently underway

231. Probably insufficient
232. Professionally produced
233. Prohibitively expensive
234. Publicly available
235. Purely explicit
236. Purportedly generic
237. Quite bad
238. Quite common
239. Quite different
240. Quite difficult
241. Quite easy
242. Quite evident
243. Quite frequent
244. Quite helpful
245. Quite interesting
246. Quite seriously
247. Quite similar
248. Radically different
249. Randomly selected
250. Rapidly changing
251. Rapidly developing
252. Rapidly evolving
253. Readily apparent
254. Readily available
255. Readily acceptable
256. Readily accessible
257. Really important
258. Reasonably extensive
259. Reasonably large
260. Reasonably possible
261. Relatively consistent
262. Relatively easy
263. Relatively frequent
264. Relatively high
265. Relatively large
266. Relatively long
267. Relatively little
268. Relatively narrow
269. Relatively new
270. Relatively predictable
271. Relatively reliable
272. Relatively similar
273. Relatively simple
274. Relatively small
275. Relatively straightforward
276. Relatively superficial
277. Remarkably similar
278. Richly multicultural
279. Richly multilingual
280. Richly varied
281. Robustly significant
282. Roughly equivalent
283. Scholarly interesting
284. Seemingly infrequent
285. Seemingly relentless
286. Seemingly unavoidable
287. Seemingly unaware
288. Semantically opaque
289. Semantically related
290. Sharp increase

291. Significantly different
292. Significantly fluent
293. Significantly higher
294. Slightly different
295. Slightly higher
296. Slightly lower
297. Socially constructed
298. Socially constructive
299. Socially mediated
300. Statistically equivalent
301. Statistically significant
302. Staunchly opposed
303. Strictly forbidden
304. Strikingly clear
305. Strikingly different
306. Strikingly diverse
307. Strikingly high
308. Strongly associated
309. Strongly embedded
310. Strongly evident
311. Strongly important
312. Strongly linked
313. Strongly positive
314. Strongly resistant
315. Structurally similar
316. Sufficiently communicative
317. Sufficiently generic
318. Sufficiently high
319. Sufficiently large
320. Sufficiently stringent
321. Surprisingly little
322. Technically adept
323. Technologically assisted
324. Tightly interwoven
325. Totally different
326. Totally wrong
327. Truly inappropriate
328. Truly serious
329. Unambiguously attributable
330. Uncomfortably adversarial
331. Unduly bold
332. Unexpectedly high
333. Uniformly successful
334. Unreservedly negative
335. Virtually unknown
336. Well known
337. Widely accepted
338. Widely applicable
339. Widely discussed
340. Widely marketable
341. Widely spoken
342. Widely used

ADVERB + VERB
1. Actively encourage
2. Actively engage
3. Actively impact
4. Actively involved
5. Actively select
6. Actively transform

7. Actually do
8. Additionally propose
9. Additionally suggest
10. Adversely impact
11. Always change
12. Appropriately apply
13. Apparently err on
14. Arguably apply
15. Better understand
16. Briefly attempt
17. Briefly discuss
18. Briefly examine
19. Briefly review
20. Briefly summarize
21. Broadly speak
22. Broadly think
23. Carefully analyzed
24. Carefully compile
25. Carefully controlled
26. Carefully define
27. Carefully design
28. Carefully edit
29. Certainly worth
30. Chronologically determine
31. Clearly align with
32. Clearly define
33. Clearly express
34. Clearly illustrate
35. Clearly indicate
36. Clearly intend
37. Clearly need
38. Closely aligned with
39. Closely examine
40. Closely follow
41. Cognitively engage
42. Collaboratively work
43. Commonly assume
44. Commonly believed
45. Commonly occur
46. Commonly used
47. Comprehensively integrate
48. Consistently apply
49. Consistently attend
50. Conspicuously dominated
51. Constantly alter
52. Constantly change
53. Constantly evolve
54. Continually change
55. Continually shift
56. Correctly classify
57. Correctly identify
58. Correctly use
59. Critically depend on
60. Critically evaluate
61. Currently occupy
62. Currently represent
63. Deeply steeped
64. Definitely worth
65. Deliberately ignore
66. Deliberately place

67. Deliberately try
68. Depend entirely (on)
69. Directly examine
70. Directly explain
71. Directly impact
72. Directly involved
73. Directly observe
74. Directly reflect
75. Easily describe
76. Easily forget
77. Easily guess
78. Effectively manage
79. Effectively teach
80. Elegantly challenge
81. Erroneously assume
82. Erroneously written
83. Exclusively focus
84. Explicitly address
85. Explicitly describe
86. Explicitly distinguish
87. Explicitly explain
88. Explicitly introduce
89. Explicitly represent
90. Explicitly say
91. Extensively develop
92. Extensively research
93. Extensively use
94. Fiercely resist
95. Frequently cited
96. Frequently imply
97. Frequently mention
98. Frequently occur
99. Frequently use
100. Fully assess
101. Fully comprehend
102. Fully establish
103. Fully exploit
104. Fully focus
105. Fully understand
106. Fully warrant
107. Fundamentally alter
108. Further developed
109. Further discuss
110. Further reveal
111. Generally accepted
112. Generally believed
113. Generally considered
114. Generally illustrate
115. Generally seen
116. Generally view
117. Generally use
118. Gradually build up
119. Gradually decrease
120. Gradually learn
121. Gradually wear (thin)
122. Graphically represented
123. Greatly affect
124. Greatly favor

125. Greatly increase
126. Heavily concentrate
127. Highly correlate
128. Highly focus
129. Historically group
130. Holistically rate
131. Immediately follow
132. Inevitably call
133. Inevitably occur
134. Intimately connected
135. Intimately involved
136. Jointly code
137. Jointly develop
138. Knowingly repeat
139. Knowingly say
140. Largely determined
141. Largely dominated
142. Largely influence
143. Largely involve
144. Largely overlook
145. Likely to encounter
146. Immediately apply
147. Implicitly favour
148. Implicitly indicate
149. Mainly intend
150. Manually analyze
151. Manually choose
152. Marginally fail
153. Meaningfully contribute
154. Mistakenly assume
155. Naturally follow
156. Narrowly define
157. Narrowly focus
158. Naturally occur
159. Naturally transfer
160. Necessarily mean
161. Necessarily need
162. Normally distributed
163. Noticeably increase
164. Originally developed
165. Originally suggest
166. Overtly express
167. Overtly describe
168. Partially known
169. Partially reveal
170. Partly attributed
171. Partly contrast
172. Passively receive
173. Periodically check
174. Persistently misuse
175. Persuasively argue
176. Positively impact
177. Possibly depend on
178. Potentially allow
179. Potentially cause
180. Potentially impact
181. Potentially make
182. Predominantly determined
183. Predominantly focus
184. Primarily achieved
185. Primarily aim
186. Primarily intend
187. Primarily investigate
188. Purposely use
189. Quantitatively analyse
190. Quickly grasp
191. Quickly select
192. Randomly assign
193. Randomly divide
194. Randomly selected
195. Rapidly decline
196. Rarely fail
197. Rarely seen
198. Realistically maintain
199. Reasonably expect
200. Reasonably handle
201. Regularly attempt
202. Regularly repeat
203. Regularly use
204. Reliably predict
205. Reliably promote
206. Rigidly hold
207. Rigorously critique
208. Routinely embrace
209. Seriously confront
210. Seriously question
211. Seriously undermine
212. Severely weaken
213. Slightly alter
214. Slightly wary
215. Significantly affect
216. Significantly alter
217. Significantly differ
218. Significantly help
219. Significantly increase
220. Significantly predict
221. Similarly show
222. Simply correct
223. Simply repeat
224. Simply require
225. Slowly manage
226. Smoothly ascend
227. Socially constructed
228. Socially embedded
229. Specifically apply
230. Specifically examine
231. Strictly apply
232. Strongly believe
233. Strongly hope
234. Strongly imply
235. Strongly influence
236. Strongly resist
237. Strongly suggest
238. Strongly support
239. Subsequently inform
240. Substantially further
241. Successfully become
242. Successfully deal with
243. Successfully guess
244. Successfully incorporate
245. Systematically examine
246. Systematically use
247. Tacitly accept
248. Tentatively support
249. Thoroughly address
250. Thoroughly discuss
251. Thoughtfully design
252. Totally account
253. Typically express
254. Typically use
255. Uncritically cite
256. Understandably wish
257. Unduly constrained
258. Uniquely associate
259. Universally insist
260. Unsurprisingly indicate
261. Usually occur
262. Vastly increase
263. View(something) favourably
264. Vigorously debated
265. Widely argued
266. Widely cited
267. Widely recognized
268. Widely referred
269. Widely seen
270. Widely shared
271. Widely used
272. Widely welcome

İngilizce yazılan akademik metinlerde sözcük birliği

Öz

Akademik yazımda eşdizim, İngilizceyi anadilmiş gibi kullanabilme becerisi isteniyorsa oldukça önemlidir. Bu doğrultuda bu çalışma iki ana amacı gerçekleştirmek için yapılmıştır: akademik yazımda anadilde yazıyormuş gibi yazabilmek için eşdizime olan farkındalığı arttırmak ve özellikle anadili İngilizce olmayan yazarlar tarafından kullanılabilecek pratik bir eşdizim listesi oluşturmak. Çalışmanın verisini anadili İngilizce olan yazarlar tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi dalında yazılmış 100 makale oluşturmaktadır. Veri analiz edilmiş ve bulunan eşdizim yapıları çeşitli kategorilere ayrılmıştır. Kategorize edilen eşdizim yapıları kapsamlı bir eşdizim listesi oluşturabilmek için eşdizim sözlükleri kullanılarak genişletilmiştir. Sonuçlar akademik yazımlarda anadili İngilizce olan yazarların yoğun bir şekilde eşdizim kullandıkları görülmüştür. Aynı zamanda yapılan literatür taraması, İngiliz dilinde kaliteli akademik yazım ve eşdizimin doğru kullanılması arasında güçlü bir ilişki olduğunu gösteren kanıtlar ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kelime bazlı eşdizim; sözcük eşdizimi; anadilde akıcılık; akademik yazım

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An investigation of prospective ELT teachers' attitudes towards using computer technologies in foreign language teaching[*]

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Abstract

The principle intent of the current research is to explore future English language teachers' attitudes on using computer technologies in language teaching. Moreover, the study focuses on effects of gender, grade and academic average on their attitudes. Quantitative research design was used in the study. Data is gathered by using a questionnaire distributed to pre-service ELT teachers studying at a state University, English language teaching department. 174 students studying at third and fourth grade participated to the study. The analysis of the collected data clearly demonstrates that prospective ELT teachers have positive views about computer usage in language teaching. In addition, it was found that there is not any relationship between participants' attitudes and their gender, grade, and academic average. The results of the study also demonstrate that candidate teacher use computers mostly for simple tasks such as sending e-mail and presenting presentations. The student-teachers are aware of the importance of computer assisted language learning. In teacher education programs, courses related computer integration should be offered so that candidate language teacher can use technology in their future classes.

Keywords: pre-service ELT teacher; attitudes; computer use; foreign language education

1. Introduction

Depending on drastic changes in the area of technology, computers have become inseparable parts of people's lives. Over the years, computer technology has improved in conjunction with the needs of people and it started to influence almost every aspect of life such as science, business, transportation, and industry. Education is one of the most important fields affected by technological developments. Accordingly, in most part of the world, there is a trend to scrutinize different modus to incorporate technology and education so that the returns of training activities increase. In this respect, Zhang (2010) noted that "researchers from around the world have been exploring new learning programs, often supported by new technologies, to increase student capabilities of productive and collaborative knowledge work" (p. 229). This idea is accepted by Sarıçoban (2013) and he mentioned that using

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computers in education provides advantages to teachers and students; that is why, the men in charge in education setting need to find ways "to integrate and internalize the use of computers as an educational tool" (p.73).

In 1950s, people have started to adopt computers in language learning. Researchers have started to investigate how computers can assist learning process in an attempt to enhance language learning. Using computer based activities in language teaching process has many advantages especially in terms of increasing the quality of language instruction and students' motivation. A considerable amount of literature has been published on using computers in educational setting (Albirini, 2006; Teo, 2008; Wang, 2007). These studies revealed that effective use of technological tools mostly depends on teachers' and students' conceptions about the benefits of computers in classroom. This study; therefore, is conducted to reveal the viewpoints of EFL teacher candidates about implementing computer technology into language education.

1.1. Literature review

In light of recent technological developments, it is becoming extremely difficult to ignore the role of technology in education field. Owing to the emergence of new technologies, as in the other fields of education, technological tools, and especially computers, are started to be used in classroom instead of traditional materials in foreign language education. In order to improve language and communication skills of learners, language educators try to find new techniques and materials to integrate technology into language classes. In line with those initiatives, computer assisted language learning (CALL), which is a popular concept in the process of technology integration into second/foreign language teaching, attracts a lot of interest.

CALL provides learners opportunities to improve their language skills by fostering interaction and presenting a large number of materials. If the findings of previous studies are analyzed, it can be noticed that computer assisted materials improve learners' language skills by providing more authentic environment for language learning. When those advantages are considered, there has been a dramatic increase in usage of computers in language learning (Al-Awidi & Ismail, 2014).

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the importance of using technological equipment in language education (Akbulut, 2008; Blake, 2007; Braul, 2006; Levy, 1997). To illustrate, according to Akbulut (2008) technology integrated language classes not only catch students' attention but also increase their motivation. Another advantage is the opportunity to reach a plenty of authentic materials and to interact with native speakers in order to improve learners' proficiency (Iacob, 2009). AbuSeileek (2007) verifies this argument by stating that computer based language activities improves oral abilities of the learners by providing them with a setting to communicate via "e-mail" or "chat" with people from all around the world.

As indicated previously, there is a large volume of published studies describing the importance of using technological equipment in education process. To illustrate, a study conducted by Wang (2007) confirms the significance of technology integrated teaching by suggesting that utilizing technology in classroom improves "productivity and activity" of teachers and also increase the "basic skills and knowledge" of learners. Another study undertaken by Stroia (2012) emphasizes the importance of computerized activities in terms of influencing "the rhythm of the lesson progress". He puts forwards that "the usage of computer-based programs allows every learner to study in his own rhythm, according to his personal characteristics… Some will do it quicker, and others will need more time, but no one will be dependent upon the learning rhythm of his neighbors" (Stroia, 2012, p. 40).

Much of the current literature on technology and language education pays particular attention to the attitudes of teachers towards integration of technology into language teaching. Karakaya (2010) stated

that "without exploring the attitudes of teachers toward technology, it is almost impossible to realize desirable implementation of technology in education" (p. 37). This case study confirms the importance of identifying perceptions of teachers on incorporating technological tools into language learning and teaching process. In the same vein, Zhao and Frank (2003) investigated the technology use in schools and they concluded that teachers have a significant role in technology integration into the classrooms. They (2003) noted that "teachers use computers in ways that address their most direct needs, bring them maximal benefits, do not demand excessive time to learn, and do not require them to reorganize their current teaching practices" (p. 821). In another major study, Tondeur, Hermans, Braak and Valcke (2008) deal with primary school teachers to explore their ideas about using computers in the teaching process. According to their findings, there is a meaningful relationship between teachers' perceptions and their practice in their lessons. The supposition of Tondeur and his friends is that "teachers use computers in ways that are consistent with their personal beliefs, a broader spectrum of educational beliefs might result in a more diverse use of ICT" (Tondeur et al., 2008, p. 2550).

After analyzing the views of teachers about computer technology and its use in language teaching, researchers conduct different studies to reveal the views of students about utilizing computers in their language classrooms. Data from several sources have identified that majority of learners think that computers are beneficial in language learning process. Since learners are important element of teaching and learning process, almost every paper that has been written on technology enhanced learning includes a section relating to their opinions on using computer technology in their learning process. Stepp-Greany (2002) underlined that utilizing technology in class has many advantages for learners and pointed out that "include[d] increased motivation, improvement of self-concept and mastery of basic skills, more student-centered learning and engagement in the learning process, and more active processing, resulting in higher-order thinking skills and better recall" (p. 165). In a previous study conducted by Awad and Alkaraki (2013) to identify "the attitudes of students towards using computers in learning language", it was founded that students have positive views about the using computers in their classes. Moreover, they revealed that factors such as "age" and "gender" affect participants' attitudes. Their outcome indicated that male participants have more positive ideas about utilizing computers. Similarly, the ones who are older also have more positive opinions about using computers in their classroom.

All of the studies reviewed here support the hypothesis that technology implementation into training program affect language learning in a positive way. Additionally, these studies clearly indicate that technology enhanced language learning improves language skills of the learners. Moreover, there is a growing body of literature that recognizes the importance of investigating the viewpoints of prospective teachers about using computer technology in their classes. Since teachers learn how to integrate computer and technology into their classes during university years, it is essential to develop positive attitudes towards computer technology in those years (Teo, 2008). Since teachers have a vital role in implementing technology into classroom; it is significant to know future lecturers' opinions on computer implementation into language training courses. This study; therefore, is useful because it presents the views of pre-service ELT teachers towards adapting computers. An ultimate goal of the present study is to indicate specifically prospective English language teachers' attitudes towards using technology in their classroom in Turkey. That is why; the result of the study will provide current attitudes of prospective English language teachers and also by considering their attitudes, authorities and policymaker can make arrangements in pre-service English language teacher training program related to using technology in teaching language.

1.2. Research questions

The main aim of this study is to uncover prospective English language teachers' opinions about using computer technology in their profession in Turkey. In this regard, following research questions were formulated:

1. What do the participants of the study use computer for?

2. What are future ELT teachers' overall attitudes related to using computers?

3. Is there any relationship between future teachers' attitudes and their gender, GPA and grade levels?

4. Is there any relationship between the participants' attitudes towards computers and computer use in language classes?

2. Method

2.1. Sample / Participants

Participants of this study were 174 pre-service teachers studying at the department of English Language Teaching of Hacettepe University in Ankara. The sample group consisted of 131 (75.3%) female and 43 (24.7%) male students. Among the participants, 25.9 % of them were 3rd grade (n=45), and 74.1 % of them were 4th grade (n=129) students.

The study consisted of third and fourth grade students based on specific purposes. Firstly, 3rd grade students were chosen because they attended courses related language teaching methodology and they had background knowledge about approaches to teaching English language. Moreover, they do micro teaching activities; therefore, they have an experience about teaching English. Secondly, the reason of choosing 4th grade students is that they attended all courses related methodology and teaching principles and also they practiced their teaching skills and strategies both during micro teaching activities and their school experience courses. In this regard, the participants were selected by purposeful sampling.

2.2. Instrument(s)

This study is based on a single questionnaire that is composed of four sections. The first section of questionnaire is related demographic information of participants.

The second section of the questionnaire was about computer use and literacy and students were asked to choose the items to indicate purposes for which they use computer. This part of questionnaire was developed by Karakaya (2010) based on a study titled "teachers' attitudes towards computer technology use in vocabulary instruction" done by Arkın in 2003.

The third part of questionnaire was developed by Albirini (2004) in order to identify the perceptions of participants on computers in general. There were 20 items in 5-point Likert-type scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" in this part of the questionnaire.

The last part of the questionnaire was developed by Albirini (2004) to discover views of participants about using computers in educational purposes. This part consists of "5-point Likert-type scale" with 18 items from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is used in order to point out the reliability of the present questionnaire. According to Dörnyei (2007) "Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is a figure which differs from 0 to +1" and in order to accept items as reliable, "Cronbach Alpha coefficient should be over r=.70" Reliability

coefficient of the questionnaire is found above from the accepted level.   Table 1 presents the results of the reliability analysis.

Table 1. Reliability of scales

	Number of Items	**Cronbach Alpha Coefficient**
3rd part	20	.778
4th part	18	.849
Overall	38	.903

2.3. Data collection procedures

Data were collected in English language teaching department, Hacettepe University by the researcher in fall term of 2016-2017 academic years. After getting the required permission from the school authorities, the questionnaires were administered and collected in four weeks. In addition, researcher asked students to fill out readily-prepared questionnaire consent form in order to inform them about the aim of the work and also privacy of responses.

2.4. Data analysis

In the current study, collected data were analyzed with SPSS 21. After all data entered to SPSS, to address research questions, descriptive and inferential statistics are calculated. In order to analyze data related to background information of participants, frequencies and percentages were used. In the background information part, participants are asked to write their GPA and their responses are categorized as high, mid, low by the researcher. The attitudes of the participants toward computers both in general and in educational setting is treated as depended variable and gender (male, female), grade (3rd and 4th grade) and GPA (high, mid, and, low) is treated as independent variable of the study. In order to find out for what purposes candidate teachers use computers, frequency calculations were used. Correlation statistics was applied to compare participants' attitude toward computer technology and their perceptions of using computers in educational settings. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and independent sample t-tests are used to reveal the effect of the variables such as gender, grade, and GPA of participants on their attitudes.

3. Results

The purpose of current research is to identify the opinions of prospective ELT teachers related to utilization of computers in the process of teaching language. Additionally, factors affecting participants' attitudes are examined. In this chapter, the principle findings of the current investigation are presented.

3.1. The purpose of using computers

Participants are asked to identify the reasons why they use computers in the second part of questionnaire. They can choose more than one item. This part of questionnaire gives an idea about the functions of computers for pre-service English language teachers. The results obtained from the descriptive analysis showed that almost all participants (n=157) use computers for "e-mailing", for "finding materials" (n=166), and for "preparing presentation" (n=164), as well as "online dictionaries" (n= 162). One of the main reasons why teachers utilize e-mails could be that they contact with their

lecturers via emails. Participants also indicate that they use computers for chatting (82.2 %) and shopping online (76.4 %). Only a small number of respondents (N= 5) indicated that they use "MOO/MUD". The reason of this low frequency could be due to lack of knowledge of meaning of MOO and MUD. Moreover, a striking finding is that only 35 out of 174 participants (20.1%) use "course management software". The reason of this could be that their instructors do not use course management software and also they do not encourage them to utilize related software.

3.2. Attitudes toward Computer Technologies in General

Third part of the questionnaire identifies prospective ELT teachers' perception about information and communication technology.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for ICT Scale

Item no	Statements	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
3	I am glad there are more computers these days.	174	4.03	.931
7	Computers save time and effort.	174	4.18	.878
9	Students must use computers in all subject matters.	174	3.39	1.030
12	Computers are a fast and efficient means of getting information.	174	4.28	.778
14	Computers can enhance students learning	174	4.11	.704

Table 2 explicitly demonstrates that prospective English teachers have positive views on "ICT (Information and Communication technology)" in general. For example, when the item 12 is analyzed, it is seen that participants think that computers are effective ways of getting information in short time (M=4.28). Similarly, if item 7 (M=4.18) is examined, it seen that participants agree that computers are time saving. Moreover, the mean value of item 3 is M=4.03, so it displays that participants think it is good to have computers in their lives.

3.3. Computer Attributes Scale

The fourth part of the scale aims to find out the attitudes of participants towards computer technology in general.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for Computer Attributes Scale

Item no	Statements	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Computers improve education.	174	4.19	.612
2	Teaching with computers offers real advantages over traditional methods of instruction	174	4.13	.595

4	Using computer technology makes the subject matter more interesting.	174	4.21	.648
16	Computers have proved to be effective learning tools worldwide.	173	4.10	.755
18	I have seen some of my colleagues use computers for teaching English	174	4.28	.750

The results, as shown in Table 3, indicate that participants have positive opinions about computer technology in general. Candidate teachers agree that quality of education improves with the computers. Item 16 illustrates computers are beneficial in educational purposes. More specifically, according to the item 4, the mean value of it is M= 4.21, participants think that computers make the lesson more interesting.

3.4. The Relationship between candidate ELT teachers' attitudes towards ICT and using computer in educational setting

Table 4 clearly marks that there is a medium correlation between candidate ELT teachers' perceptions about ICT in general and their views of computers in language teaching classrooms (r (174) = .405, p < .01). The magnitude of correlation was calculated as r^2=.16, p<.01.

Table 4. Bivariate correlation analysis results

		1	2
	Pearson Correlation	1	.405[**]
1. Attitudes toward ICT	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	174	174
	Pearson Correlation	.405[**]	1
2. Attitudes towards computers in educational settings	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	174	174

3.5. The Factors Affecting the Pre-service ELT teachers' perceptions

3.5.1. Gender

This study aims to identify whether gender has an effect on prospective ELT teachers' opinions on computer technology.

Table 5. Gender and attitudes towards computers in educational settings

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
female	131	3.1112	.20477	172	-1.810	0.07
male	43	3.1809	.25805			

In order to scrutinize relationship between gender and participants' attitudes towards using computers in educational settings, independent sample t-test was conducted. Closer inspection of the Table 5 shows that there was a significant difference in attitudes of females (*M*=3.11, *SD* =.20) and

males (*M*=3.18, *SD* =.25; *t*(172) =-1.81,*p*>.05,two tailed),with a moderate effect size (Cohen's *d*=.34, Cohen, 1988).

Table 6. Gender and attitudes towards ICT in general

Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
female	131	2.9516	.17029	172	-2.147	0.03
male	43	3.0226	.23528			

An independent sample t-test was used to investigate whether males differ from female respondents in terms of attitude toward ICT in general. It can be seen from the data in Table 6 that there was no significant difference in perceptions of females (M=2.95, *SD* =.17) and males (*M*=3.02, *SD* =.23; *t* (172) =-2.147, *p*<.05, two tailed).

3.5.2. GPA

Students are asked to identify their academic average in first chapter of questionnaire because it was one of the concerns of this study. Students' GPAs are categorized as high, mid, and low according to their responses by researcher. The ones having 3.50 and above GPA were accepted as high achievers. The ones who have 3.00 and 3.49 GPA, they were categorized as mid achiever and finally the ones having 2.99 and less are accepted as low achievers.

Table 7. Anova test result for GPA and attitudes towards ICT general

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.070	2	.035	.971	.381
Within Groups	6.005	166	.036		
Total	6.075	168			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of GPA on participants' attitudes. As can be seen in the Table 7, there was no statically significance at *p*<.05 level between attitudes of participants and their GPA *F* (2-166) =.971, *p*>.05.

Table 8. Anova test result for GPA and attitudes towards computers in education

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.120	2	.060	1.241	.292
Within Groups	8.285	171	.048		
Total	8.405	173			

It is apparent form Table 8 that analysis of the one-way ANOVA did not yield a significant difference at the *p*<.05 level in attitudes towards computers in educational settings for low, mid, and high achievers *F* (2-171) =1.241, *p*>.05.

3.5.3. Grade

The purpose of the study was to identify difference between third and fourth graders attitudes, for that reason, independent sample t-test was applied.

Table 9. Independent t-test results for ICT in general

Grade	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
3rd grade	45	2.9833	.18464	172	.579	.563*
4th grade	129	2.9642	.19256			

Table 10. Independent t-test results for using computers in educational setting

Grade	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
3rd grade	45	3.1099	.16603	172	-.655	.514*
4th grade	129	3.1349	.23670			

As Table 9 and 10 display that an independent sample t-test was used to investigate whether third graders differ from fourth graders in terms of attitude toward ICT in general and their views of computers in classrooms. What stands out in those tables is that the results of t-test did not yield statistically significant difference in both attitudes towards ICT and computers in educational settings.

4. Discussion

In this study, the first research question is related to the teacher candidates' purposes of using computers. The current study pointed out that they use computers in limited way and they do not use more complicated software. A similar result was found by Zhao and Frank (2003) in their previous study. They found out that teachers mostly use computers in order to communicate with their families and to prepare materials for their classes (Zhao & Frank, 2003). They assert that teacher use computers for the activities that do not require too much effort and time. In other words, computers are used mostly for simple activities. One reason of why candidate teachers do not use for more complex applications may be lack of required software in school, and not knowing their convenience, and how to take advantage of them. Another point that was ascertained in current research is that future teachers mostly use computers for social purposes such as chatting and shopping online. This result is in line with the findings of another investigation administered by Akpınar (2003). He stated that computers are not used by most of the primary and secondary teachers' computers for educational function (Akpınar, 2003, as cited in Gilakjani & Leong, 2012, p. 633). Furthermore, when the data is analyzed, it is revealed that only limited number of participants use "course management software". This provides an indication of candidate teachers do not use computer for teaching and learning purposes. However, given this circumstances, it can be argued that the reason of this result is because of the fact that required software programs is not provided by their schools.

Second research question was about overall attitudes of prospective English language teachers towards using computers. When data is analyzed, it is noticed that future ELT teachers have positive viewpoints related using computer technology in education. Almost all of the participants proved that they use computers for "finding material" and "preparing presentation" and this result suggests that there is a consistency between their practices and believes. Moreover, the findings clearly indicated that candidate teachers accept computers as fast and time saving tools to access information. They also

presume that computers are favorable not only for language teaching but also for the other educational fields. This result matches with the findings of previous study conducted by Çapan (2012) investigating "Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes towards computer use" in classes. He confirmed that English teachers, in Turkey, have significantly positive attitudes on computers. Moreover, in other study carried out by Razak and Eswaran in 2010, it was affirmed not only teachers but also students have positive attitudes towards computer usage in language learning and they want to integrate them into their classroom activities. In the current study, participants assert that "they can easily operate computer applications" and also "they are eager to learn more computers". It could be because of the fact that they have ability to operate only basic functions of computers like sending e-mail, preparing presentation, and using online dictionaries. Moreover, this could be because of the fact that they feel incompetent in using more complicated computer programs; therefore, they want to learn more about them. This is corresponding with Erdemir, Bakırcı & Eyduran' (2009) finding that although pre-service teacher can perform simple and basic tasks with computer, they feel inadequate for using complex computer technologies (as cited in Gilakjani & Leong, 2012, p. 633,634).

Determining the effects of gender on perceptions of candidate English teachers is one of the purposes of this study. Independent sample T-test results show that males have more positive perceptions on computer in general; however, there is not any significance difference in participants' attitudes towards using computer technologies in language education in matter of gender. Similar results were yielded by Sarıçoban (2013). He conducted a study with 95 pre-service ELT teachers to identify "the attitudes of pre-service Turkish teachers towards computer use". In that study, he asserted that there is no significant relation between candidate teachers' gender and their opinions about computer technology. In the present study, in a similar vein, it is found that both female and male teacher candidates have positive opinions about technology adaptation in language classroom. This could be explained that today, computers are used in a great extend in language learning and for that reason the negative attitudes towards them have changed. The reason of this result according to Ray et al. (1999) is that "females may have been socialized differently in today's computer generation to be more comfortable with computers and this may have resulted in lessening the barriers perceived by females, in the lack of training opportunities for them" (as cited in Teo, 2008, p.420)

In the current study, researcher aims to identify whether respondents' ideas differ with regard to their GPA. ANOVA test results clearly indicate that prospective ELT teachers' opinions do not differ according to their academic average. Because of the fact that there is not any balance in the number of participants considering their GPA, there is no significant change according to participants' academic achievements. In other words, both successful and less successful participants agree that using computers increase quality of teaching and learning. This could be explained that "Ministry of National Education" makes radical changes in the language teaching policy and supports "technology enhanced language learning" in recent years, for that reason, all students realized the importance of computer based language learning and impact their views in a positive way. Moreover, since most of the participants use computers actively for different purposes in their courses, especially during their micro teachings, they may not have any fear about how to adapt computers in to curriculum. It is obvious that regardless from their academic success, all participants feel confident about implementing technology successfully into educational settings. In addition, the participants of the study can be described as digital natives which is defined as "native speakers' of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet" (Prensky, 2001a, p. 1). This is because candidate teachers do not scare from computers and believe the benefit of them in education even if they have lower academic achievement in their schools.

On the question of whether participants' grade has an effect on their attitudes, this study found that there is not any significant difference among third and fourth graders' attitudes. Both third and fourth

graders do micro teaching activities in their courses and that is why, they have chance to experience the real teaching context. During their micro teaching activities, most of the time, they utilize computer based activities in almost all stages of lesson to fulfill their objectives. This could be reason they all agree that "using computer technology makes the subject matter more interesting" (M=4.21), "teaching with computers offers real advantages over traditional methods of instruction" (M=4.13). In literature there are studies showing that there is a relationship between participants' years of experience with computer and their conceptions (Sarıçoban, 2013). However, in this study, since the age and grade levels are close to each other, it is reasonable not having any difference among their opinions. As stated above, since the participants can be called as "digital natives", owing to their age, they can effectively use technology and they can adapt them into in their real classroom. Moreover, when the descriptive results are scrutinized, it can be inferred that they can understand "the basic functions of computer" (M=4.07). This statement verifies the supposition that without considering grade levels of them, prospective teachers can operate computers easily in class.

The present study also revealed that there is a positive correlation between future ELT teachers' perceptions about information and communication technologies in general and their perception on computers in language teaching classrooms. To clarify, if future teachers have positive opinions on computers in general, they believe the advantages of them in educational settings and they want to benefit them in their future classroom. These results corroborate with the ideas of Higgings and Moseley (2008), who suggested that teachers utilize computer technologies because it suits their existing beliefs and conceptions (as cited in Tondeur et al., 2008, p. 2544). Moreover, Tondeur et al. (2008) mentioned teacher beliefs and their frequency of using technological devices in classroom have a correlation. Teachers having positive beliefs use computers in language teaching process more frequent. A possible explanation for this might be that the prospective teachers get courses about computer technology; these courses may affect their opinions about technology integration positively because they have learned how to implement them into their courses. Almost all of them stated that they plan to use computers in their future classes. It can be inferred that teacher candidates want to implement computerized activities in future and they feel relax in the process of implementation of computers.

5. Conclusions

In the current study, it was found that prospective ELT teachers have positive attitudes towards integrating computer technology into language classroom. It was also discovered that participants mostly use computers for sending e-mail, finding materials related to their courses, and preparing presentations, as well as social purposes such as chatting and shopping online. That is to say, they do not use programs requiring advanced computer knowledge. Brown (2001) states that "[t]he practical applications of computer-assisted language learning are growing at such a rapid pace that it is almost impossible for a classroom teacher to keep up with the field" (p. 145). That is why, it can be inferred that prospective ELT teachers need to get training about integration of technology into language teaching. For that reason, English language teaching programs need to add courses related language teaching and technology for undergraduate students. Since participants will be appointed as the teachers in near future, developing positive opinions about technology is important so that they can implement technological tools into their courses.

Moreover, instructors can motivate students to implement technology into their courses and illustrate them how to integrate computer assisted materials in language classes because it is known that when teacher get training about technology integration during their undergraduate years, their

frequency of using computer increases. Wozney et al. (2006) confirms this idea by stating "the amount of technology-related in-service training was significantly related to computer use in the classroom. Teachers in our study generally reported the need for in-service training" (p. 194).

It is found that prospective teachers are eager to implement technological tools into teaching process but the important issue is how to adapt them into classroom. That is why; they need to get training about technology integration both in pre-service and in-service years. Moreover, future teachers need to be encouraged to use computers. Keeping the conclusions in mind, the study is not free from limitations. The current study is conducted only by using quantitative research method. Quantitative studies are not enough to identify perceptions and attitudes of participants. Therefore, in order to have better results, a further study can be conducted with students from different universities by administering a mixed method research. After the researcher collects data about the perceptions of participants with a questionnaire, s/he can interview the participants to identify factors affecting their perceptions.

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Öğretmen adaylarının yabancı dil öğretiminde bilgisayar teknolojilerini kullanma yönündeki tutumlarının incelenmesi

Öz

Mevcut araştırmanın temel amacı, gelecekteki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dil öğretiminde bilgisayar teknolojilerini kullanma konusundaki tutumlarını araştırmaktır. Ayrıca, çalışma cinsiyet, sınıf ve akademik ortalamanın, öğrencilerin tutumları üzerine etkilerine odaklanmaktadır. Araştırmada nicel araştırma tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Veriler, bir devlet üniversitesinden, İngilizce dil öğretim bölümünde eğitim gören öğretmen adaylarına dağıtılan anketler ile toplanmıştır. Çalışmaya üçüncü ve dördüncü sınıfta okuyan 174 öğrenci katılmıştır. Toplanan verilerin analizi, aday öğretmen adaylarının dil öğretiminde bilgisayar kullanımı hakkında olumlu görüşlere sahip olduklarını açıkça göstermektedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların tutumları ile cinsiyetleri, sınıfları, ve akademik ortalamaları arasında herhangi bir ilişki bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Araştırmanın sonuçları, aday öğretmenin bilgisayarları çoğunlukla e-posta göndermek ve sunum yapmak gibi basit görevler için kullandığını göstermektedir. Aday öğretmenler, bilgisayar destekli dil öğrenmenin öneminin farkındadır.　Aday öğretmenlerin gelecekteki sınıflarında teknolojiyi etkili bir şekilde kullanmayı öğrenebilmeleri için, öğretmen yetiştirme programlarında, bilgisayar entegrasyonu ile ilgili dersler sunulmalıdır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Hizmet öncesi öğretmen adayları; tutum; bilgisayar kullanımı; yabancı dil eğitimi

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Subtitling allusions from English to Turkish: Study of *the Simpsons movie*

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Abstract

Allusion, within the framework of intertextuality, is treated as a special topic in audiovisual translation studies when the restrictions such as technical, linguistic, and cultural constraints specific to audiovisual translation are considered. Allusion as a culture-bound element can pose significant problems in interlingual translations. For this reason, the ability to maintain the functions and connotations of allusions requires the use of appropriate translation strategies. The main purpose of this study is to analyze the strategies used for subtitling allusions from English to Turkish in The Simpsons Movie, which is considerably rich in allusion. Leppihalme's (1997) classification of the various translation strategies will be employed as a framework for the study. A quantitative analysis will be performed and several examples from the film that are included in the corpus will be discussed. More specifically, the ideal goal of this study is to find out whether the use of those strategies has led the translations toward foreignization or domestication.

Keywords: Subtitling; allusion translation; intertextuality; domestication; foreignization

1. Introduction

In any case of transfer from one language into another, translators inevitably face a number of difficulties among which the translation of allusions poses a special challenge. A particularly significant quality of allusions is that they are usually culture-bound and so necessitate culture-specific background information. This increases the pressure on the translator in his/her attempt to make a text understandable for a totally different group of people with their distinct way of thinking, language and culture.

Translating cultural items have been a subject of serious debate within translation studies. As Hatim and Mason (1990) put it, several factors such as the mediator, time, purpose, place, and the circumstances are important to consider in the act of translation. As Kristeva (1969) suggests a text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations, and the total meaning of a text consists in its relationship with other texts. When the fact of intertextuality is considered, it is seen that no text is isolated and exists on its own. All texts are somehow interrelated and make references to one another whether that is explicit or implicit. For this reason, it is highly essential for the translator to grasp the source text well

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and render it comprehensible to the target audience. In such intertextual grid in which there is not a single text which is completely independent and isolated, allusions have a special place to be considered attentively.

1.1. Literature review

According to Montgomery (2000: 161), "allusion is a form of intertexuality that works largely through verbal echoes between texts". Abrams and Harpham (2012: 12) define allusion as "a passing reference without explicit identification, to a literary or historical person, place, or to another literary work or passage". Allusions can be based upon the fact that the meaning it carries and the possible connotations they accommodate is shared commonly by the sender and the receiver as they are the members of the same cultural unity. They can be used simply either as a means to add up to the meaning of a text or in a more complex manner to make an ironic comment by making references to something disparate. Irwin (2002: 521) defines allusion as "a reference which is indirect in the sense that it calls for associations which go beyond mere substitution of a referent. Allusions typically draw on information not readily available to every member of a cultural and linguistic community, are typically but not necessarily brief, and may or may not be literary in nature". The unique characteristic of allusive expressions is that they are adhered to the culture in which they are produced, and thus they demand culture-specific knowledge for a full understanding.

Due to the specific implications embedded in the culture they have evolved out of and the language in which they are used, translating allusions is a challenging task. To this end, it is significant to choose appropriate strategies while transferring such connotational meanings into the target culture. Bearing in mind that culture-loaded quality of allusions and the translator's endeavor in creating a similar effect on the target audience, it is a crystal clear fact that translating allusive expressions into another language of another culture is a demanding task on the part of the translator. Depending on the type and significance of the allusion for its implications, translator may choose, in the most general sense, to adopt one of the two major tendencies suggested by Lawrence Venuti: 'foreignization' or 'domestication'.

However, the problem for translators to transfer culture-bound intertextual references embedded in allusions into the target language is further enhanced in audiovisual translation. "Audiovisual language transfer" denotes the process by which a film or television program is made comprehensible to the target audience that is unfamiliar with the original source language" (Luyken, 1991: 11). The most widespread forms of audiovisual translation being subtitling and dubbing, this subject of rendering allusions has been recognized as one of the most problematic issues in subtitling. It is especially relevant in the case of popular movies since they make use of numerous elements of allusions, which are employed to give color and substance to characterization and plot development, and appropriate translation of such elements are necessary to create the intended effect on viewers. Most movies are abundant in allusions derived from diverse areas, such as mythology, history, religion, politics and literature. The impact of source text mostly depends on the target audience's involvement in what they see. Therefore, rendering allusions comprehensible and immediately available for the target audience requires a meticulous work. O'Connell (2000: 169) defines subtitling as "supplementing the original voice soundtrack by adding written text on screen" and dubbing is "replacing the original voice soundtrack with another voice in another language". What makes subtitling different from other types of translation is that it involves both technical and textual constraints. To make it clear, textual constraints are those imposed on the subtitles by the visual context of the film, whereas formal constraints are the space factors (a maximum of 2 lines and 35 characters) and the time factor (cited in Spanakaki, 2007).

The development of audiovisual technologies and the increase in interaction between different cultures have increased the attention paid to multimedia translation since the late 1990s. Baranauskienė and Blaževičienė (2008: 14) highlight that "The situation of audiovisual translation is in its infancy and undergoes the process of formation in the world". Gambier and Gottlieb (2001) maintain that due to lack of systemic theoretical frames and methodological tools, research in subtitling is rather laborious. There are some works that discuss translation for subtitling (Karamitroglou, 1998; Schwarz, 2002; Spanakaki, 2007), but more research is needed in subtitling allusive expressions. In this recpect, the present study aims to investigate the translator's choice of strategies in subtitling allusions from source language into target language to see whether those strategies serve the purpose of domestication or foreignization.

1.2. Research questions

Apparently, there have been many theories applied extensively in the field of translation; but there are very few researchers carried out in subtitling allusion (Bertell, 2014; Liu & Jia, 2014; Jazmawi, 2013; Salehi, 2013; Hellgren, 2007). The area of subtitling allusions is also rarely studied in audiovisual translation in Turkey; therefore this research aims to open up the field, as well as being directly applicable to translation training. This article explores the translation of allusions in subtitling from English into Turkish. This paper focuses on the translation of allusions in film subtitles and aims to answer the following questions:

1. Which strategy/strategies are frequently used in translation of allusions in Turkish subtitles?

2. Do the translation strategies which are used to translate allusive expressions lead the translation toward faithfulness to the source text (foreignization) or the target text reader (domestication)?

2. Method

2.1. Corpus

The corpus of the study consists of a body of allusions taken from a popular animated comedy film The Simpsons Movie, which is the only theatrical movie adaptation based upon the animated sitcom with the same name The Simpsons- the longest running animated series of all time. The Simpsons Movie has attained a big part in film history, and it has become an extraordinary phenomenon around the world with an estimated budget of 75,000,000. The movie, which was produced by Gracie Films for 20th Century Fox, and directed by David Silverman in 2007, was nominated for the Golden Globe Award for Best Animated Film in the same year. The Simpsons Movie characterizes the life of a fictional middle-class American family consisting of two adults and three children. In this fun-filled blockbuster production, Homer, with his usual clumsiness, this time gets the Springfield residents into trouble. Having undertaken the task of saving the world, Homer also has to deal with events that have been going around his family.

The main reason for choosing this film is that animation films are often rich in allusions and The Simpsons Movie contains a number of significant allusions that contribute to the humor and plot development. Biguenet (1998: 132) draws attention to the prevalence and diversity of strategies in using allusions in films; "though one might expect the construction of visual images to serve as the fundamental mechanism of alluding in films, the various forms of literary allusion are frequently employed [like allusions to classic literary works, popular culture, or cinematic allusions like a reference to a well-known character or scene from another film]". Among the many reasons why fans continue to view and review The Simpsons is the show's rich and clever use of allusion" (Irwin,

Conard, & Skoble, 2001). One can find several allusions in any episode of the series that is full of cultural references, and that is also the case with The Simpsons Movie which establishes intertextual connections throughout.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

As a framework for the study, Leppihalme's (1997) proposed strategies for translating allusions, and the notions of foreignization and domestication put forward by Venuti (1995) are used. In the first place, Leppihalme (1997) divides allusions into two major groups: proper name (PN) allusions in which a real or a fictional name is mentioned, and key phrase (KP) allusions which include phrases that refer to a name that is not mentioned explicitly in the given phrase. Leppihalme (1997) suggests that proper name (PN) allusions can be names of real-life or fictional figures, titles of literary works, organizations and so on. Key-phrase (KP) allusions, on the other hand, do not include a name but proverbs, slogans, tales, popular beliefs and stories, songs, and nursery rhymes. According to Leppihalme (1997), although the translation of PN and KP allusions share some common characteristics in general such as keeping the allusion as it is, making some changes, or omitting allusion completely, KP and PN allusions also display certain differences by nature. While it is mostly possible to keep PN unaltered, KP allusions may necessitate changes in phrasing to some extent. The techniques proposed by Leppihalme (1997) in the translation of proper name (PN) allusions and key phrase (KP) allusions are shown respectively in the Figure 1 and Figure 2 below:

Figure 1. Strategies for translating PN Allusions

KEY PHRASE ALLUSIONS

- Use standard translation
- Literal translation
- Add extra allusive guidance to the text
- Additional information via footnotes, endnotes
- features indicating the presence of borrowed words
- Replace with a performed TL item
- Rephrase the allusion with an overt expression of its meaning
- Recreation; creatively constructing a passage that reproduces its effect
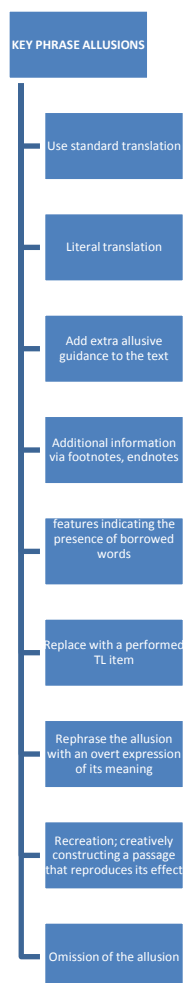- Omission of the allusion

Figure 2. Strategies for translating KP Allusions

The very basis of translation is to transfer a piece of information expressed in one language into another one. However, it may never as easy as it sounds since as long as language is concerned, there arises the issue of culture. Therefore, as an intercultural activity, translation entails choosing proper strategies. The debates over the function and feasibility of translation studies have mainly focused on two major notions: domestication, which aims to bring the translated text as close as possible to the target culture, and foreignization, which means receiving the foreign as foreign.

These two strategies, suggested by Venuti (1995) as possible approaches to deal with culture-specific elements in translation, are mainly concerned with the extent to which translators render the text correspond to the source culture. According to Venuti (1995), while domestication is "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values, bring the author back home", foregnization refers to "an ethnodeviant pressure on those (cultural) values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad." (p. 20) Schleiermacher (1813) defines the procedures under discussion as the choice of the translator; "either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him". (in Venuti, 1995; p.19)

2.3. Procedure and Data Analysis

This study is a descriptive research that aims to find out the strategies used in subtitling allusions in The Simpsons Movie. Firstly, the film under study has been watched carefully to find out utterances that include allusions. The meaningful units of language that were considered allusive and intertextual in nature were marked in the source language, English, and then extracted in the Turkish subtitles. In accordance with Leppihalme (1997)'s categorization, the allusions were classified as proper name (PN) allusions and key phrase (KP) allusions. Those allusions in the source text are then compared with their translated forms in Turkish subtitles in order to see what kinds of strategies are used in the transference of allusive expressions. Furthermore, the most and the least frequent strategies in dealing with allusions are listed. As a final step, it is discussed whether the indentified strategies reflect domestication or foreignization – two concepts postulated by Venuti (1995).

To put it in a nutshell, the steps taken in the analysis include the identification of allusive utterances in the source text (ST); classifying ST allusions in terms of KP and PN; determining translated allusions in the target text (TT); identifying translation strategies employed; making quantitative and qualitative analysis; and drawing conclusions.

3. Results & Discussions

This section presents the quantitative data of the research collected and classified into a table based on Leppihalme's KP and PN allusions. In the movie that was analyzed, a total of 49 allusions were found. Not only the verbal allusions but also the non-verbal allusions in the forms of symbols, signs, emblems, music without lyrics present in the movie plays a significant role in viewers' grasping the story and enjoying the fun elements conveyed through several scenes that include close intertextual connections. Below are the percentages of KP and PN allusions as well as non-verbal allusions derived from The Simpsons Movie.
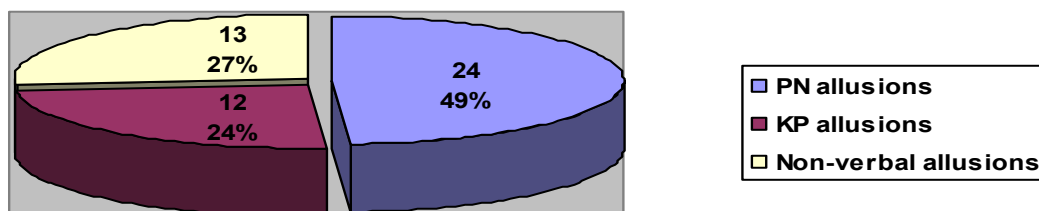

Figure 3. Number & percentage of the allusions in the corpus

As it is seen above, 49 % of the data are PN allusions (n=24), while 24 % are KP allusions (n=12), and 27 % are non-verbal allusions (n=13). While 85,7 % of these allusions depend on verbal /auditory channel (n=42), 14,3 % of them are related to visual channel (n=7).

3.1. Use of translation strategies

Most of the translation strategies proposed by Leppihalme was used in subtitling of the allusions in The Simpsons Movie. Following the sections PN and KP allusions are presented, a separate section on non-verbal allusions is also added. The analysis does not take repeated allusions, which sometimes appear simultaneously in the forms of verbal/visual and verbal/auditory channels, into account. In such cases, priority is given to verbal/auditory allusions as they are subtitled. Figure 4 & 5 below present the number of times and percentage of each strategy used in subtitling PN and KP allusions.
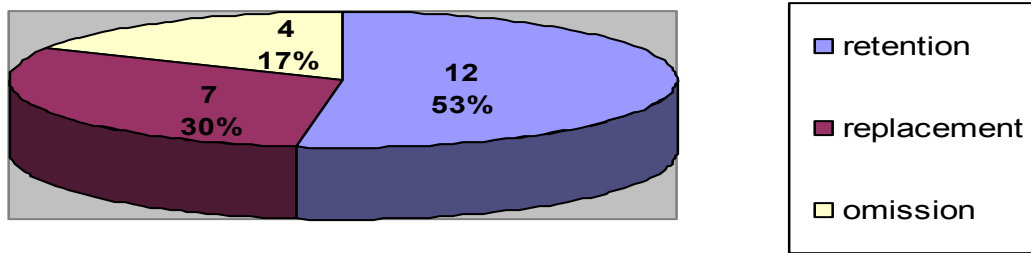
Figure 4. Translation strategies used for PN allusions in the corpus

Figure 4 shows that PN allusions are retained in 53 % of instances (n=12) while 30 % are replaced by another SL name or TL name (n=7), and 17 % of them are omitted either completely or partially.
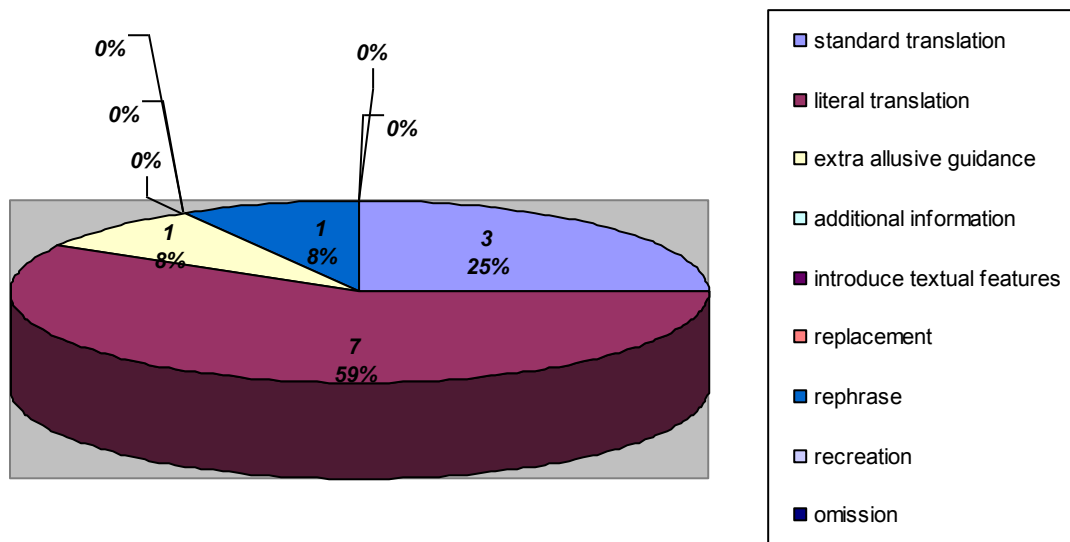

Figure 5. Translation strategies used for KP allusions in the corpus

As it is seen in Figure 5, some of the translation strategies listed by Leppihalme are not used in subtitling The Simpsons Movie at all. The most popular strategy in translating KP allusions is literal translation in 59 % of the instances (n=7), and it is followed by standard translation in 25 % instances (n=3), extra allusive guidance (8 %; n=1), and rephrasing the allusion (8 %; n=1).

3.1.1. Proper Name Allusions

When the highly political and cultural essence of the movie is considered, it can be said that nearly every character in *The Simpsons Movie* is a kind of reference to someone. According to Leppihalme, translator has basically three choices in translating PN allusions: keep the name unchanged, change it, or omit it completely. The proper name allusions from the movie under study are listed in Table 1. It is clear that various translation strategies are employed in order to render the allusions in the subtitles.

Table 1. Proper name allusions in *The Simpsons Movie*

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
President Schwarzenegger	Between the years 2003-2011, Arnold Schwarzenegger, who has been a famous Hollywood actor, served as a mayor in California. His being the president in the movie is a clear reference to this fact.	**Başkan Schwarzenegger**	retention of the name (using the name as such)
Trappuccino (the name of a crisis in Springfield as reported by Kent Brockman –news reporter)	This may be a spoof on the coffee drink Frappuccino. This metaphor is further enhanced by the scene which depicts Springfield under a dome upon a huge typical frappucino coffee cup.	**Tuzakpuçino**	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
Tom Hanks: Hello, I'm **Tom Hanks**! The U.S. government has lost its credibility, so it borrows some of mine. "This is **Tom Hanks**, saying: If you see me in person, please, leave me be."	As one of the most famous Hollywood actors, Tom Hanks, who is well-known among many cinemagoers, appears here as satirical remark on the lack of confidence that citizens hold for the government. According to a poll that was published by an American magazine, Reader's Digest, Tom Hanks was voted the United State's most trusted person mostly by virtue of embodying American values in many films.	Merhaba, ben Tom Hanks! ABD hükümeti güvenirliğini kaybetti, bu yüzden benimkini ödünç alıyor. "Ben Tom Hanks, şunu söylüyorum: Beni şahsen görürseniz, rahat bırakın."	retention of the name (using the name as such) retention of the name (using the name as such)
Itchty! Itchy!	Returning to his country after having defeated the cat, the mouse Itchy is welcomed by his supporters by acclamation "Itchy! Itchy!".The *Itchy & Scratchy Show* is an animated TV show featured in the TV series *The Simpsons.* It tells the violent war between the cat *Scratchy* and the mouse *Itchy.*	**Itchty! Itchy!**	retention of the name (using the name as such)
EPA	EPA is the abbreviated form of U.S. Environmental Protection Agency which is in charge or protecting the environment and human health.	The first time EPA is uttered by the grandpa in the church, it is left untranslated. Only in the later scenes, it is translated as **ÇKT.**	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
"And so nobody else gets out. I want	Death squad is a term used for describing an unofficial armed group that look for and kill	Başka kaçan olmasın diye	omission of the name

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
roving death squads around the perimeter 24/7."	certain people, especially the ones who are opposed to a political party.	**devriyeler** 7 gün 24 saat nöbet tutacak.	(omitting the name and allusion altogether)
Homer: He's not Spider-Pig anymore, he's Harry Plopper.	By naming his pet-pig Harry Plopper and dressing him in round glasses and with a scar in the shape of a lightning bolt, Homer alludes to *Harry Potter*.	Artık Örümcek-Domuz değil o… **Harry Plopper.**	retention of the name (using the name as such)
"Hey, hey! It's your old pal Krusty, for my new pork sandwich, the **Klogger**."	Krusty Burger publicizes a new product called 'Klogger', which is a reference to Burger King's 'Whopper'.	"Hey! Ben eski dostunuz Krusty, bu da yeni domuzlu sandviçim **Kalp Durduran.**"	omission of the name (transferring the sense by other means)
Dome Depot	This commercial name can be seen as a mocking of the store Home Depot.	**Kubbe Kur**	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
"How you doing? Peace be with you. Praise **Jebus**!"	Wordplay on the phrase 'Jesus Christ' to express anger, disappointment, surprise to a person or event.	"Nasılsınız? Barış sizinle olsun. **Misa**'ya şükürler olsun!"	omission of the name (omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means)
"Homer, I don't mean to be a **Nervous Pervis** but if he falls, couldn't that make your boy a paraplege-arino?"	This allusion refers to a former professional NBA player, Pervis Ellison who was given the nickname " Never Nervous Pervis".	"Homer, **felaket tellallığı** olmasın ama oğlun oradan düşerse felç felan olup, yatalak olmaz mı acaba?"	omission of the name (omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means)
Colin: Moved from Ireland. My dad's a musician. Lisa: Is he...? Colin: He's not **Bono**. Lisa: I just thought, because you're Irish	This allusion reminds the viewers of Bono, the lead singer of the famous Irish rock band U2. Having been a humanitarian and an activist, he is known for campaigning with GREENPEACE against nuclear power plant.	Colin: İrlanda'dan geldim. Babam müzisyen. Lisa: Yoksa o…? Colin: Ama **Bono** değil. Lisa: İrlanda'dan dediğine göre	retention of the name (using the name as such)

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
and... Colin: He's not **Bono.**		belki… Colin: **Bono** değil.	
"I believe it's the sound the **Green Lantern** made when **Sinestro** threw him into a vat of acid."	This allusion apparently recalls the 2011 movie Green Lantern in which Sinestro, a fictional character, appears as the nemesis of the green lantern.	"**Sinestro**, asit dolu fıçıya attığında **Yeşil Fener**'den çıkan ses sanırım."	retention of the name (using the name as such) replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
"**Are you smarter than a celebrity?**" Wednesdays on FOX	This game show is a parody of "Are you smarter than a fifth grader?"	"**Bir ünlüden daha mı akıllısın?**" Çarşamba FOX TV'de	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
Cleitus	There is a reference to Cleitus, also known as 'the Black', who was a Macedonian officer who saved the life of Alexander the Great at the battle of the Granicus in 334 BC.	**Cleitus**	retention of the name (using the name as such)
Russ Cargill, head of the EPA, here to see the president.	It is possible to make such an inference that Russ Cargill alludes to Al Gore, Bill Clinton's Vice President, since both Russ Cargill and Al Gore are environmentalists.	**Russ Cargill**, ÇKT Müdürü, sayın Başkan'ı görmeye geldim.	retention of the name (using the name as such)
The President: I hate this job. Everything's "crisis" this and "end of the world" that. The President: Nobody opens with a joke. I miss **Danny De Vito.**	This shout-out to Danny De Vito, an American actor and producer, is a reference to Schwarzenegger's background as an actor who, together with Danny De Vito, starred in comedy films such as Twins, Triplets, Junior.	Bu görevden nefret ediyorum. Her şey "kriz" ve "dünyanın sonu". Şaka yapan yok. **Danny De Vito**'yu özledim.	retention of the name (using the name as such)
Bart: **Geronimo!** Lisa: **Sacajawea!**	The names of two famous Native Americans who played a significant role in the history of the United States. GERONIMO meaning "the one who yawns" SACAJAWEA meaning "Bird-woman"	- **Geronimo!** - **Sacajawea!**	retention of the name (using the name as such)

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
Let's discuss **Tuesdays with Morrie.**	In Springfield Book Club, a reference is made to a cult book named *Tuesdays with Morrie* written by an American writer Mitch Albom in which a journalist questions his own life and gets some advice from his close friend for handling relationships and society.	*Morrie ile Salılar*'ı tartışalım.	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by a TL name)
"Are you tired of the same old **Grand Canyon**? " … -"Here we are, kids, the **Grand Canyon**."	'Grand Canyon' is mentioned so as to hint at the possible future of the town of Springfield. As Russ Cargill plans to explode the town under dome, the final state of Springfield would mostly look like a large hollow similar to Grand Canyon.	"Hep aynı eski **Grand Canyon**'u görmekten bıktınız mı?" … - "İşte geldik çocuklar. **Grand Canyon**."	retention of the name (using the name as such)
Homer: It was during **Access Hollywood.**	*Access Hollywood* is an American TV program on celebrity news, gossips, and behind the scenes stories from Hollywood.	*Access Hollywood* sırasında.	retention of the name (using the name as such)
Russ Cargill: There's two things they don't teach you at **Harvard Business School.**	Harvard Business School, in Boston, United States, is one of the most prestigious graduate business schools in the world.	**Harvard**'da öğretilmeyen iki şey var.	replacement of the name by another (replacing the name by another SL name)

3.1.2. Key Phrase Allusions

KP allusions can be said to encompass all other allusions which do not include a proper name such as the name of a real life or fictional characters, names of organizations, and titles of works etc. In *The Simpsons Movie*, a careful and a well-versed viewer can also identify several key phrase allusions significant to the plot. Some of those key phrase allusions from the movie under study are listed in Table 2. It is clear that various translation strategies are employed in order to render the allusions in the subtitles.

Table 2. Key phrase allusions in *The Simpsons Movie*

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
The police: "Well, **they are China's problem now**."	There is a common belief among children in North America that if they keep digging a hole on the ground, they can reach the other side of the world, which is believed to be China.	"**Artık onlarla Çinliler uğraşsın**."	standard translation
Milhouse: "It's a myth! **Further study is needed!**"	This stereotyped expression is a reference to scientific researches and projects.	"Palavra. **Daha çok araştırma gerekli**."	literal tranlation
"**Spider-Pig, Spider-Pig, / Does whatever a Spider-Pig does. / Can he swing from a web? / No, he can't, he's a pig, / Look out, he is a Spider-Pig!**"	The Spider-Pig song that Homer recites for his pig makes an intertextual connection to the theme song of Spider Man cartoon on a mocking level.	"**Örümcek-Domuz, Örümcek-Domuz,/Bir örümceğin yaptığı her şeyi yapar./ Uçar mı, kaçar mı?/ Hayır, yapamaz; o bir domuz,/Dikkat, o bir Örümcek- Domuz!**"	literal translation
"**Gentlemen, It's been an honor playing with you tonight.**"	Titanic allusion	"**Beyler, bu gece sizlerle çalmak bir onurdu.**"	literal translation
- **Black? That's the worst color there is**. No offense there, Carl. - I get it all the time.	Lenny utters an apparent racist remark when the Mayor declares a state of emergency with the code black. The wordplay on 'black' here alludes to the discrimination Black people have faced in the States for many years due to racism in America.	-**Siyah mı? Bu en berbat renk**. Alınma Carl. -Alıştık artık.	literal translation
President Schwarzenneger: "**Ja**,that is me."	The use of a German word instead of saying 'yes' could be a reference to Austrian origin of Schwarzenegger.	*Ja, o ben oluyorum.*	extra allusive guidance added
"If I stay, I'm trapped. If I leave, I'm alone. Oh, God. In, out, in, out! **I never saw Venice.**"	This line of a dialogue about seeing Venice is an allusion to Deatch to Smoochy, a dark comedy about a former child's television host.	"Kalırsam tuzağa düşerim. Gidersem yalnızım. İçeri, dışarı, içeri, dışarı. **Venediği bile görmedim daha.**"	standard translation
Homer: " Maggie! **What a great accident you turned out to be**."	This statement of Homer's to Maggie following her overpowering Russ Cargill by throwing a rock onto him is a reference to the thirteenth episode of *The Simpsons'* sixth season, *And Maggie Makes Three*, which includes	Maggie! **Kaza olmuştur diyordum ama iyi ki doğmuşsun.**	standard translation

Source language (English)	Allusion	Target language (Turkish)	Translation strategy
	the story of Maggie's unplanned conception.		
Lisa Simpson Presents: **An Irritating Truth**	The name of the lecture Lisa gives at Springfield Town Hall brings Al Gore's documentary, An Inconvenient Truth, to the minds.	Lisa Simpson Sunuyor: **Gıcık Edici Bir Gerçek**	literal translation
Nome sweet nome	This simple wordplay acts as a reference to the common saying 'Home sweet home". As Simpsons have moved to Alaska / Nome where they repeatedly talk about being happy and feel home, Marge knits the words as such – using Nome instead of Home.	**Evim, güzel evim**	rephrase the allusion
I'll have to go back to **making family comedies. Diaper Genie**	This statement refers to the acting career of Mr. Schwarzenegger. His background in family movies is further enhanced by his casting a glance over a poser on his office wall that advertises 'Diaper Genie', a baby diaper disposal system.	**Komedi filmlerine** geri dönmem gerekecek. **Bebek Bezi Cini**	literal translation literal translation

3.2. Non-verbal allusions

As stated earlier, there are also a number of non-verbal allusions present in The Simpsons movie. Some of them are displayed as the background music, a glimpse of a sign, or an imitation or a reproduction of another movie scene in a new context. Unveiling such intertextual connections, or stated in other words, the allusive meanings depends mostly on viewers' extensive world knowledge - or rather familiarity with American culture within this context, as these non-verbal allusions emain untranslated, and there is no footnote or assistance is provided for viewers who are not familiar with the source culture.

In the first place, music is one of the most common techniques to create a non-verbal allusion in movies. For example, at the beginning of the movie, the band Green Day play "Nearer, My God, to Thee" on violins while their barge is sinking due to pollution in the lake Springfield, a reference to the film Titanic and to the last song that was played on the real ship. At the funeral of the Green Day in Springfield church, a funeral version of the rock band's song American Idiot is played. In a similar vein, another non-verbal allusion created through background music is the one that is seen when Itchy is in thoughts. The music that plays then creates an intertextual link to the movie Halloween (1987) in which the same melody is heard in the scene that the character massacres people with a chainsaw. The Springfield anthem played during the end credits of the movie is a parodic allusion to French national anthem, La Marseillaise, since it shares the same music with it. Yet as a matter of course, the lyrics are totally fictitious.

Secondly, imitating well-known scenes, or the use of objects or signs in the background like posters, banners which mostly remain untranslated, can be rendered as non-verbal allusions. In the scene where Bart is riding his skateboard naked around the city, several passing objects are used to cover the private part of his body. This makes an analogy with the film Austin Powers: International

Man of Mystery, which uses identical techniques. Towards the end of this scene, Bart comes into sight with a piece of leaf covering his genital is a direct Biblical reference to Adam.

It is seen that Homer plays Grand Theft Walrus, which is an allusion to a popular video game Grand Theft Auto. In the same video game, the shooting of a dancing penguin by a walrus is an allusion to the Australian-American computer-animated movie Happy Feet.

On the posters supporters hold in their welcoming the hero Itchy, the name Hillary as the vice-president is seen. This is a direct reference to Hillary Clinton who used to be a U.S. Democratic Presidential candidate.
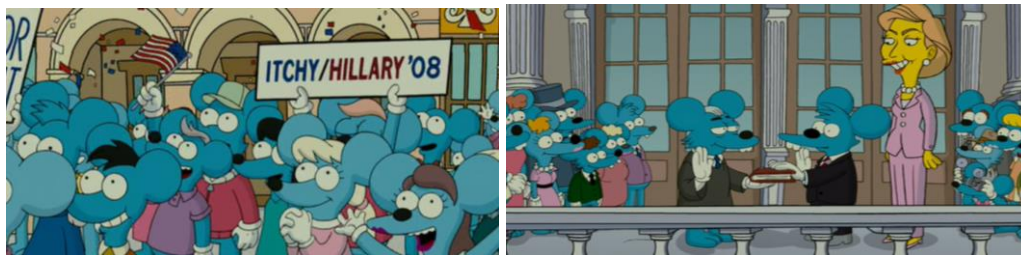
The love scene between Marge and Homer in the cottage where several animals in Disney style in a Disney style ambience help the couple undress could be interpreted as a spoof on Disney films.


The appearance of the orc with an axe in the angry mob scene in which the people of Springfield approach the Simpsons' house with an intention to kill Homer who has been reported to be guilty of the pig waste silo found in the lake is an allusion to The Lord of the Rings.

There is also an allusion to Mickey Mouse in the scene where Bart puts on a black bra onto his head and claims himself to be "the mascot of an evil corporation".

The scene in which Homer on a wrecking ball repeatedly swings between and crashes onto a building called 'A hard place" and a rock is a reference to the idiom 'between a rock and a hard place' which means 'to make a difficult decision between two unpleasant options.'
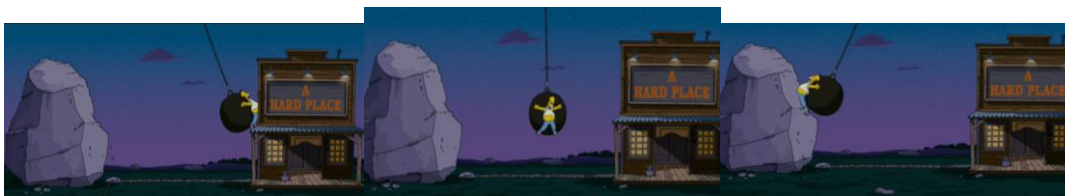
While it is possible to take this example as a KP allusion, still it is more appropriate to interpret it as a non-verbal allusion as the scene does not include any verbal translation. In addition to that, the only verbal sign is the name of the building itself.

4. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to carry out a quantitative analysis of Turkish translation of allusions in The Simpsons Movie, by taking Leppihalme (1997)'s classification as a reference point. This paper focusing on the translation of allusions in the animation movie The Simpsons has examined two things in principle. Firstly, the strategies that are frequently used in translation of allusions in Turkish subtitling of the movie under study are identified. Then, the data is analyzed in order to find out whether those translation strategies which are used to translate allusive expressions lead the translation toward faithfulness to the source text (foreignization) or to the target text reader (domestication).

In the first place, the allusions in the corpus of the study were grouped into categories such as proper name, key phrase, and non-verbal allusions. It was found out that retention strategy was favored over replacement and omission in translation of proper name allusions. In other words, most of the proper name allusions were kept intact. With regard to key phrase allusions which are less in number in comparison to proper name allusions are dealt mostly with strategies of literal and standard translation. In each case, it can be said that the translator chose to leave the allusions unchanged, and stay faithful to the source language.

To get to the next issue at hand, it is obviously seen that from the analysis that the translator adopted 'foreignization' in subtitling the allusions in the Simpsons Movie. Considering the fact that this movie is heavily loaded with cultural, political and historical elements specific to American context, it might be difficult for some viewers who are foreign to the source culture to catch such references and relate. Understanding intertextual connections the movie establishes plays a crucial role in increasing the degree and quality of enjoyment one would get out of watching it. In this sense, foreign viewers who watches The Simpsons Movie may have to struggle with several cases of 'culture bumps', which (Leppihalme 1997: 3-5) explains as the failure on the part of viewers in catching the allusive meaning intended and thus ending up feeling perplexed, especially if they are no well versed. But still and all, employing foreignization instead of domestication makes sense to a great extent as too much interference with the original might possibly render the movie dull and tasteless.

This study certainly has some limitations. Firstly, understanding of the allusions and their referent could vary from one person to another, which makes the study subjective to some extent. Next, even though great care was taken in not missing out any allusion in the material, it is probable that a few might be left unnoticed. Also there might be instances that some allusions overlap in categorization as some few fit into more than one category.

It is hoped that the present study which explores Turkish subtitling of allusions in a world-wide famous and highly culture-specific animated film The Simpsons Movie serves as a useful data for researchers who are interested in audiovisual translation strategies, specifically those with a special interest in translating allusions.

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İngilizce'den Türkçeye altyazı çevirilerinde anıştırma: *The Simpsons movie* üzerine bir çalışma

Öz

Görsel-işitsel çeviriye özgü teknik, dilsel ve kültürel kısıtlamalar gibi koşullar dikkate alındığında, metinlerarasılık kapsamındaki anıştırma (allusion), görsel-işitsel çeviri çalışmalarında özel bir başlık olarak ele alınmaktadır. Kültüre bağlı bir öğe olan anıştırma dillerarası çeviri için önemli sorunlar teşkil edebilmektedir. Bu sebeple, yapılan göndermelerin işlev ve çağrışımlarını muhafaza edebilmek uygun çeviri stratejilerinin kullanımını gerektirmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, anıştırma bakımından oldukça zengin olan *The Simpsons Movie*'de İngilizce'den Türkçe'ye aktatrılan anıştırmaların çevirisinde kullanılan altyazı çeviri stratejilerini incelemektir. Bu doğrultuda Leppihalme (1997)'in çeviri stratejileri çerçevesinde nicel bir analiz yapılmış olup çalışmaya konu olan filmden çeşitli örnekler tartışılmıştır. Çalışmanın asıl amacı, kullanılan çeviri stratejilerinin yabancılaştırma veya yerelleştirmeye yol açıp açmadığını tespit etmektir.

Anahtar sözcükler: altyazı; anıştırma çevirisi; metinlerarasılık; yerelleştirme; yabancılaştırma

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Stakeholders' views about the FATIH Project: Smart EFL classrooms

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Abstract

Turkey has launched a large national initiative to integrate information and communication technologies in education. FATIH project, valued at 8 billion$ and with tablet computers for every student from grade 5 to 12, interactive white boards and internet connection in every class, is often defined as ambitious, massive, grandiose and high-tech. The current study aims to investigate the effectiveness and efficiency of FATIH Project based on the views of stakeholders with particular reference to language teaching and learning process. The study has been carried out at a high school in Ankara, which has been a part of the project from the piloting phase. Forty three participants including seven English teachers, 20 students and 10 parents, two school administrators, three project officials and the General Director of Innovation and Education Technologies have been administered semi structured interviews. The study has revealed a distinction between the views of policy makers (officials in Ministry of National Education and Directory of Innovation and Education Technologies) and those of users (teachers and students). It appears that more briefings are needed to inform the teachers and students about the goals and planning of the project to ensure devotion and belief into the effectiveness of the project. The results also indicate that interactive whiteboards helped both language teachers to teach English effectively and students to improve language skills especially in listening, reading and writing by providing motivation via use of technology whereas tablet PCs are not thought to be cost effective by teachers, parents and students because of some technical and practical reasons.

Keywords: Tablet use; language learning; FATIH Project; interactive whiteboard; educational technologies

1. Introduction

Fatih Project: In line with the integration of ICT technologies in education, Turkey devised a project called FATIH, the acronym of 'Movement of Enhancing Opportunities and Improving Technology' in Turkish. This project, run by Ministry of National Education of Turkey (MoNE), has five components: a) providing equipment and software substructure, b) providing educational e-content and management of them, c) effective usage of the ICT in teaching programs, d) in-service training of the teachers e) conscious, reliable, manageable and measurable ICT usage. Although it was planned to be completed in 2015, the project is still on the move (MoNE, 2017).

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Turkey's FATIH Project aims to cultivate human capital by providing equal opportunities in education, improving the technology in schools, eliminating the digital gap and enhancing quality in education. To this end, a large-scale investment has been made to provide infrastructure and high speed internet access for each school, interactive boards for each classroom, tablets for individual use for teachers and students and a portal for educational content. Though none of these are unfamiliar in education across the world, it is the massive numbers (about 11 billion tablets and 450,000 interactive boards and internet connection) that draw attention to the implementation and success of the project. In accordance with the specified purposes, about 42.000 schools and 570.000 classes will be equipped with the latest information technologies such as IWBs with LCD panel, internet network infrastructure, multifunction printers and document camera (MoNE, 2012a). Moreover, from the beginning it was planned that 700 thousand teachers and 17 million students will be distributed tablet PCs (MoNE, 2012b). So, all classrooms across Turkey will be transformed into computerized classes, and all students from grade 5 to 12, for now it is from grade 9 to 12 though, and their teachers will have the opportunity to benefit from tablet PCs in and out of the class (Pamuk, Çakır, Ergun, Yılmaz & Ayas, 2013).

Turkey is, of course, not the only country taking such an initiative. Governments of some countries in different parts of the world provided students with tablets for educational purposes. Antigua and Barbuda Government started a project named GATE (Government Assisted Technology Endeavour) in 2012. The government announced to allocate more than 3000 tablets to school students (Tamim, Borokhovski, Pickup & Bernard, 2015). Brazil purchased 460.000 tablets to distribute schools within its tablet initiative (ibid.). In United Arab Emirates, a national education project named "The Mohammed Bin Rashid Learning Initiative" was launched in 2012. This project targeted to deploy 200.000 tablet devices to students at all levels of education (ibid.). South Korea proposed to provide 7.5 million elementary and high school students with tablets and to produce e-books within the project 'smart education' (Kim & Jung, 2010). Thailand government also aimed to distribute tablets with internet access to 1 million children within the project named 'One Tablet per Child' in March 2012 (Lesardoises, 2012). Despite not being nation-wide projects, some tablet initiatives has been launched across the United States in such School Districts as Los Angeles Unified, San Antonio Independent, Dodge City Public (in Kansas), Eloy Elementary (in Arizona), Coachelle Valley Unified (in California). Some other countries such as Australia, India, Iran, Jamaica, Kazakhstan, Pakistan, Russia, the United Kingdom, and Uruguay attempted similar projects either in national level or on a small-scale aiming to equip the students with tablet PCs (Tamim et al., 2015). However, none of them targeted such massive numbers of IWBs and/or tablet PCs that Turkey aimed to deploy to the schools, teachers and students.

FATIH project was launched in 2012. The piloting of the project has started with the distribution of tablet PCs to 2,259 teachers and 9,435 students at 52 schools (48 high schools and four elementary schools) in 17 provinces in 2011-2012 academic year. The classrooms of 5th and 9th graders of these abovementioned schools were also equipped with IWBs (MoNE, 2012a). Currently, about 432 thousand (432,282) IWBs and 1 million 437 thousand tablet PCs have been delivered to the schools and to the elementary and high school students across the country, according to the data obtained from the General Directorate of Innovation and Education Technologies.

Studies and evaluation reports about the project might inform later and further stages of roll-outs and provide insight for other countries seeking answers to the question whether it can overcome the digital divide or it is just allocating the resources to attractive but not cost-effective technology. This study is an attempt to answer such questions by gathering the views of the planners and the implementers of the project with a particular reference to the EFL classroom.

ICT and Language Learning: The use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in education has become prevalent in the last decades. The opportunities that ICT has provided have been welcomed by educational authorities, and ICT (facilities) has been exploited to enhance educational processes all over the world (Bax, 2000, p. 199; Betcher & Lee, p. 1, 2009; MoNE, 2010; Thomas & Schmid, 2010, p. 2; Yang & Teng, 2014). Moreover, ICT has led to a prominent transformation in educational operations. For instance, the use of internet in education has made it possible to create online virtual atmospheres where people can find the opportunity to teach or learn (Peterson, 2011). This has helped also L2 learners since they have been able to experience real life occurrences via these virtual atmospheres (e.g. Second Life). Besides, with the help of multimedia resources L2 learners have had a chance to improve their intellectual and communication skills (Çelik, Arkın & Sabriler, 2012; Millum & Warren, 2014).

In parallel with the abovementioned developments, there has been a great interest in using interactive whiteboards (IWBs) in classrooms which enable both teachers and students to make use of multimedia teaching by combining chalkboard, whiteboard, TV, video, projector, and computer (Yanez & Coyle, 2011, p. 446). Thanks to the facilities supplied, these boards have been increasingly used in L2 classrooms lately. Coyle, Yañez & Verdú (2010) indicated that IWB enables L2 teachers with many opportunities to teach with in novel, exciting and promising ways, which goes far beyond the facilities of traditional boards.

Although they are not widespread when compared to IWBs, tablet personal computers (tablet PC henceforth), on the other hand, have been in use very recently in education (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson & Freynik, 2014). Some countries across the globe launched projects which targeted to deploy tablet PCs to the teachers and students in order to make use of the facilities that ICT tools provide for education (Fri-tic, 2012; Gateway, 2004; Ingram, Willcutt & Jordan, 2008; Kim & Jung, 2010; Lewin & Luckin, 2010; Massé, 2012; Tamim et al. 2015; U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Technology, 2010; Windschitl & Sahl, 2002). Although there have been concerns about whether tablet PCs have been useful and efficient enough, the countries continue distributing tablet PCs to students for educational purposes (Bonifaz & Zucker, 2004).

1.1. Literature review

1.1.1. Use of Interactive Whiteboards (IWB) and tablet computers (PC) in L2 classroom

After its first production in 1991 (Shenton & Pagett, 2008), interactive whiteboards have been used in education since late 1990s (Beeland, 2002). These boards have been called in such names as smart boards (SBs), electronic whiteboard (EWBs), and interactive whiteboards (IWBs). "An IWB is a large, touch-sensitive board that is typically mounted on a wall and connected simultaneously to both a computer and a digital projector." (Coyle, Yañez & Verdú, 2010).

An IWB can provide L2 teachers with many opportunities in L2 classroom that go beyond the facilities of the traditional board. There are mainly two types of activities involving IWB in the foreign language classes: Activities which support teaching and activities supporting the learning process. While the first one includes presentation of topics, teacher interaction with students and support for teacher organization; the other consists of oral skill support, cognitive process support, and motivation and emulation support (Gerard, Greene & 1999).

A tablet PC is a portable personal computer with a touchscreen. It combines many features that belong to more than one mobile device: It can do calculations, process word, and run many different applications such as Excel, PowerPoint and Adobe Reader (Golonka et al., 2014). So, using such devices with many features which can also ensure multimodality in teaching and learning an L2 might be beneficial since it is essential to address as many senses of learners as possible to ensure efficiency

and permanence in L2 learning (Eksi & Yakisik, 2015). Moreover, making use of authentic materials in language teaching also eases the process and provide with aiming the target more rapidly (Al-Azri & Al-Rashdi, 2014). Thus, multimedia resources and authentic materials can be easily benefitted through a tablet PC in L2 learning.

There are research studies that investigated the use of IWB in L2 classroom (Johnson, Ramanair & Brine, 2010; Coyle, Yañez & Verdú, 2010; Hur & Suh, 2012; Yañez & Verdú & Coyle, 2010; Oz, 2014; Adiguzel, Gurbulak & Saricayir, 2011). Johnson et al. (2010) interviewed with four IWB-trained language teachers and their students, and did direct classroom observation in order to reveal both teachers and students perspectives of what worked and what needed to be improved about the use of IWB in a language classroom. It was found that both teachers and students make personal transformations within the IWB context, and suggestions on how to use the properties of IWB depend on the experience, knowledge and culture of the teachers and students. The findings of this study implied collaborative work among teachers and more opportunities for teachers on how to use technology. In their research study, Hur and Suh (2012) collected multiple data that range from vocabulary tests of children to classroom observation from an intensive summer English class specific to Korean newcomers' children in the USA. They concluded that using IWB for visual presentations, interactive games and test reviews was useful for new vocabulary learning. Gerard and Widener (1999) stated that IWB promoted language teaching process in three ways: it promoted the interaction and communication in classroom, helped to provide new cultural and linguistic elements, and improved teacher's skills of organization. According to Pennington (1996), using only personal computers in education leads people to become antisocial. Since interaction in class is essential in language learning, in contrast to personal computers, an IWB, as a single resource combining many other resources, can help present a topic to everyone at the same time, and makes it possible to discuss on it.

There are also studies on tablet PC use for educational purposes, very little on L2 classroom though. In a study of elementary EFL students in Taiwan, Lan, Sung and Chang (2007) carried out a study in small reading groups with or without tablets in terms of collaborative, peer-assisted learning practices. The research revealed that the group having tablets attended more to the reading tasks, and worked more collaboratively. The students with tablets gave support and feedback, and avoided conflict. Liu (2009) conducted a case study with 64 Chinese EFL learners about using personal digital assistants (PDAs, similar to tablet PC) for creating learning environment for listening and speaking. Students were divided into two groups, one of which used PDAs and the other used equivalent printed materials and CD players. Analyses showed that the group studying with PDAs improved their listening and speaking significantly.

1.1.2. Research on the FATIH Project

FATIH Project has drawn much attention. While some studies have focused on the faulty and problematic areas of project as a whole making suggestions for the future enterprises (Akıncı, Kurtoğlu & Seferoğlu, 2012; Bilgen, 2012; Ekici & Yılmaz, 2013; İşçi & Demir, 2015; Pamuk et al., 2013; Pouezevera, et al., 2013; Uluyol, 2013), others have focused on the efficiency of the project with reference to specific school subjects.

In their study on science teachers' opinions regarding tablet PC use in science and technology courses, Daşdemir, Cengiz, Uzoğlu, & Bozdoğan (2012) determined advantages and disadvantages of this component of the project. On one hand, they found that science and technology course becomes fun with visuals and animations, and students' interest towards the course increases with such facilities through tablet PCs. On the other hand, the participants stated that students may break down the devices in a short time and the radiation that these devices spread may do harm to the students' health.

Çiftçi, Taşkaya and Alemdar (2013) investigated the views of classroom teachers of the project. They determined the technical problems and teachers' lack of competence in technology use as the disadvantageous; and that the project will enrich educational atmosphere and that the students will not carry heavy bags as advantageous side of the project. Öztan (2012) carried out an empirical study in his master's thesis on the effect of IWB use on the academic achievement of seventh grade students. While the control group was taught without the facilities of FATIH project, the experimental group benefitted from IWBs. The experimental group did better than the control group in courses. Students stated that science and technology class was more enjoyable with IWB, and they learnt better. Sakız, Özden, Aksu and Şimşek (2014) carried out a similar empirical study to find out the effects of IWB on academic achievement students at science and technology classes. They revealed that the students taught with IWB did better than the other students in this class. They also discovered the importance of the teacher factor in technology use. Ateş (2010) investigated the use of IWB in geography classes in secondary. He found that IWB use increased concentration, active participation and made the course enjoyable and interesting. Moreover, it boosted students' motivation towards geography classes. Demir and Yorulmaz (2014) examined IWB use in history classes. They found that IWBs have not been used effectively in history classes. They also revealed that teachers need training on technology use in general and IWB use in particular. Yorgancı and Terzioğlu (2013) researched the effect of IWB use on the achievement of and the attitude towards math course. They observed that IWB use both increased math achievement and affected students' attitude towards math positively.

Öz (2014) investigated the IWB component of the project aiming to obtain teachers' and students' views of the IWBs in EFL classroom. His findings showed that overall both teachers and students have positive perceptions of the benefits of IWB technologies in EFL classrooms. The study revealed that students' perceptions differed based on their English proficiency and hours of IWB use in a week, and the more both students and teachers engage in IWB the more they think positively about them. While more experienced teachers had favourable perceptions on IWBs, less experienced teachers had little positive perceptions. Savaş (2014), on the other hand, researched tablet PC use within the project as an instructional tool in EFL education. This researched discovered that pre-service EFL teachers regard tablet PCs as effective instructional tools. As has been seen, the studies that focused on FATIH project and/or its components with regard to EFL classroom in Turkey are rare. Besides, the existing studies handled one component of the project –either tablet or IWB use. Moreover, both the studies on the overall project and the ones that handled the project with regard to teaching specific school subjects did not take all stakeholders' view into account. Thus, this study is intended to fill these gaps in the relevant literature.

1.2. Research Questions

In line with the purpose of integrating and benefitting from ICT in education, Turkey started the FATIH Project which comprises the deployment of massive numbers of IWBs to classroom of elementary and high schools and tablet PCs to the teachers and students in these schools across the country. Studies in the relevant literature researched IWBs and tablet PCs in the scope of FATIH project in terms of their use in education in general (Ekici & Yılmaz, 2013; İşçi & Demir, 2015; Pamuk, et al., 2013; Pouezevera, Dinçer, Kipp & Sarışık, 2013) and in teaching specific school subjects in particular (Ateş, 2010; Demir & Yorulmaz, 2014; Sakız, Özden, Aksu & Şimşek, 2014; Yorgancı & Terzioğlu, 2013). However, just a few studies focused on this project with regard to L2 education in the Turkish context (Öz, 2014; Savaş, 2014). This study aims to reveal the influences of FATIH Project on education in general and on L2 teaching and learning in particular. It also examines the way how the project has been going on in terms of the use of IWBs and tablet PCs, and the aspects in which the project has been successful or problematic by taking the perspectives of all the

stakeholders –both the policymakers as planners and the other stakeholders as users in the field- of the project with a particular focus on its use in language learning. Therefore, the research questions that guided this study are:

1. What are the perspectives of its stakeholders on FATIH Project in general with respect to the contributions, flaws and suggestions for improvement?

a) What are the policy makers' views? b) What are the views of the users in the field?

2. What are the perspectives of its stakeholders on FATIH Project in relation to the EFL classroom the contributions and flaws of and the suggestions for the project?

a) What are the policy makers' views? b) What are the views of the users in the field?

2. Method

The aim of the study is to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of FATIH Project in general and with regard to language teaching and learning in particular according to the results of the data gathered from both relevant institutions and a high school which has been a part of the project since the initial stages. Based on the perspectives of all the stakeholders participated, this study investigated the use of interactive white boards which were given to schools, and tablets which were distributed to students as part of the project. It was intended to uncover the contribution of these components to the EFL classroom, and the flaws and issues of FATIH project in relation to L2 learning and teaching.

2.1. Participants

Participants of the study were the Director of YEGITEK (Innovation and Educational Technologies), three members of FATIH Team at the Directorate of YEGITEK, which is the authority responsible for running FATIH Project, and two school administrators, seven English teachers, twenty students and ten parents at a high school in Ankara, the capital. The school is newly built and 20 kilometres away from the city centre of Ankara. It has a young teacher profile –particularly in language teaching branch- despite its close proximity to the centre[†]. The majority of the students' families are socioeconomically from the middle and middle-low class. The school accept only those students who are able to take the specified grade in the national examination.

2.2. Instrument

In order to collect data, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants. While the majority of them were one on one interview, some of them were conducted as focus group interviews.

2.3. Data Collection and Analysis

Each interview was recorded with the help of a voice recorder. Interviews targeting different specific groups –such as English teachers, administrators etc.- included different open-ended questions, there were overlapping questions in the interviews though. In order to conduct the study, the researchers visited the pilot school five times during one month.

The data collected were transcribed, and then analysed with content analysis "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p.1278). The interview

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[†] Teachers collect points as they get experienced (and get old). The more points a teacher get, the more his/her possibility to work in big cities or city centres increases.

transcripts were analysed to extract "meaning" through a search for themes in the data. The analysis held a directed and top-down approach in which the researchers identified key concepts as initial coding categories (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999), namely contributions and flaws of the project and suggestions for improvement. As for the trustworthiness of the coding, the coding of the transcripts was assigned to two coders to ensure inter-coder reliability.

3. Results

The findings are presented under two main headings based on the research questions; namely FATIH Project in general and in EFL context with respect to contributions, flaws and suggestions for improvement. Under each heading the views of the stakeholders are presented bilaterally; the policy makers (views of the Principal of YEGITEK, government officials working on FATIH Project) on one hand and the users in the field (views of school administrators, teachers, students and their parents) on the other.

3.1. The Views of the Stakeholders about FATIH Project in General

3.1.1. Policy Makers' View

The Director of YEGITEK pointed out the contributions of FATIH Project in a very large scope. In addition to the announced aims and contributions of the project such as increasing opportunities in education and providing support for the disadvantaged students, the director mentioned that FATIH Project contributes to the human capital and exportation of the country. The Mobile Device Management (MDM) system developed to connect the tablets and to allow interaction in the classroom has been sold to Taiwan and South Korea. Vestel, the manufacturing company for the IWBs, has started to manufacture for eight European brands and employs 36 thousand people. He also stated that they regularly conduct surveys to collect feedback from students, teachers, and schools about the use of tablets and IWBs and materials.

The results of the interview with the project officials in YEGITEK indicated that they observed the piloting process closely. As far as understood by their explanations, they are aware of about all faulty aspects of the project since they stated that there has been a huge amount of information flow from all of the pilot schools. Starting from the minimal technical problems students, teachers and school administration had, they seemed to know every flaw of the project including the most important ones. They think that the lack of interaction between IWBs and tablets, the compatibility problem of the operating system and the program, insufficient e-content for the courses are among the most crucial drawbacks of the pilot.

FATIH Project officials seemed enthusiastic about conducting the project, and very hopeful about its future despite all problems and difficulties the stakeholders faced. Their ideas on improving the projects are:

Providing the interaction between IWBs and tablets

Making the operating system and the program compatible

Enhancing e-content for each courses and permitting use of private content providers' materials (like Vitamin, an e-content provider company for high school subjects)

Getting over all the technical problems with IWBs and tablets

Enabling permanent contact with schools in case of unexpected problems

Training teachers and preparing them for the process psychologically

The director of YEGITEK expressed sincere belief in the efficacy and future of the project. He told that the tablets will be used interactively in the classroom through MDM. Currently, one and a half million tablets can operate on the system and this number will increase to ten million. He said he believes that tablets will be used in the classroom effectively and for self-study at home. One official in YEGITEK acknowledged that there have been a number of problems in the implementation of the project due to large numbers involved stating that

"Maybe a few years of prior preparation even before the first tablets were distributed would be a lot better to eliminate problems. However, no government waits to harvest the products of such a huge project. The project has been promoted in elections and tablets have been distributed before there were sufficient learning materials. Yet, we have learnt a lot at every step getting feedback from schools".

3.1.2. Users' View

Number The school principal pointed out that the students have been very satisfied with IWBs and have been enthusiastic about using tablets. They emphasized that with FATIH Project, the teachers could benefit from a wide variety of teaching materials, which boosts both teachers' and students' achievements. The principal also pointed to the benefits and practicality of the design of the IWBs as they are composed of three sliding pieces, one chalkboard, one white board and the touchscreen interactive board: *"The IWBs enrich the classrooms with visuals and media. The teacher can use any of the boards by just sliding…. They can use the IWB to support the lesson with visuals".*

As for the specific views of the principal and vice principal on the two most important components of FATIH Project, they discriminate between IWBs and tablets in terms of their use and contribution to classes in general and EFL classes in particular. They find IWBs very effective in teaching and learning whereas they state that effective use of tablets seems improbable. While they think that the money spent on IWBs worth it because they have been efficiently used as expected; yet the money spent for the tablets has been wasted since they are almost never used because of some technical and practical reasons. The principal has stated that

"The IWBs are more durable than tablets. They are dynamic in the classroom, more efficient, up-to-date and user-friendly than projectors. The Tablet phase is not very realistic tough. They are for individual use. Just as difficult as studying with mobile phones in a class. They may fall and break down. Think that you are in a class of 34. All the students have the tablets and they may break down or run out of batteries…. There are 870 students in the school and 8 hours of lessons during the day. The batteries last for about two hours. How can they be charged?".

Despite obvious contributions, the school administration listed some problems as follows: Lack of interaction between IWBs and tablet PCs, lack of e-content for tablets, battery and charging problems, cracks and misuses, short life-span and other technical failures. Both the principal and the vice principal have mentioned lack of their contact with the project officials lately. Although the administration and teachers were provided information about the project in the beginning of the pilot, and got help when they faced problems, they had almost no contact with the project officials in the last three months. Another major problem they highlighted was staff change in YEGITEK. The principals complained about frequent staff change at the centre of FATIH project, which aggravated their job about implementation.

English language teachers pointed to contributions of the project, yet, they say in practice it has a number of flaws. One major problem is the lack of technical support. Another is the frequent changes in implementation of the project. In one of the teacher's words,

"We have received a five-day training, which is OK if you have a background. But we have troubles due to frequent changes in the policy and implementation. When we had the IWBs first, they had PARDUS (developed by TUBITAK) and Windows as the operating system, but later only PARDUS is used. However, we had training about a different system that works on Windows. What operates on Windows does not work on PARDUS".

The teachers stated that such changes and ambiguities cause lack of enthusiasm and commitment in teachers. Lack of technical help was the second most important problem in the process. There are no permanent staffs in charge of technical support for the project at school.

Being digital natives, the students have already been ready for such kind of a 'technological' project. They are very happy to reach multimodal content through especially IWBs (visuals, audial materials, 3D movies etc.). The students find the facilities of the project useful, effective, time-saving and motivating. They benefit from these facilities not only in classes but also out-of-class such as during the break time or at home for fun. Similar to the other stakeholders of the project, students evaluate IWBs and tablets differently. While they state their satisfaction of IWB use in EFL classes, they didn't mention much about tablets as they stopped using the tablets anymore after some technical and practical problems they faced.

Although the students seem very enthusiastic about IWBs and tablets, the problems they faced are similar to the one highlighted by the principals and the teachers. Additionally they complained about losing their homework materials because of lack of protection against viruses at IWBs. As for the tablets, students are not happy that most of their teachers don't want tablets in classes. They are also not satisfied with excessive restrictions in tablet use. Some of the students, on the other hand, didn't like the trouble shooting process since it takes too long to get their tablets back.

As far as it was understood from the focus group interviews with the parents, it seemed that parents do not know much about the project. However, some of them showed their awareness of the project by explaining their ideas on IWBs. They found IWBs very practical and time-saving. As for the tablets, although some parents displayed their content with them, the majority did not mention them positively. There are different ideas among parents: Some think that tablets are not useful. Some say their children do not use tablets at all. The majority complain about their children's playing games with tablets all the time saying *'I wish they hadn't given the tablets'*.

The principals and English teachers, in general terms, were satisfied with the IWBs; however, they were pessimistic about the tablets. Three years of experience in piloting gave them the idea that teaching with tablets are almost impossible, at least with the current conditions. Furthermore, they evaluate the investment on tablets as 'waste of money. Therefore, they suggest that the government pay more attention to IWB, solve the technical problems, improve it, enhance e-content for each course to be used through this board. Sharing similar beliefs about tablet computers, the parents want the government to find solution to the use of tablets in an uncontrolled way.

3.2. The Views of the Stakeholders about FATIH Project with respect to EFL Classroom

3.2.1. Policy Makers' View

Based on their observations and school visits, the officials in YEGITEK state that English language teachers are among the ones who use the elements of the FATIH project most. The Director of YEGITEK stated that they have assigned teams of teachers and academics to prepare contents for each subject, including English. Between the dates June 2016 to February 2018, the schedule assumes that 13 thousand lessons will have been prepared. Yet, so far 256 lesson contents (all subjects- not only in English) have been delivered and only 110 lessons among these have been accepted. In general, he expressed concerns about the quality of the lesson contents saying that *"The digital world is vast and*

multimedia should be used more. However, most of the lesson content we have received so far seems to have failed to go beyond traditional lectures. They cannot exploit ICT to the full". As to English language teaching materials in particular, however, the director could not give any specific information. The officials in YEGITEK also stated that practising teachers are contributing language learning materials and activities. After a moderating team has examined and approved the materials, they are made available on EBA (an acronym in Turkish for *Educational Informatics Network*), which is an online platform where students and teachers can find content for school subjects.

3.2.2. Users' View

According to the principal and the vice principal, English teachers make use of the project's facilities in their EFL classes intensively. They emphasize that the English teachers have adopted the project easily and quickly as they have more opportunity to contact the newest technology due to their lower average age. In addition, in the school principal's words, *"English language teaching materials are varied and publishing houses prepare versions of course books that can be used in IWBs. Probably that's why English teachers use it more effectively".*

English teachers have been very interested in FATIH project. They stated that they use both IWBs and tablet computers in EFL classes. They are very satisfied with such facilities since they have found the opportunity to make use of a wide variety of resources for their EFL courses. One of the English teachers emphasized this case by saying *'with the help of the technology that this project provided, it became possible for us to bring the world into the classroom'.*

Some other English teachers mentioned the multimedia facilities of IWBs and tablets implying that EFL classes require not only printed resources but also visuals and audial materials. According to English teachers, one of the major contributions of FATIH project components in EFL classes is higher levels of motivation. Both IWBs and tablets with internet access made it possible to reach rich resources that attract students' attention. Since EFL classes necessitate benefiting from authentic materials, some teachers have their students watch videos or films in English or lesson videos by native speakers of English.

Another contribution of the project is that it helped students improve their creativity. One of the English teachers gave an example relating this: The teacher assigned his student to prepare homework on tablets about 'explaining a process'. One of the students in EFL class worked on the production of an armour in his tablet, and narrated how to form an armour in his own words in English.

Since the majority of English teachers distinguished IWBs and tablets stating the low frequency of use of tablets in English teaching and learning process, most of their comments were on IWBs. Different from the aforementioned contributions of IWBs, they have had some other positive effects on EFL classes: They enabled more engaging lessons, enriched classrooms with the use of internet-based materials, and motivated both teachers and students in teaching and learning English. They are also time-saving and practical, and they promote multimodality in EFL classroom.

As to flaws of the project with respect to the EFL classroom, the English language teachers pointed that a major issue was the insufficiency of the materials that are compatible with the system. Use of materials by publishing houses is somehow accepted; however, ironically, it is not allowed to make students buy course books other than those distributed by MoNE for free. EBA also prepares materials but they are not sufficient. This issue got harsh criticism especially from English teachers because of huge amount of e-material need for EFL course. English teachers found tablet use practically unmanageable. The aforementioned problems relating to tablets and their use made English teachers lose their interest and motivation towards this component of FATIH project.

The students highlighted some of the advantages of the project in EFL classrooms. They described it particularly useful and efficient in practising listening, making presentations and using visuals in the lessons. While a few students stated that they use tablets for studying English, it was revealed in the interviews that most of them use them for fun (playing games mostly). The parents, on the other hand, cannot specifically comment on the project with reference to English language learning.

4. Discussion

The current study on views of stakeholders about FATIH Project reveals that the two sides of the coin, namely the Ministry of Education- YEGITEK as policy makers and the users such as students, teachers, school administration and the parents differ a lot in terms of their priorities, the problems they face and their belief and commitment. It appears that the policy makers in Ministry of National education and YEGITEK have stronger faith in the project and its contributions both in education and in economy and human capital. Despite some problems, they suggest every step in the implementation have provided them with insight and therefore cannot be regarded as waste of money. The policy makers also believe that technology integration in education is inevitable and as mentioned by Director of YEGITEK *"According to the 2015 figures of TUIK (Turkish Statistics Institute), 92% of mobile owners in Turkey are using smart phones and 90% of them use social media. How come these people cannot adapt to education with tablets?".* However, despite the obvious benefits and inevitability of enhancing classroom with technology, this cannot be achieved or exploited without teachers' commitment. English language teachers are quite happy to benefit from IWBs in the classroom using videos, audios and visuals. They believe the project facilities allow for creativity in students. Yet, they find e-content insufficient for language teaching. They also complain about changes in implementation and lack of contact with decision makers. It appears that the vision of the MoNE cannot be fully recognized by the teachers. No top-down change can last without support from the bottom; therefore, the MoNE should inform the teachers and students about the goals and planning of the project to ensure devotion and belief into the effectiveness of the project. Some teachers believe that the tablets are supposed to replace books. However, the officals in YEGITEK mentioned that they are meant to enrich the classrooms and to be used for homework and self-study. The idea that tablets can make all other traditional learning materials redundant is found unreasonable by the teachers; however, this is not what is planned by the policy makers. There appears to be a lack of briefing. As declared by the Director of YEGITEK, they are holding training pre-service teacher training programs in five faculties of education. It might be suggested that the implementation should expand to include all faculties of education throughout the country. Given the fact that there are 983,000 teachers practising in schools in Turkey, mere pre-service training could not bridge the technology gap in teachers. More frequent and comprehensive in-service trainings should be held. Although there have been 768,000 man-hour training given so far, there seems an obvious need for more training to convince teachers.

One other major distinction is about how the two main components of the project- IWBs and tablets- are viewed in terms of their usefulness and efficiency. In general, all users view IWBs as useful whereas they feel tablets cannot be used efficiently. Some of the English language teachers acknowledge that tablets are being used by self-study by some students. Still, more e-content should be uploaded or be available in EBA to construct the view that tablets are for learning not for gaming only.

Looking at other similar project throughout the world, it appears that every country aims to cultivate their human capital and improve quality in education through technology integration.

Though the contexts are diverse, poorer and developing countries seem to rely on and trust investment into technology more compared to more well-off and developed ones. Therefore, studies about FATIH Project, its implementation stages, benefits and problems might be useful. More studies should be conducted to evaluate the longer term benefits in success in education in the Turkish context to inform later and further stages of roll-outs and provide insight for other countries when they decide to allocate large-scale investments from their limited budget.

5. Conclusions

This study investigated the views of the stakeholders of FATIH project about its on-going pilot scheme in relation to English language teaching. The contribution of the project facilities to teaching in general and EFL teaching in particular, the drawbacks of the project and suggestions of stakeholders about the future of the project were gathered through one on one and focus-group interviews.

Based on the findings, it can be stated that the project officials are enthusiastic and ambitious about continuing the project by getting over the problematic aspects of it and improving depending on the changing needs. The stakeholders are also happy with the project although they partly denounce it, favouring IBWs and disapproving tablets. The common point that the stakeholders complained mostly about is tablet use due to very significant technical and practical problems which led teachers and students to stop using tablets. Although the project officials have the idea of even carrying out evaluation and assessment of learning via tablets, the principals, teachers and students find this almost utopic for similar reasons.

The FATIH Project provided contribution to EFL teaching practices with motivating both teachers and students, presenting a wide variety of resources that address multiple senses of students, and enabling internet access. Despite its crucial problematic aspects, tablets made it possible for teachers to assign students homework or projects that engage students in learning and practising English. The tablets also enabled students to reach rich and authentic materials which contributed multimodality in learning English.

In spite of the abovementioned contributions, there occurred undesired cases in the implementation of the project. Interaction lack between IWBs and tablets, disintegration between operating system and programs designed to use in it, insufficient content that can be used in IWBs and tablets, and finally tablet-specific practical problems are the most crucial drawbacks of FATIH Project.

Consequently, it seems vital that the government pay more attention to the project –if they want to maintain it in the future- by taking the problematic areas into consideration and finding quick and permanent solutions to them. If the government is really decisive about distributing more tablets to students, they should fade the accumulated pessimistic ideas about them away by taking necessary steps.

Acknowledgements

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Paydaşların FATİH Projesi'ne ilişkin görüşleri: Akıllı İngilizce sınıfları

Öz

Türkiye, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerini eğitime entegre etmek için büyük bir ulusal girişim başlatmıştır. 8 milyar dolar değerinde olan ve 5 ila 12 yaş arası öğrenciler için her sınıfta interaktif beyaz tahtalar ve internet bağlantısı olan tablet bilgisayarlarla harmanlanan FATİH projesi, genellikle, iddialı, masif, görkemli ve ileri teknoloji olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Mevcut çalışma, dil öğretim ve öğrenim süreci ile ilgili olarak paydaşların görüşlerine dayanarak FATİH Projesinin etkinliğini ve verimliliğini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, pilot çalışma aşamasından itibaren projenin bir parçası olan Ankara'da bir lisede gerçekleştirilmiştir. Yedi İngilizce öğretmeni, 20 öğrenci ve 10 ebeveyn, iki okul yöneticisi, üç proje görevlisi ve Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürü de dâhil olmak üzere 40 katılımcı ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Çalışma, politika yapıcılar (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı ve Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Müdürlüğü yetkilileri) ve kullanıcıların

(öğretmenler ve öğrenciler) görüşleri arasında bir ayrım olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Projenin etkinliğine olan bağlılığı ve inancı sağlamak için projenin hedefleri ve planlaması hakkında öğretmenleri ve öğrencileri bilgilendirmek için daha fazla eğitim verilmesi gerektiği görülmektedir. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda interaktif yazı tahtalarının hem İngilizce öğretmenlerinin İngilizce'yi etkili bir şekilde öğretmelerine, hem de öğrencilerin özellikle dinleme, okuma ve yazma konusunda dil becerilerini geliştirerek teknolojinin kullanımı yoluyla motivasyon sağlamasına yardımcı olurken, tablet PC'lerin öğretmenler, ebeveynler ve öğrenciler tarafından bazı teknik ve pratik nedenlerden dolayı uygun maliyetli olmadığı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: tablet kullanımı; dil öğrenme; FATİH Projesi; interaktif beyaz tahta; eğitim teknolojileri

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Eclectic matrix application for single-skill and integrated-skills ELT microteachings

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Abstract

Experiencing and experimenting how to teach a foreign language in methodology courses in the undergraduate programs of ELT departments is a complex and confusing task at microteaching level. Trainees utilize their instructional capacity using the collection of techniques they compile for the simulation of this sort. Such a construction and presentation require a micro FLT cosmos which encloses a lot of assumptions, a collection of techniques, and a technical course of action. The hypothesis in this argument is that the technical construction of single-skill and integrated-skills based microteachings which resemble units requires a complicated procedure in teacher training, and the eclectic matrix (EM) may assist trainees with the technical selection and support well-designed microteachings. The suggested eclectic matrix template may assist them in synchronizing the techniques to be utilized and other variables such as ordering, timing, assessing, modifying and fine-tuning. The unit-like structure, the eclectic density, and the length of such microteachings may cause problems in methodology courses. This study displays the reactions of the teacher trainees to utilizing the eclectic matrix in ELT microteachings. Their responses have been collected through a questionnaire after a long period of matrix applications as described here.

Keywords: Eclectic matrix (EM); English language teaching (ELT); ELT methodology; ELT microteaching; teacher-trainee; microteaching design; foreign language teaching techniques

1. Introduction

Microteaching applications in ELT departments are among the most important end products. They can be mainly divided into two parts. These are single skill and integrated skills microteachings. They are generally designed considering TEFL courses for young learners and teenage groups. During the design and implementation of such micro lessons, more complexities than the ones in real lessons may be experienced. The points such as choosing the language point to be taught, creating the context, technique selection, making the outline, sequencing and balancing the techniques collection,

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interlanguage stabilization, material development, rehearsals, and actual teaching before peers may produce issues.

1.1. Problem

Sarıgöz (2015) argues that the FLT programs in the post-methods era require eclectic teaching matrixes for unit design. The same application may be required for single-skill and integrated-skills microteachings in order to create methodologically applicable designs. The problem is that the paradoxical design of a microteaching may not fully generate the intended chain of action which supports communicative language teaching. The wide range of techniques suggested in the methods era and the new techniques freely developed and used in contemporary instruction suggest a wide range of paths to the same end. This variety can be perplexing when narrowing down to the intended microteaching prototype. Furthermore, there are many other factors that affect the assembly of the most beneficial collection of techniques for this sort of simulation as mentioned elsewhere and they may create problems for higher order planning skills.

1.2. Microteaching in ELT

Microteaching design has become a standard application in many ELT departments. However, it may be experienced in different formats due to its dynamic nature and the resources of the institutions. Hall (2011) discusses that recently the concept of method has been gradually more challenged and instructors' beliefs about the nature of language affect teaching applications. Richards and Rodgers (2014) argue that approaches and methods reproduce dissimilar suppositions about the language to be learned, the ways of learning, and the results of learning. Lakshimi and Rao (2009) discuss that such a simulation is 'a scaled down teaching encounter' which has been used in pre-service and in-service training since its invention by D. W. Allen, Robert Bush, and Kim Romney in 1960s at Stanford university.

Bell (2007) claims that what microteaching is yet to be examined and discovered by researchers despite it is generally seen as an efficient means of teacher training. He and Yan (2011) argue that microteaching is an effective instrument for teacher training but not without flaws. Sarıçoban (2016) suggests that trainers assist pre-service teachers with efficient managerial and instructional support. Harmer (2007) maintains that skill combination is a key aspect in lesson design. Blending various skills and themes is an important ability of instructors who plan for a sequence of lessons. The ideal instructional sequence, then will offer both skill integration and also language study based around a topic or another thematic thread.

2. Method

The argument about eclectic matrix design depends on a two-year microteaching application supported by eclectic presentation plans. The research was designed by the author and implemented in methodology courses where ELT trainees prepared and presented integrated-skills microteachings after single-skill microteachings. Single language skill presentations such as 'teaching reading' are generally prepared in the pre-while-post fashion. Their application does not represent teaching a unit however, integrated-skills microteachings are extremely complicated from methodological perspective. First of all, the integrated-skills design is almost similar to a unit which contains all the main and sub language skills and more. They symbolize a unit which is generally taught in one week in a real school even if they cannot contain every component in a unit due to the time constraints.

The author launched a simple eclectic matrix in the beginning of the research. Based on the initial class experiences and observations which lasted a few semesters, the format was developed in the last two semesters. In practice, the trainees place the collection of techniques on a grid (see Sarıgöz 2016). The grid has columns as seen in Table 1 and trainees fill in each column for each technique employed in the microteaching plan. The number of the techniques may change according to the time period at trainees' disposal and the integration range. The information in each box can be changed flexibly by the trainee in order to formulate the best combination considering the aims and contents of the lesson. In order to call such an outline 'eclectic matrix' the information in the boxes should be changed many times during the initial drafting. This process of transformation enables the trainee to see the whole picture in depth and pursue the best mixture. If this formulaic permutation does not exist, the production does not serve as 'eclectic-matrix.' The sequencing of skills and techniques should definitely be arranged on the basis of communicative language teaching. Coherence and cohesion of the whole technical program should reflect 'contextual contact first' principle, as reviewed by Sarıgöz (2015), which fosters offering cognitive clues and elicitation in the opening and other initial stages of the unit.

Table 1. Eclectic Matrix Template (Sarıgöz 2016)

Skill	Activity	Technique	Method	Aim	Instructions	Student Response Type	Communication	Materials	Time

Organization of the combinations and the transformation of all variables in the matrix require thorough methodological knowledge including approaches, methods, and techniques besides the instructional acculturation on behalf of the trainee. Integrated skills presentations are the last macro scale practices before the practicum. For this reason, rehearsing and finalizing transformational combinations and presenting them before peers may be a multi-benefit activity for teacher training.

In this study, a Likert-type questionnaire was administered to 42 teacher trainees at the end of the year-long microteaching program which included utilization of the suggested eclectic-matrix applications. Every trainee had operated the matrix in several microteachings before the administration of the questionnaire displayed below.

2.1. Data

The author who was also the lecturer of the mentioned methodology courses observed that the forty-two teacher trainees attending methodology courses in ELT programs successfully prepared and used the single-skill and integrated-skills based matrixes during the microteachings. After year-long piloting of the matrix they were technically equipped to respond to the twenty-four statements in the questionnaire which were organized into three sections. The first section is about their eclectic matrix experience and contains fifteen statements. The next section is about their suggestions for the improvement of the eclectic matrix. This feedback part contains five statements. The remaining four statements seek estimations about the future personal use of the matrix by ELT trainees when they start real instruction after college. This post-grad section is about the future potential of the suggested matrix.

2.2. Discussion

The action research for EM consists of two parts: the implementation of EM in methodology courses and the trainees' reactions to it. This study mainly explores their reactions. The core subject of ELT programs is "the teaching methodology" in theoretical and applied manners. Microteachings are the closest experiences to the instruction in real schools. The author claims that microteachings must be designed and presented in a more professional manner than the actual lessons taught by long-time instructors. ELT microteachings naturally display the experimental operation of language skills by the trainees. They are practitioners in training. They can employ the EM in order to compensate this gap. The EM system, particularly at the final stage after technical drafting and rehearsals, may help the trainee reproduce a complete and near-professional applied teaching simulation in the methodology course.

The following part displays the statements about the application, design and future potential of the EM with the frequency and percentage of the replies from the trainees. Further arguments about the data take place in the results part of the study.

Table 2. Questionnaire for Eclectic Matrix Applications

Questionnaire for Eclectic Matrix Applications									
5 Strongly Agree		4 Agree		3 Undecided		2 Disagree		1 Strongly Disagree	
F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%

Part-A   Opinions about your current Eclectic Matrix experience

1 The collection of techniques I employ in the EM lets me consider the methodological acculturation in TEFL.

9	21%	30	71%	2	5%	1	2%	0	0%

2 Eclectic Matrix application in integrated-skills presentations helps the trainees see the whole system analytically and holistically.

18	43%	20	48%	2	5%	2	5%	0	0%

3 I believe that the EM is the smallest macro methodological design.

7	17%	26	62%	9	21%	0	0%	0	0%

4 I organize the relationship between techniques, aims, materials and timing better through EM.

15	36%	22	52%	2	5%	3	7%	0	0%

5 The EM lets me revise the techniques that have been developed so far and keeps me updated in terms of FLT methods.

11	26%	24	57%	6	14%	1	2%	0	0%

6 Being able to create freelance techniques in the EM fosters personal contribution and resourcefulness.

7	17%	20	48%	14	33%	1	2%	0	0%

7 The EM may facilitate smooth transitions between the implementation of techniques.

7	17%	24	57%	3	7%	8	19%	0	0%

8 The flow of action in terms of "stir and settle" is organized better through the EM.

8	19%	24	57%	6	14%	4	10%	0	0%

9 The EM makes the placing of each single input into the grid simple.

10	24%	26	62%	5	12%	1	2%	0	0%

10 This application enables trouble-free rotation of techniques and other variables used in EM chart.

7	17%	24	57%	8	19%	3	7%	0	0%

11	Through the EM grid, I can easily detect what is missing in the plan.								
	14	33%	25	60%	2	5%	1	2%	0	0%
12	The EM is practical to draft and rearrange.								
	13	31%	25	60%	2	5%	2	5%	0	0%
13	The EM design may recover poorly made microteaching plans.								
	8	19%	20	48%	8	19%	5	12%	1	2%
14	To display the EM on the classroom wall during the presentation helps the instructor and peers follow the microteaching.								
	10	24%	23	55%	5	12%	4	10%	1	2%
15	The EM makes receiving feedback easier.								
	8	19%	20	48%	10	24%	3	7%	0	0%
	Part-B The EM design improvement								
16	The EM should include "technique, method and aim" columns.								
	18	43%	21	50%	2	5%	1	2%	0	0%
17	The EM should include "learner response type, materials, and time" columns.								
	12	29%	17	40%	10	24%	3	7%	1	2%
18	The EM should include "communication type" column.								
	6	14%	17	40%	12	29%	6	14%	1	2%
19	The EM should include "instructions" column.								
	4	10%	4	10%	15	36%	16	38%	3	7%
20	The integrated-skills EM should not exceed ten techniques.								
	6	14%	17	40%	8	19%	8	19%	4	10%
	Part-C The EM prospective (future potential)								
21	The EM application may facilitate making better unit plans in the future.								
	16	38%	23	55%	1	2%	2	5%	0	0%
22	The EM application may facilitate better syllabus design.								
	16	38%	19	45%	4	10%	2	5%	0	0%
23	I may use it in regular lesson planning.								
	8	19%	25	60%	7	17%	2	5%	0	0%
24	I may modify it for my future teaching profile.								
	7	17%	27	64%	6	14%	2	5%	0	0%

3. Results

The eclectic matrix devised and implemented by the author attempts to offer ultimate experience in ELT microteaching design and implementation. The great majority of the participants displayed a positive approach to the statements in the questionnaire which focus on the goals of EM as presented and argued below.

3.1. Items 1-15

A great majority of participants think that the technique organization process lets them consider the methodological acculturation in TEFL. It also helps the trainees see the whole system analytically and holistically. The microteaching design requires a complex system which operates many techniques and

their sub-domains depending on the methodological acculturation. For this reason, such an approach and technical diagnosis of the selected elements support improved designs. The author believes that the EM is the smallest macro methodological design and so do the 79% of the respondents. The percentage of the undecided ones is 21. Due to the fact that particularly the integrated skills presentation resembles the teaching of a unit in actual schooling, it should be further discussed from methodological perspective. Units are obviously affected by approaches and methods. Eighty-eight percent think that they can organize the relationship between techniques, aims, materials and timing better through EM. This response indicates that the EM may offer the chance for better management of these features.

The EM lets 83% of the trainees revise the techniques that have been developed so far and keeps trainees updated in terms of FLT methods. In this way the trainees recycle the techniques they have studied and pursue enhanced combinations which is the main goal of the EM.

According to 65%, being able to create freelance (newly or personally developed) techniques for the EM fosters personal contribution and resourcefulness. Thirty-three percent are undecided. These are the techniques that are out of the popular methods zone. Considering post-methods era and employing newly created techniques is inevitable. Trainees should exercise creating their own techniques using the current instructional and academic resources.

Seventy-four percent think that the EM may facilitate smooth transitions between the implementation of techniques. Such transitions are essential for giving more sense to all components designed. The flow of action in terms of 'stir and settle' is organized better through the EM according to 76 %. Fourteen percent are undecided and ten percent do not agree with this statement. The stir and settle principle may not be an approach each trainee is accustomed to. It has to be emphasized in the methodological feedback sessions. According to 86%, the EM makes placing each single input into the grid simple. The parts of information about a single technique in each line of the grid are essential for the better design of the microteaching. Therefore, developing the practicality of placement in order to create the ultimate combination is among the main goals of EM. Consequently, EM application should enable trouble-free rotation of techniques and other variables used on EM chart. According to 74%, it does but 19% are undecided and 7% do not think so. The rotation of techniques in order to suggest a better technique instead of the chosen one is among the critical processes in EM design. The results suggest that some trainees should revise and develop their technical repertoire and practice placing the most suitable technique in the grid. Ninety-three percent state that through the EM grid, they can easily detect what is missing in the plan. It may be argued that the compact and complete planning method exercised in the EM enables troubleshooting. Accordingly, 91% think that EM is practical to draft and rearrange. Sixty-seven percent think that the EM design may recover poorly made microteaching plans. However, 19% are undecided and 14% disagree. The recovery function after the detection of problems needs further discussions and exercises to improve since it is among the key processes in the EM experience. To display the EM chart on the classroom wall during the presentation helps the instructor and peers follow the microteaching easily. Seventy-nine percent agree with this statement whereas 12% are undecided and 12% disagree. According to 67%, the EM makes receiving feedback easier. Twenty-four percent are undecided and 7% disagree. Trainees are free to hand out personal feedback forms to peers and collect them after the presentation. Nevertheless, this simple system is rarely employed by the trainees. They prefer to receive feedback only from the trainer.

3.2. Items 16-20

Ninety-three percent support the idea that the EM should include 'technique, method and aim' columns. Such a strong support to this idea strengthens one of the pillars of the EM which is "technique" and its methodological source. According to 69%, the EM should include "learner response type, materials, and time" columns but 24% are undecided. The learner response type is a critical aspect from the perspective of communicative language teaching. Materials column lists the realia, teaching aids and other materials developed for the microteaching. It is a reminder to avoid 'dry' presentations. Fifty-four percent think that the EM should include 'communication type' column. The percentage of undecided ones is 29 and 14% disagree. The trainee must create and design the maximum amount and possible types of communication intended. According to 20%, the EM should include "instructions" column and 36% are undecided. The percentage of trainees who do not want to include instructions in EM is 45. Instructions that require long sentences may not be suitable for the grid. Instructions for the techniques are important but may not be vital for a compact matrix design. Twenty percent think that the integrated-skills EM should not exceed ten techniques. Thirty-six percent are undecided and 45% do not agree with this statement. In this respect, the majority think that it can exceed ten techniques. Integrated-skills microteachings simulate teaching almost full units. However, participants think that very long microteachings may cause problems.

3.3. Items 20-24

As for the future impact of EM, ninety-three percent think that the EM application may facilitate making better unit plans in the future. Furthermore, 79% may use it in regular lesson planning. Eighty-three percent may also modify it for their future teaching profiles. From future valorization perspective, the EM can easily play an important part in preparing lesson and unit plans. Finally, from a broader perspective, the EM application may facilitate better syllabus design according to 83%.

4. Conclusion

The eclectic matrix experience and the research on its implications for teacher training focus on how to design single-skill and integrated skills ELT microteachings in terms of producing flexible plans from eclectic perspective. The elasticity comes from its combinatorial design that enables trainees to draft and redraft the collection of freelance techniques and the ones from popular methods until they reach the perfect mixture. Technical mismatch is very real during merging and drafting. Nevertheless, eclectic approach offers trainees a wide range of techniques to use and also opportunities to create new ones freely taking into account the target learner group and the dynamics of the instruction suitable for them. The EM may assist trainees with the technical selection and promote well-designed microteachings.

The EM study is a long term action research. ELT teacher trainees' opinions about EM are vital for its further development and implementation. This research focuses on trainees' views on current eclectic matrix experience, the EM design improvement, and its future potential. The analysis of these issues, as presented above, suggests that throughout the experience the trainees developed flexibility in microteaching planning in terms of constructing the efficient combination of techniques. Experiences of this sort are their initial applied attempts of instructional planning.

The responses from the teacher trainees display a highly positive reaction to the points in all parts of the questionnaire. They assert that the suggested system is analytically and holistically constructive.

Its convenient frame makes drafting and rearranging unproblematic. The views on its future potential are also particularly affirmative.

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İngiliz dili eğitimi mikro-öğretimlerinde entegre ve tek beceriler için seçmeci matriks uygulaması

Öz

Yabancı dil becerilerinin tek tek ve tümleşik biçimde öğretimi birçok İngilizce öğretmenliği programında önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Mikro-öğretim seviyesindeki bu deneyimler klasik ders planının ötesinde daha detaylı bir planlama gerektirir. Önerilen tasarımda seçmeci matriks yöntemi ile öğretmen adaylarının ders ya da ünite şablonlarına gerekli bağlamlarda bilgi girmesi ile uygulama planın sorunsuz bir yapı haline gelene kadar geliştirilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Bu çalışma seçmeci matriks uygulamaları ile mikro-öğretim deneyimi olan öğretmen adaylarının sistem hakkındaki düşüncelerini üç bölümlü bir sormaca ile belirleyip sonuçları tartışmaktadır. Adaylar matriks uygulamasının akademik olarak etkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Seçmeci matriks; İngiliz dili eğitimi; yöntembilim, mikro-öğretim; öğretmen adayı; mikro-öğretim tasarımı; yabancı dil öğretim teknikleri

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