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Review Article

Translanguaging: Insights into its Theoretical Underpinnings and Classroom Implications

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Abstract: Language is an ever-developing and ever-changing phenomenon. Therefore, how it is dealt with in teaching/learning settings also develop and change. Translanguaging is a relatively new example of such efforts, challenging the L2-dominant language classrooms and the idealized status of native speaker teachers. It suggests both L1 and L2 can be used in harmony in class, which would yield positive results in terms of language acquisition. What is more, second language learners do not aim to achieve native-like proficiency any more. They would rather communicate by accessing whatever is available in their communicative repertoire, which also justifies the use of Translanguaging. In the light of the facts mentioned above, this study aims to provide insights into theoretical underpinnings and classroom implications of Translanguaging, which has been receiving increasingly more attention in recent years.

Keywords: *Translanguaging, multilingual, bilingual, second language, first language*

INTRODUCTION

Language is an ever-developing and ever-changing phenomenon, thus ways to teach a language also develop and undergo changes in progress of time. To keep up with these developments and changes, new approaches are offered from time to time. Some of them are Blended Learning, Flipped Classroom, Content and Language Integrated Learning just to name but a few. Translanguaging, which is what this paper focuses on, is a relatively new example of such efforts. Actually, the term itself is not something new. It first appeared in the mid-1990s in Wales. The term takes its root from the Welsh word "trawsieithu" which was coined by Williams (1994). It was first called "translinguifying" in English, and then translated and made popular by Baker (2001) as "translanguaging". According to him, it is "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (Baker, 2011, p. 288). Garcia (2009b), a strong advocate of translanguaging, says "Translanguaging is the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential" (p. 140). Another major proponent of translanguaging, Canagarajah (2011a), defined it as "the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (p. 401).

Until recent times, translanguaging was only benefited in limited contexts, especially in Wales where it had been originated. Although it was put forward twenty five years ago, only recently has it been discussed on a large scale. From this aspect, it is similar to the concept of needs analysis, which was first mentioned as "analysis of needs" in the 1920s by Michael West in India (West, 1994), but it was given close attention only as of the 1970s. What is the reason of such ignorance? The reason

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might be that both terms were not coined in the countries in the limelight. Thus, they might have been ignored until when they could not be ignored any longer, as the changes brought by the era we live in make these terms inevitable. In terms of translanguaging, it can be argued that the fact that the borders between countries are getting transparent with each passing day also manifests itself in teaching and learning environments. Learners with different first languages, different cultural backgrounds, different nationalities, and different races come together in a classroom with the same goals. In the past, the classrooms were not as diverse as today, thus it did not constitute a big problem to cater for this diversity among learners. In other words, monolingual, or maybe bilingual, classrooms of the past are now replaced by multilingual classrooms. This increasing diversity and multilinguality have also challenged the idealized status of native speakers, and having native-like proficiency has undergone a radical change. As Flores and Aneja (2017) state, "the goal of language development is no longer for students to attain 'native-like' proficiency, but rather for students to strategically choose features of their communicative repertoire in ways that reflect their bi/multilingual identities and that accommodate their interlocutors" (p. 443). Besides, it is presumed that 80% of the English teachers worldwide are non-native English-speaking teachers, outnumbering their native English-speaking counterparts (Freeman et al., 2015). Therefore, nativeness has lost its position in the field, and it can be argued that English does not belong to any specific country, region or nation anymore. In the light of all these changes, translanguaging constitutes one of the efforts aiming to address the needs brought by the era we live in.

WHAT ARE THE THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF 'TRANSLANGUAGING'?

Essentially, translanguaging is an interpretation of bilingualism and multilingualism. MacSwan (2017) states it appeared as a new concept within bilingual education. In a similar vein, Duarte (2018) says it was introduced as a tool enabling use of several languages in multilingual classrooms. Vogel and Garcia (2017) also state translanguaging presents a distinct theoretical insight into bi- and multilingualism. The terms 'bilingualism' and 'multilingualism' refer to the use of at least two languages by an individual or by a group of speakers (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). In these approaches, as proposed in Cummins's "two solitudes" assumption (2008), languages are treated separately and learners' first language is regarded of less value. Unlike these approaches, translanguaging promotes the use of different languages, including learners' first language, interchangeably and treats each language used in the classroom equally. It also suggests "selecting and deploying particular features from a unitary linguistic repertoire to make meaning and to negotiate particular communicative contexts" (Vogel & Garcia, 2017, p. 1). Therefore, it can be argued that translanguaging aims to create a single linguistic repertoire making use of both L1 and L2, and other languages if they are present in the classroom. This contradicts the common belief that strongly promotes the use of the target language during classes, and strictly restricts L1 use. Translanguaging embraces the use of the first language among others, and accepts that instead of being in competition, different languages can work well together. With the help of their teachers, learners are able to use different languages in the classroom, which enhances their learning. Thanks to translanguaging, how individuals use all of their language resources to accomplish their goals has become more emphasised compared to how many languages they are able to make use of (Conteh, 2018). In addition, Vogel and Garcia (2017) accentuate three basic assumptions underpinned in translanguaging theory as follows:

> "1. It posits that individuals select and deploy features from a unitary linguistic repertoire to communicate.
> 2. It takes up a perspective on bi- and multilingualism that privileges speakers' own dynamic linguistic and semiotic practices above the named languages of nations and states.
> 3. It still recognizes the material effects of socially constructed named language categories and structuralist language ideologies, especially for minoritized language speakers" (p.4).

These notions aim to oppose the segregationist stance of bilingualism and multilingualism, which maintains that languages develop separately. This idea is supported by the 'Discredited

Hypothesis' which is called 'separate underlying proficiency' (SUP) termed by Cummins (1984). This hypothesis suggests that languages exist in different balloons inside the brain. As one balloon is inflated, the other one proportionally becomes deflated. It assumes that there is no connection and no transfer between first and second languages, and each language functions on its own. The theory suggests that proficiency in a second language is only achieved through instruction in and exposure to that language, and first language should not be used for instruction. Cummins (1984) coined this term not to advocate it, but to reveal a possibility. As a matter of fact, there is not any research in the literature supporting this point of view (Baker & Jones, 1998). Research indicates that there is substantial amount of interaction between first and second languages, and this interaction happens easily (Baker & Jones, 1998). In the same vein, Kecskes and Papp (2003) state that transfer between L1 and L2 routinely occurs. Proponents of translanguaging also posit that multilingual individuals process different languages in their repertoire synchronously (Canagarajah, 2011a). Coined by Cummins (1984), common underlying proficiency (CUP) draws upon this idea. It postulates that when individuals produce output, languages operate separately, but in terms of cognitive functions, they work interdependently, which means knowledge of the first language influences the acquisition of the second language. Translanguaging draws on the latter model, i.e. CUP, because it places first language and second language side-by-side, and offers that resorting to the first language contributes to the development of the second. CUP develops via four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, writing, practiced in both first and second languages. This theory also explains why it becomes easier to learn another language after a second language is acquired. Just as the balloon metaphor in SUP, Cummins (1984) used the iceberg metaphor to elaborate CUP. At the surface, an individual seems to perform multiple languages, but at the bottom lies CUP, in other words, the whole linguistic repertoire which makes communication possible through various languages. Cummins (2000, p. 39) also argues that "Conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible". It means when a learner comprehends the meaning of a word in his/her first language, what is needed to be done is just to label it in his/her second language. Regarding second language acquisition, Cummins (1979) also proposed 'Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis', which is another theoretical basis for translanguaging. According to this hypothesis, it is possible to pass on linguistic and/or metalinguistic activities that have been acquired in a language to another language (Cummins, 1979). In other words, learners are able to transfer competencies between available linguistic systems.

As mentioned before, the term "translanguaging" is not something new. Until its emergence, there had been some similar concepts to address the same needs as translanguaging does. These are code-switching and code-mixing. As stated in Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, the former means:

> "a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one. Code switching can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 89).

On the other hand, code mixing was described as "using two languages such that a third, new code emerges, in which elements from the two languages are incorporated into a structurally definable pattern" (Maschler, 1998, p. 125). These terms are mostly used interchangeably, but there are some differences. People use code switching deliberately to communicate and make themselves clear, not because of lack of knowledge. However, on the other hand, code mixing happens when people are not able to convey what they mean, and change code. Some scholars argue whether there is a need for translanguaging in the presence of the above-mentioned concepts which already discuss the use of more than one language interchangeably. Nevertheless, translanguaging differs from them. Code switching occurs when more than one language are used intrasententially or intersententially (Cook, 2001). This approach did not use to be embraced in mainstream language classrooms in which the language that learners were aiming to acquire was deemed the primary source of interaction. It has

been admitted that teachers are benefiting from code switching in language classrooms for various functions, and it is not something to be abstained from. A relatively new term, translanguaging bears similarities with code switching in that both involve people who are able to use more than one language and to communicate through languages at their disposal. Distinctively, translanguaging emerged as a pedagogy in Welsh bilingual classrooms and involved the deliberate switching of the linguistic mode of input and output (Williams, 2002, as cited in Park, 2013). Unlike code switching, translanguaging puts the first and second languages side-by-side systematically and consists of such processes as "meaning making, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (Baker, 2011, p. 288).

Translanguaging also claims that named languages are social constructions imposed upon individuals. According to Otheguy et al. (2015), it also makes a distinction between how society reacts when somebody can use two named languages (the external perspective), and how a person views features of language (the internal perspective). They also assert that notions such as "first language", "second language", "native speaker", and named languages such as "English", "French" are what people use to describe their linguistic skills, but these are social constructs, not linguistically true. Translanguaging posits that instead of such named, discrete languages, we all have one linguistic system. Some scholars oppose this idea and argue that there is no need for the concept of translanguaging, suggesting that the abandonment of named languages will also bring about the abandonment of the concepts 'bilingualism' and 'multilingualism' and in that case the term "languaging" would suffice (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). The term "languaging" was coined by Swain (2006) and defined as "a process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (p.98). In this definition, "making meaning" involves the communication process in which meaning is exchanged between the two parties of a speech (Matthiessen, 2006). As stressed by Swain (2006), learning is achieved partly thanks to languaging, which enables learners to function based on their linguistic knowledge, to comprehend what they have not fully understood before and therefore to shape their knowledge. In light of these, according to her, through languaging, learners are able to recognize things, which they have not before, regarding their L2. They then make an effort to set these things right through their L2 to steer their mindset. In fact, the two terms, namely languaging and translanguaging, complement each other. Languaging promotes the establishment of linguistic knowledge and translanguaging broadens this knowledge as the brain becomes competent in L2. Therefore, Garcia and Wei (2014) believe that the prefix (trans-) should be kept. Languaging and translanguaging are natural and inevitable processes, they will manifest themselves even if they are restricted or forbidden because after we are born, we cannot avoid acquiring at least one language, in other words the languaging process cannot be avoided, or no matter how hard the mainstream approaches try to limit the use of first languages, translanguaging will happen one way or another. Even if only target language is used in the classroom, the learner will mix his / her first and second languages outside the classroom. In this respect, rather than letting the learner do this disorderly, practicing this systematically through translanguaging in the classroom benefits the learner more.

WHAT DOES CURRENT RESEARCH TELL US ABOUT TRANSLANGUAGING?

There are numerous studies being conducted in the field regarding translanguaging to justify its use in the classroom, because it challenges the practices of conventional language classrooms. Benefited in these classrooms, "many previous constructs arise from pitting one language against another, treating multilinguals as non-native and, therefore, lacking ownership in some languages" (Canagarajah, 2011b, p. 2). Translanguaging challenges this stance, and current research is yielding useful results to help us gain useful insights into it. For example, Rasman (2018), in his study of an EFL class in Indonesia, found that as opposed to the traditional belief, the use of the first language in the classroom does not hinder the acquisition of the second language. In fact, as he concluded, through scaffolding and peer interaction, translanguaging helps learners' linguistic repertoire improve, and the idea of having a nativelike proficiency is deeply rooted in the students' beliefs and this idea should be eliminated with the help of the teacher so that they will be more open to translanguaging. Wang's study (2016) yielded similar results. She administered a questionnaire to Chinese students at a beginner level English class to reveal their attitudes towards multiple language use. The results

demonstrated that both students and teachers believe translanguaging exhibits practical scaffolding techniques, and enhances classroom communication and teacher-student relationship. She also suggests a variety of ways through which translanguaging can be developed, and according to which, teachers should: a) renew knowledge on language learning, b) facilitate structured translanguaging strategies, c) develop a transformative teacher-student role.

There is research, on the other hand, yielding contradicting results. A study by Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri (2015), for instance, presented interesting findings. They collected data from students majoring in English Language Teaching through semi-structured interviews. The participants' responses revealed three overlapping views, which are: a) L1 use in the classroom is ineffective, b) Acceptability of L1 use is conditional, c) Translanguaging is natural for multilinguals. The participants thus reported little support for translanguaging, stating that it blocks L2 acquisition in that it inhibits the cognitive processes, promotes laziness, and includes translation between L1 and L2. They even associated it with grammar-translation method, which would be a backward pedagogical move. Some other criticisms have recently been leveled at translanguaging, also. One of these criticisms comes from May (2018). He states that translanguaging places insufficient emphasis on "the ongoing impact of structural constraints such as unequal 'capital', access to education, mobility, family background, personal dispositions, language ideologies, political oppression, etc." (p. 65). Jaspers (2018) also criticizes translanguaging by arguing that "[it] trades on causality effects that cannot be taken for granted and in doing so, translanguaging scholars have more in common with the monolingual authorities they criticize than it may seem" (p. 5). Although translanguaging has been embraced as an alternative approach in a rapidly globalizing world, there is also the debate as to whether it involuntarily promotes "the neoliberal subject" which handles multilingualism as a favor to globalization and as a tool that provides personpower to markets (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). In this regard, it is criticized as being an extension of colonialism (Flores, 2013), and in a study conducted in colonial Lesotho and Sri Lanka, Brutt-Griffler (2002) argues that the British benefited education in first language in their colonies in order to provide labor force to factories and agriculture. The South African Constitution has 12 official languages, and it gives the citizens the right to use and receive education in any of these languages. It seems to support bilingual education practices, but it also supports the polarization of people who have their own languages (Flores and Bale, 2016). According to Garcia (2009a), there are no strict boundaries between such minority languages, but most bilingual education programs embitter their marginalization. As an alternative-and as response-to monoglossic language perspectives, she thus advocates drawing on heteroglossic language ideologies which would allow linguistically diverse learners to use language in more fluid and flexible ways. Notwithstanding all such critiques of translanguaging, Garcia and Wei (2014) put emphasis on its potential and state that translanguaging is able "to transform not only semiotic systems and speaker subjectivities, but also socio-political structures" (p. 43).

While there is research for or against translanguaging practices in the current literature, Canagarajah (2011b) points out "some limitations" of them, which are:

a. Researchers pay their attention to producing difference, not to discussing it.

b. There is no data regarding the participants' stance towards translanguaging practices. We only know how the researcher interprets and responds to them.

c. Translanguaging studies are carried out in a product-oriented manner. Processes are ignored.

d. Translanguaging is restricted to multilingual individuals in current research. Native English Speakers are excluded.

e. Available studies in the literature mostly focus on face-to-face oral interactions. It is still not clear whether or how translanguaging functions in other types of communication. In a similar vein, there is not adequate research on translanguaging in writing.

The above-mentioned limitations in current research should be eliminated to dispel concerns and to enable translanguaging to be more widely accepted, which requires more time and attention.

HOW CAN 'TRANSLANGUAGING' BE IMPLEMENTED IN THE L2 CLASSROOM?

How specific discursive practices in the L2 classroom-such as translanguaging-could be implemented depend on the larger social contexts of the classroom (Lin, 1999). Therefore, the implementation process should be context-specific and teachers should analyze their classrooms well. Along the same line, this paper tries to present some classroom procedures that might work well in a classroom context where students with diverse background or different L1s are present.

The aim of every language classroom is to make learners proficient in the target language. To achieve this aim, translanguaging provides learners with an area of practice where they can use the target language and first language freely. Through this practice and translanguaging then, learners are able to develop their proficiency. This idea also goes well together with the concept of scaffolding. It can well be argued that the relationship between translanguaging and scaffolding is a two-way street; the former is a useful tool for the latter, or vice versa. Bruner (1983, p. 60) defines scaffolding as "a process of 'setting up' the situation to make the child's entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handling the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it". This process goes more smoothly thanks to translanguaging. Regarding the relationship between the two, as Jones and Lewis (2014, p. 160) state:

> "Translanguaging may be less obvious as a strategy when the language level of the pupil may be insufficient to assimilate content and engage in the process of learning. In such circumstances, pupils need language support if they are to participate in translanguaging tasks in the classroom. The teacher needs to support the pupils by scaffolding the translanguaging activity".

Therefore, to promote translanguaging, scaffolding activities or techniques can be used in the classroom providing an environment where learners feel free to use their language repertoires. Along the same line, Daniel et al. (2019) provided some examples of scaffolding for translanguaging. In the study, the second-and third-grade elementary school teachers designed for their English language learners (ELLs) a scaffolding activity in which they first created an environment for their students where they could talk about their private lives and exchange their translanguaging experiences. Then, they were asked to think and talk about their experiences of benefiting from translating, which revealed that they thought translanguaging is useful for communication and academic achievement. In this way, the teachers aimed to make their students realize how useful translation is and to scaffold a collective consciousness that they translanguage in every part of their lives. In another lesson, the teachers scaffolded such translation strategies as borrowing, negating antonyms, using cognates and circumlocution. The students translated sentences from a book benefiting from these strategies, which would enable them to shuttle between languages more freely. In another lesson, the teachers implemented a transliteration activity. One of the teachers asked the students to say, "I speak Spanish" and "I speak Arabic" in their corresponding languages. Although she knew how to write them correctly, she did so with few spelling mistakes. Next, she asked them to correct the mistakes and to extend the sentence (for example, "I speak Spanish with my mother at church"). In his study, Canagarajah (2011a) argues that conversational questions and peer comments are useful in scaffolding students to translanguage and that teachers' own use of L1 and L2 interchangeably in the class is another way of scaffolding. In a similar vein, Jones and Lewis (2014) provided an example activity in their work (pp. 161-163), in which students were asked to complete a translanguaging task in a Religious Education class. First, they read a text in English and wrote five facts regarding the content in Welsh. The teacher helped them read and understand the English text, and then supported them while writing in Welsh. Another way to implement translanguaging in the L2 classrooms is labelling the objects in the classroom in both first and second languages. Therefore, learners become familiar with the written forms of the words that they usually use during their time at school. Besides, they are able to establish links between the first and second languages. Translanguaging can also be implemented through making a lot of bilingual books or sources available to the learners. Thanks to such books or sources, the learners are able to see and compare their first and second languages, and make a connection between them. To the same end, online sources can also be made use of. Learners

can watch videos in their second language with subtitles in their first language, or videos in their first language with subtitles in their second language. Thus, they have a chance to be exposed to authentic use and different dialects of the target language and observe how the meaning is conveyed into their first language, or observe how their first language seems in their second language. Such activities can also be a way out for teachers following an intense lesson, and the learners can have fun and learn at the same time.

Group work has always been effective in language classrooms, and translanguaging could well benefit from it, too. It is likely for teachers to have students with different first languages and different cultural backgrounds in a classroom. Therefore, when the teacher groups his/her students, it is better to group those with the same first language together, which allows them to comprehend the task better, and to produce a better result. This also creates chances for introvert students to mingle with their friends, and to take part in the lesson. Besides, students learn from each other, so such activities also promote peer learning. In these collaborative groups, students discuss the task in their first language and deliver it in their second language, which would be a good example of translanguaging.

It should not be forgotten that a good teacher is also a good learner. To create a space for translanguaging, teachers should try to learn at least the basics of their students' language and culture. After creating this space, they should also make sure that the students use it. Besides, they should try to keep up with the advances that the era we live in has brought, and to be acquainted with the problems that their student might be experiencing. Thus, both parties have more things in common to discuss, which also increases the motivation of the learners and which creates a better interactive teaching / learning environment.

On a similar note, Kim and Song (2019) point out the significance of establishing a translanguaging space on a larger scale. Therefore, they aimed to expand the scope of translanguaging through social collaboration. To this end, they pioneered a practice called *community translanguaging* in which families with various backgrounds came together to create a family storybook. The aim was to establish a collective communicative repertoire including multiple languages and modes. The project yielded beneficial results for each party involving in it, namely educators, students, and families. The researchers imply that implementing such activities would eliminate such differences as age, ethnicity, race, culture and language, and thus create a better space to translanguage.

As a concrete example of translanguaging, Mwinda and Van der Walt (2015) benefited from translation, which is a useful method when the mutual use of L1 and L2 is aimed, and preview-view-review (PVR) strategy (Garcia, 2009a). The latter holds that the lesson is introduced in L1, taught in English (L2) and finished in L1 again, which would enable learners to reveal what they have learnt. They had their students translate texts from Rumanyo (a minority language spoken in Namibia and some other countries) to English and then vice versa. They also made use of pictures to enrich their vocabulary. Thanks to these methods, the researchers were able to analyse the students' needs and problems and to develop their L2 vocabulary.

Stating that English used in academia today is mostly derived from Latin and Greek, and there are lots of cognates between English and other Romance languages, Cummins (2005) argues that encouraging learners to benefit from these cognates is useful for L2 acquisition. Looking for similar meanings in their L1 repertoire while reading a text in L2 is helpful in transferring L1 knowledge to L2. He also suggested making use of *sister class projects* in which students from different countries use their L1 and L2 to produce art and literary works and/or to discuss social issues in an electronic environment and that such activities possess the potential of having learners engaged in language learning and/or maintenance.

Combining technology, gamification and translanguaging, Deutsche Welle, German international public broadcaster, initiated an interactive language teaching program called *Harry-gefangen in der Zeit* (Deutsche Welle, n.d.) for those who would like to learn German. Harry, an English native speaker, is a fictional character trapped in a time loop in Germany, where he goes as a

tourist with his girlfriend. His days in Germany keep repeating themselves and nobody believes him. Therefore, in order to explain himself better and get out of this time loop, Harry has to learn German, and the player helps him to do so while learning German.

It would also be useful to include some ideas for translanguaging practices in parallel with the context of the journal. In their study, Mary and Young (2017) present the experiences of a preschool teacher teaching French to Turkish learners among those of some other nationalities. The teacher made use of culture-specific elements/words to establish rapport with the students and to increase their motivation. In the mentioned study, the teacher used the word *lahmacun* (a pizza-like Turkish dish) to do so. The teacher also hung some pieces of paper stating such things as "Do you need to use the toilet?" in the students' home languages on the wall in order to address their immediate needs. The teacher also sang a nursery rhyme in French and then translated it into Turkish. On another occasion, the teacher repeated what Turkish students said in their L1 by reformulating some of the statements such as "And you, mouse?/Ve sen?/And you?". Therefore, the teacher enabled the students to shuttle between their languages and to use their linguistic repertoires without restrictions. In another example, two Turkish students read a story in French then commented on and retold it in Turkish. During this process, the teacher did not interrupt them, so these two students enjoyed the story in their L1. However, French was not completely absent in the process. Afterwards, the teacher checked a word/picture book with these students and they benefited from their knowledge of both Turkish and French (Mary & Young, 2017).

Winning the 2018 ELTons Digital Innovation award, *Fun with Ruby Rei* (Cambridge University Press & Wubbi, n.d.), an adventure game for English learners, can also be a good example for translanguaging activities. The game is only available in Turkey, Mexico and Spain, thus, Turkish and Spanish learners of English can benefit from it. In the game, the main character is called Ruby Rei. She is trapped on a planet while travelling, loses her friend/robot and tries to find it. The player helps her throughout her adventure while learning English. During the game, the player can click on the sentences that Ruby Rei utters and see the Turkish or Spanish translation. Thus, he/she can establish links between English and his/her L1.

Since the immigrant population in Turkey is increasing each day, the use of above-mentioned activities could be incorporated into classrooms of any kind to create more space for translanguaging-related pedagogies in the context of the present study.

CONCLUSION

In consideration of all insights presented in this paper, the researchers take a positive stance towards the use of translanguaging. The use of L1 during class time should not be something to be abstained from, because it might contribute to student learning and classroom interaction. According to what Salı (2014) indicated in her study, L1 could serve such key functions in L2 classrooms as academic, managerial and social/cultural. To illustrate, L1 in language classrooms could be used to facilitate learner comprehension, to deal with disruptive behavior and to establish rapport in the classroom. As long as L1 is used purposefully, these affordances should not be ignored. Besides, when everyone shares the same L1 in an L2 classroom, it might be inevitable to use it. Even if the teacher does not speak L1 in the classroom, students speak it one way or another. Therefore, it would be beneficial to do so in a systematic way, as is also proposed by translanguaging. In addition, as Salı (2014) states, language teachers do not appear to have a clear understanding about how and/or when to benefit from L1. Translanguaging can thus present teachers a framework by which they can use L1 and L2 in a planned way.

Consequently, translanguaging maintains that learners benefit from a single semiotic repertoire that integrates different linguistic features of lexis, morphology, and grammar, body language, and social practices rather than alternating between two interdependent language systems (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). It posits rather a radical idea, which promotes the use of L1 as much as L2 in the classroom, thus contradicting the traditional practices. Therefore, this might make it difficult to embrace in a short

time. As mentioned before, although translanguaging is not a new term, it has recently been addressed as pedagogy. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted, and criticisms against it should be argued out so that translanguaging can gain a more solid place in the field.

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Research Article

EFL Students' Perceptions of Using COCA to Develop Their Vocabulary

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Abstract: This paper presents a research study investigating students' perceptions about the use of COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) to expand their English vocabulary. The purpose of the study is to determine perceived benefits of using online corpora for improving EFL students' vocabulary from the perspective of students. In the study, a group of EFL students in the Preparatory School at a state university in Turkey were introduced what a corpus is and how to use it to develop their vocabulary. The study was carried out for four weeks and the participants attended three hours of instruction each week. After each instruction, students were required to do some corpus-based vocabulary activities. The data for this research were collected via a questionnaire. At the end of the fourth week, the students reflected their perceptions about using the online corpus (COCA) in the questionnaire given. The data gathered from the study were analyzed quantitatively. The results indicated that most of the students think that using COCA as an online corpus is highly beneficial to enriching their English vocabulary. The results will supply EFL teachers with planning information about how corpora and corpus-based vocabulary activities might best be integrated into English language curriculum.
Keywords: *corpus, corpora, corpus-based vocabulary activities, vocabulary, perceptions*

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, corpus-informed approaches have greatly affected foreign language teaching and second language acquisition research. Language corpora are used as an important language learning tool in second language learning today (Al Saeed & Waly, 2009; Dash, 2003; Varley, 2008). It is believed that corpora is a crucial source as it enables us to access reliable, authentic and various information that can hardly be found in other sources. Since corpora provides learners with a variety of opportunities to see language properties from various directions, second language learning (SLL) that lacks of reference to corpora does not seem scientific (Varley, 2008). Basically, the data gathered from corpora presents important complementary sides for traditional linguistic principles of SLL (Biber, 1996 as cited in Varley, 2008).

In language teaching, there are two basic types of using corpora: "(a) as a primary resource and (b) as a secondary resource" (Varley, 2008, p.3). Using corpus as a main resource refers to the direct use of corpora in the second language learning (SSL) classrooms or language laboratories. Therefore, students have an opportunity to access corpora directly in order to get the information they search and improve their language skills. The second type of the use of corpora addresses to benefit from corpora in the design of foreign language materials such as syllabuses, grammar books and bilingual dictionaries (Varley, 2008).

Besides different areas like genre analysis, semantics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics, today, corpus linguistics applies to language teaching. Moreover, it is used as an instructional tool to teach vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, listening and speaking (Fligelstone, 1993). In this sense, considering the effect of corpus linguistics on foreign language teaching and learning, this study investigated students' perceptions of using an online corpus (COCA) to develop their vocabulary.

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THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Vocabulary is an important part of foreign language learning since it is necessary for learners to know a wide range of vocabulary in order to develop their language skills. Moreover, the master of the vocabulary of the foreign language has a great effect on learners' expression in communication (Chao, 2008). Thus, in foreign language instruction, much more attention should be paid to the importance of vocabulary learning both by teachers and students. There are different ways of teaching and learning vocabulary. However, it is still difficult for most of the learners to enlarge their vocabulary of the target language (Feng-xia, 2009). Therefore, new techniques of teaching and learning vocabulary should be integrated into foreign language curriculum.

In recent year years, computers have facilitated language learning to a great extent. With regard to foreign language learning and teaching, one of the significant outcomes of computer technology is corpus linguistics. Corpus linguistics can be applied to teaching vocabulary in English language instruction as a new way of helping students to widen their English vocabulary.

As this study focuses on using corpora in English language teaching, the following section will give information about what a corpus is and what kind of corpora teachers can use for teaching English.

Corpus-based Lessons

It is not possible to say exactly how many words English contains. Global Language Monitor has reported that there are nearly a million words (988,968) in English. Researchers also attempted to find out the number of words native speakers use in order to evaluate how many words learners must learn. The results indicate that the number of words native speakers know changes between 12.000 and 20.000 according to their level of education (Goulden, Nation, and Read, 1990 as cited in McCarten, 2007). Another result shows that almost 20.000 word families, except expressions and phrases, are known by a native speaker university graduate. When these numbers are taken into consideration, it seems that it is impossible for foreign language learners and even for many native speakers to know all of these words (McCarten, 2007).

Fortunately, learners can operate in English using fewer than 20.000 words. Determining the number of various words used in an average spoken or written text also enables us to decide how many words learners need. Because of the repetition of some high frequency words, learners are said to understand many texts through a relatively small vocabulary. Therefore, for instance, nearly 80 percent of words in an average text should be understood by learners who know the most frequent 2000 words .In addition, learners' understanding is enhanced to 88.7 percent with a knowledge of 5000 words (Francis and Kucera 1982 as cited in McCarten, 2007). With regard to spoken language, almost 1800 words constitute over 80 percent of the spoken corpus (McCarthy, 2004; O'Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007 as cited in McCarten, 2007). Although learning up to 5000 words is still difficult for learners, it is possible for many learners to accomplish this learning goal instead of learning 20.000 words.

As a result, it is essential that the most frequent 2000 to 5000 vocabulary items be found and they be given priority in teaching**.** In addition, students must be autonomous learners. It is impossible for teachers to teach the vast number of the vocabulary items students need to know. Therefore, students need help about how to learn vocabulary and what to learn (McCarten, 2007).

What can we learn from the corpus about vocabulary?

A corpus basically consists of a variety of texts stored in a computer (McCarten, 2007). Crystal (1992) defines the corpus as "a collection of linguistic data, either compiled as written texts or as a transcription of recorded speech" (p.85). Crystal (1992) also states that a corpus aims to prove a hypothesis on language - for instance, to identify how the usage of a specific sound, word or syntactic construction changes. The collection of texts in a corpus can include written or spoken language. Written texts such as magazines and newspapers can be entered into the computer by means of a scanner, a CD

or the Internet. Spoken texts, like conversations, can be loaded into the computer database after the conversations are recorded and transcribed. As a result, a corpus enables us to analyze the language in the corpus and see how people really speak or write through corpus software tools (McCarten, 2007).

A large corpus contains different sections, or subcorpora, which includes various types of English such as "subcorpora of different varieties like North American English and British English, or different types of language like conversation, newspapers, business English, and academic English" (McCarten, 2007, p.2). In order to integrate the corpus in to the design of the syllabus, the first step is to determine the type of English that will be used for the course material because different corpora provide the teachers with various words and different uses of words to teach. For instance, although the word "nice" is in the top fifteen words in conversation, it is not frequent in written academic English. Another example is the word "see*"*. The corpus analysis shows that it has the same frequency both in written academic English and conversation; however, it has a variety of uses. In written academic English, the word "see*"* is generally used to guide the reader to another article or a book such as *see McCarthy, 2004*.

In conversation, "see*"* has different uses. For example, "*I see",* which means "I understand," and "*See"* and "*You see",* which introduce what the speaker feels is new information for the listener (McCarten, 2007, p.2).

Consequently, the kind of the corpus the teachers use can influence which words will be used in the course material and which meanings of those words will be taught to learners

McCarten (2007) summarizes what can be learnt from the corpus about vocabulary:

"**Frequency:** Which words and expressions are most frequent and which are rare
Differences in speaking and writing: Which vocabulary is more often spoken and which is more often written
Contexts of use: The situations in which people use certain vocabulary
Collocation: Which words are often used together
Grammatical patterns: How words and grammar combine to form patterns
Strategic use of vocabulary: Which words and expressions are used to organize and manage discourse" (p. 3).

According to McCarten (2007), the huge amount of data in the corpus, which can contain millions of words, can be analyzed through corpus tools. The corpus enables us to reach not only "statistical kind of information (a quantitative analysis)" but also a great number of texts which offer an opportunity to analyze the use of vocabulary in context – "a qualitative analysis" (p.3). Nevertheless, McCarten (2007) states that it is impossible for corpus to tell the teachers what is the best way of teaching and learning vocabulary as it is only an instructional tool.

Aim of the study

The use of technology in the classroom is gaining importance day by day. Moreover, in the following years, it is likely to become a usual a part of English Language Teaching (ELT) practice. One of the technology-based instructional tools for English language instruction is the corpora. Many studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of using corpora as an instructional tool in teaching vocabulary, grammar and language use in the English language classroom (Barlow, 2002; Conrad, 2000; Neff et al., 2001; Willis, 1998; Varley, 2008).

However, little is known about students' perceptions of using online corpora to develop their vocabulary in foreign language teaching and learning. In order to help students to enlarge their vocabulary, in addition to traditional techniques and activities, new ones can be integrated into our ELT classes. Therefore, an investigation into students' perceptions of using online corpora to improve their vocabulary will give ELT teachers information about whether online corpora can be used as an

instructional tool to help students develop their vocabulary. In this sense, this study aims to answer the following research question:

- What are EFL students' perceptions of using COCA as an online corpus to develop their vocabulary?

METHODOLOGY

This paper presents research that investigates EFL students' perceptions of using an online corpus (COCA) in English courses to expand their vocabulary. The participants are EFL learners at a state university in Turkey. In this study "*perception*" refers to what students think and feel about the use of COCA to improve their vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, with this meaning, in this article the word "perception" is used interchangeably with its synonyms "view", "opinion" and "attitude".

Sample / Participants

This study was conducted at the Preparatory school at a state university in Turkey. The aim of the Preparatory School is to enhance students' language skills and enable them to follow their undergraduate studies in their own department where the medium of instruction is English. Students attend English courses for 25 hours per week in order to reach the required level. According to the results of proficiency exam students take at the beginning of the each academic year, they are placed in classes considering their English proficiency level.

The EFL students in the preparatory school attend English courses for a year to enhance their language skills and to get prepared for their subsequent four year education. These students have the instruction in their own department in English (% 30, % 50 or % 100).Therefore; they need English not only for operating successfully in the target language but also for learning English for a Specific Purpose (ESP) or for Academic Purposes (EAP). They have to access, read and analyze various English-language academic texts when they start to study in their own departments. As a result, developing their English vocabulary is very important for these students.

The participants in this study are 27 students (9 male and 18 female) at the Preparatory School. The students are at A2 level. The participants, aged between 18- 21, study in the same class but they are from different departments.

The main reason for choosing these students for the study is that they have not known what a corpus is and they have not done corpus-based activities in English courses before. In addition, perception of these students about corpus-based vocabulary activities gave information about how corpora can best be integrated into the curriculum of English courses.

Instrument(s)

The data for this research were collected via a questionnaire for students. In addition, COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) was used by the teacher and students to do some corpus-based vocabulary activities.

Student Questionnaire

The researcher prepared a questionnaire for students to gather data for this research. The questionnaire was designed to get information about students' perception of using online corpus (COCA) to develop their vocabulary. It was prepared in Turkish in order to enable students to completely understand the questions and express themselves well. The questionnaire consisted of only one section which included 16 questions eliciting responses on 5 points Likert scales. Some questions

were adapted from the questionnaires used in a previous study investigating students' attitudes towards a technology-based instructional tool (Koçak, 2010).Before the questionnaire was administered, preliminary questions in the questionnaire were checked by five English instructors working in Testing Unit in the Preparatory School to assess their validity and to get feedback about the questions and after these processes, necessary changes were made in the questionnaire. In addition, the data obtained from the study indicated that the reliability of the questionnaire, as measured by internal consistency, was found to be satisfactory (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.862$).

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) is accepted as the first big and varied corpus of American English. It was made available online in early 2008. Moreover, it contained more than 385 million words from 1990-2008 taken from spoken, fiction, newspapers, popular magazines and academic journals (Davies, 2009). The current corpus includes "more than 600 million words of text (20 million words each year 1990-2019)" (https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/) .In this study, all corpus-based activities were done via COCA.

Data collection procedures and analysis

The study was carried out for five weeks. During the four weeks of the study, the participants were introduced what a corpus is and how to use it to develop their vocabulary. They attended three hours of instruction each week. After each instruction, students were required to do some corpus-based vocabulary activities. The corpus-based activities used in the first week of the study were adapted from the activities presented at an ELT conference (Walters, 2010). The activities done by the participants in the second and third week of the study were designed by the author according to the participants' needs and language level. The fourth week's vocabulary activities which required students to use various functions of COCA they learnt till then were taken from the Internet. After students experienced corpus-based vocabulary activities, they reflected their experiences in the questionnaire in the fifth week of the study.

In the first week of the study, first of all, the students were informed about the study. They were also informed about what a corpus is, what COCA is and how to access and use it on the Internet through a power point presentation and Internet connection. The topic of the instruction in the first week of the study was frequencies and collocations. Students were taught to get information about which words are frequently used and which are rare by using the corpus. For example, students were shown how many times the word 'cause' occurs in the corpus (52908). In addition to frequencies, students are given basic instructions about "what word usually goes with X" through collocates function of the corpus. For instance, students are shown how to find on the corpus what words follow the word "incredibly" (the words that the corpus found: important, difficult, powerful, strong …). After giving instructions for using COCA to get information about frequencies and collocations, students were required to do some corpus-based activities out of the class as an assignment (shown in Appendix A).

In the second week of the study, at the beginning of the course, the answers for the students' assignments were checked and a collocation game about collocates of "do and make" were played as a whole class. In this activity, students were required to use the information they got from the corpus for their assignment about the most frequent collocates of "make and do" (shown in Appendix B).Then, the students were taught how to get data on the corpus about which vocabulary is often written and which is more spoken in English. For example, students are shown how to compare the use of "probably and however" in the written and spoken language (The data gathered from the corpus showed that "*probably"* is more frequent in spoken language than the written one (newspapers & academic texts). In addition*, "however"* is more frequent in written language (newspapers & academic texts) than the spoken one. After the activity, students were given a new assignment about topic of the instruction in the second week of the study (shown in Appendix B).

In the third week of the study students were required to do contextual analysis. First of all, they were given a number of sentences obtained from COCA and asked to analyze the context of each sentence to see why one model verb is used rather than the other. For example, students were given some sentences and asked why "must" is used instead of "have to". Secondly, they were given some sentences taken from COCA but this time, the modal verbs in the sentences were deleted. Students were required to fill in the blanks with a modal verb they think is most appropriate to use by working with a partner (I told you. Didn't I tell you? You _____fill the name! I told you in the hospital) (shown in Appendix C).

In the fourth week of the study, students were given instruction about how to find synonyms and prepositions (What preposition comes after X) on the corpus. In addition, they were given a worksheet that includes various corpus-based activities taken from the Internet (http://writingcenter.unc.edu/files/2011/12/corpus.pdf). The activities on the worksheet required students to use all the instructions they learnt during the study on using COCA. The activities were done in the class as a whole class activity by connecting to the Internet and using COCA. Therefore, students had an opportunity to revise all the basic instructions on how to use the corpus to develop their vocabulary (shown in Appendix D).

Finally, in the last week of the study (5 May, 2011), the questionnaire was conducted with the students to investigate their opinions about using the corpus to develop their vocabulary. The data gathered from the student questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively using Statistical Packages in Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 11.5. The answers to Likert type questions were analyzed quantitatively using percentages and frequencies. The results obtained from the questionnaire provided information about students' perception of using online corpus to develop their vocabulary.

FINDINGS

This study investigated tertiary level EFL students' perceptions about the use of online corpus (COCA) to develop their English vocabulary. The study explored students' perceptions about the benefits of using online corpus (COCA) in English courses in order to enlarge students' vocabulary.

The results concerning students' perceptions of using online corpus (COCA) are presented in Table 1 respectively. These questions required responses on 5-point Likert scales (ranging from "strongly disagree=1" to "strongly agree=5"). In the table, the responses "agree" and "strongly agree" are combined "A/SA"; "disagree" and "strongly disagree" are combined "D/SD".

Table-1 Students 'perceptions of using online corpus to develop their vocabulary

		A/SA	N	D/SD	M
		%	%	%	
Q 1	I believe online corpus (COCA) is useful for developing my English vocabulary	96.3	3.7	-	4.33
Q 2	Online corpus (COCA) can be used to develop my English vocabulary to support my learning	100	-	-	4.56
Q 3	I generally have positive attitudes towards using online corpus (COCA) in English courses	92.6	7.4	-	4.44
Q 4	I believe that online corpus (COCA) offers a good source to develop my English vocabulary	100	-	-	4.67
Q 5	Online corpus (COCA) enables me to access English words easily and quickly	100	-	-	4.59
Q 6	Online corpus (COCA) helps me to solve the problem of learning collocations	100	-	-	4.70
Q 7	Online corpus (COCA) helps me to see the differences between written and spoken English	92.6	7.4	-	4.59
Q 8	Online Corpus helps me to develop the skill of guessing the unknown words from the context	81.5	18.5	-	4.11

Q 9	I think that I need training to use online corpus (COCA) effectively to develop my English vocabulary (Students need training about how to use online corpus in order to use it effectively in English courses).	96.3	-	3.7	4.52
Q 10	I think using online corpus (COCA) is interesting	85.2	14.8	-	4.11
Q 11	I think using online corpus (COCA) is enjoyable	66.6	25.9	7.4	3.89
Q 12	I believe my motivation to learning new words increases by using online corpus (COCA)	81.5	14.8	3.7	3.96
Q 13	I have difficulty in using online corpus (COCA) as I do not have enough computer operating skills	11.1	-	88.9	1.78
Q 14	I liked corpus-based vocabulary activities	88.9	11.1	-	4.11
Q 15	I want to do corpus-based vocabulary activities in English courses	85.1	11.1	3.7	4.33
Q 16	I use / will use online corpus (COCA) out of the class while studying and doing homework	74.1	25.9	-	4.56

Note: M:Mean Number of Students:27
A: Agree SA: Strongly Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The mean scores of responses to the questions about the benefits of using online corpus (all questions except the questions 9 and 13) were between 3.89 and 4.70, indicating that students perceive the use of corpus (COCA) to be beneficial to their English vocabulary development. It seems that a majority of the students (96.3 %) believe that online corpus offers them many opportunities to improve their vocabulary. Moreover, all of the participants (100 %) stated that it can be used to improve their vocabulary as an instructional tool and it offers a good source to learn vocabulary.

The results also show that most of the students (92.6 %) have positive attitudes towards using online corpus in order to enlarge their vocabulary. As for the benefits of using COCA, the results indicate that the corpus enables students to access English words easily and quickly (100 %) and helps them to learn collocations without having difficulty in learning. In addition, it enables students to learn the differences between the vocabulary of spoken and written English (92.6 %) and do contextual analysis by guessing the meanings of unknown words from the context (81.5 %). With regard to the students' feelings about using the corpus to develop their vocabulary, the results show that most of the students found using corpus interesting (85.2%) and enjoyable (66.6). In addition 88.9 % of the students stated that they liked corpus-based vocabulary activities. The results also show that 81.5 % of the students believe that their motivation to learn new English words increases through using the corpus. It is noteworthy that a vast majority of the students (88.9) do not have difficulty in using COCA on the Internet. Another result gathered from the study indicated that students need training about how to use the corpus effectively to develop their vocabulary (96.3 %). The results also show that most of the students (85.1) want to do corpus-based vocabulary activities in English courses and they are using or will use COCA (74.1) as an instructional tool out of the class while studying or doing homework.

As Table 1 shows, the overall mean scores of the items indicate that students do not have difficulty in doing corpus-based activities and most of the students have positive attitudes overall towards doing corpus-based vocabulary activities in order to improve their vocabulary in English instruction.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study indicated that students perceive using online corpus (COCA) to be beneficial for their English vocabulary development. The data gathered from the study also show that students have positive viewpoints about the use of online corpus (COCA) to develop their English vocabulary. This confirms previous research, as reviewed by Varley (2008), which has indicated that

learners believe that corpora are very beneficial for their language learning and they enable learners to improve their English proficiency. A majority of the students who took part in this study think that COCA provides learners with many opportunities to enhance their vocabulary by offering a good source including a wide range of vocabulary. As a result, students can see the differences between the written and spoken language and they might use this information for speaking and writing activities.

The results show that the most important benefit of using COCA is that it helps students to find "what word usually goes with a specific word" by offering collocates function. Students generally have difficulty in using collocates and they make several mistakes while speaking and writing. The corpus helps students to solve this problem as it enables them to see easily what word comes before or follows the target word. Previous studies have also shown that giving a corpus-based vocabulary instruction designed to teach L2 learners collocational pairs is effective in developing their knowledge of collocations (Daskalovska, 2015; Jafarpour et. al., 2013; Walker, 2011). In this study, the participants learnt how to use collocates function of COCA which presents English collocations with frequency numbers. The findings of the study indicate that most of the participants think that corpus enables them to learn English collocations with ease and it seems that they have a positive perception of using COCA to expand their vocabulary with collocations; therefore, they also develop a positive attitude towards using the corpus to improve their competence of collocations. In the same way, previous studies indicate that corpora are regarded as a useful instructional tool by foreign language learners to learn collocations. (Akıncı, 2009; Chao, 2010).

These findings parallel those in the literature. Many researchers have stated that corpora are effective in language teaching (Barlow, 1992; Simpson & Mendis, 2003; Varley, 2008; Willis, 1998). Willis (1998), for example, states that in a corpus students might find out:

- "the potential different meanings and uses of common words
- useful phrases and typical collocations they might use themselves
- the structure and nature of both written and spoken discourse
- that certain language features are more typical of some kinds of text than others" (as cited in Krieger, 2003, p. 3).

In the study, the participants also did contextual analysis through analyzing the sentences taken from COCA and tried to figure out the use of particular grammatical structures. They made an effort to understand the communicative meaning of the target structures used in the authentic sentences obtained from the corpus. The data gathered from this study indicated that most of the students think that the corpus help them to improve their skill of guessing the unknown word from the context since it provides the forms of authentic language use coming from various real contexts. These findings tally with Gabrielatos (2005), who mentions that corpus samples enable learners to make lexical inference, creates a good opportunity to revise target grammar structures and develop an analytical approach to assess the use of the structures critically.

Gabrielatos (2005) also states that authentic language samples taken from corpora help learners to develop their reading skills, especially their skills of guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context. In addition, Gabrielatos (2005) emphasizes that language samples taken from corpora provides learners more opportunities than the ones offered by texts to improve their ability in using contextual guessing technique as corpora include various language samples that show multiple uses of language in different contexts. Similarly, Barlow (2002) suggests that the corpus can be used to analyze the language in a context. It seems that the corpus can assist foreign language learners in doing contextual analysis through presenting authentic and real language samples and so it can serve to enhance their vocabulary.

As regards the benefits of using corpus, the participants also stated that students need training to be able to use the corpus effectively for their vocabulary development. As using online corpora is a

new technique in foreign language teaching and learning, it is essential that students be taught what corpora are, how to access them on the Internet and how to use them to enhance their English vocabulary. Previous research has also emphasized the necessity of giving training to learners on how to use corpora (Cheng et al., 2003; Chambers & O'Sullivan, 2004). During this study, the participants had various training courses on the use of COCA and learnt how to make search in the corpus for vocabulary through using its different functions (frequency, collocations, synonyms, contexts of use, differences in speaking and writing). It can be concluded that learners believe that they cannot use COCA effectively to develop their English vocabulary without receiving practical instruction in corpora.

The results also indicated that most of the participants stated that they did not have difficulty in using online corpus. This result shows that using online corpus does not require students to have advanced computer operating skills. The students who have basic computer operating skills can easily use online corpus (COCA). It is clear from the findings that it is easy for learners to use COCA. As Durand (2018) emphasizes, "COCA has a very user-friendly interface" (p.137). Durand (2018) also states that COCA allows learners to do various searches without any difficulty since it provides tutorials and search commends which facilitates navigating the website of corpus. In addition, a variety of informative videos on using different functions of COCA are available for learners on the Internet. Therefore, learners can benefit from instructional videos to learn how to use corpora and after a short training course, they can integrate it into their learning process as an online reference tool.

A number of studies have indicated that foreign language learners have positive attitudes towards using corpora to develop their vocabulary in the target language (Akıncı, 2009; Chao, 2010; Chujo, Utiyama & Miura, 2006, Paker & Ergül-Özcan, 2017). Likewise, the findings of the study suggest that a majority of the students think that using corpus to learn vocabulary is both enjoyable and interesting. In addition, they stated that using corpus enhanced their motivation to learn new English words. Moreover, a vast majority of the students stated that they liked the corpus and they would use it while studying English and doing assignments. It is clear from the results that the participants are highly likely to integrate corpus consultancy into their learning process to enhance their vocabulary development.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study suggest that COCA is widely perceived as a useful reference tool by students and they are of the opinion that it helps to develop their English vocabulary in foreign language instruction. Thus, considering their favorable opinions of using online corpora for enlarging their vocabulary, corpus-based vocabulary activities can be integrated in foreign language instruction and the COCA can be used as an instructional tool for students' vocabulary development. However, it is seen from the results that having positive views about using the corpus for developing vocabulary is not enough to integrate corpus-based vocabulary activities in language instruction. The results of this study suggest that there is a need for training for students to be able to use online corpus effectively to enhance their English vocabulary. In fact, although corpora have started to be used in foreign language learning, most of the students and teacher are not aware of this teaching technique. They do not know what a corpus is and how it can be used as a learning and teaching tool to develop their language skills. The corpus is a valuable tool as it shows how native speakers of English use particular vocabulary items, language forms and expressions. It contains millions of words taken from different genres such as newspapers, popular magazines and academic texts. Therefore, both the students and teachers should be introduced what a corpus is and how to use it in foreign language learning. In addition, they should be informed about the benefits of using corpus to improve their English vocabulary.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Vocabulary instruction in a foreign language involves teaching various aspects of vocabulary (the meaning(s) of the words, its spoken and written forms, word parts (prefix, suffix, root), word class, its collocations, its register, what associations it has, what connotation it has and its frequency). A

corpus, such as COCA and British National Corpus (BNC) serves like a native speaker and provides both teachers and learners with accurate and up-to-date information about the use of English through providing users with many functions which enables them to conduct various searches for vocabulary. When students, teachers and curriculum designers are confused about the use of particular vocabulary or grammar item, they can obtain relevant information through doing contextual analysis in corpora. Similarly, in the class, when students look puzzled after the teachers' explanation about the meaning and use of some abstract difficult words, they can benefit from the direct use of COCA as a reference tool and authentic language samples presented through concordance lines can be used to clarify the points students are confused about. Therefore, besides established and conventional vocabulary teaching techniques, corpora can be incorporated into foreign language instruction as an alternative supplementary source and corpus-based vocabulary activities can be designed for EFL students to enable them develop their vocabulary.

On the other hand, teachers should be careful about the design of corpus-based vocabulary activities. The concordance lines taken from corpora to teach vocabulary should be chosen through considering students' language level and language samples gathered from corpora should be meaningful and serve to pedagogical methods used in teaching vocabulary. Moreover, lack of knowledge about how to design and use corpus-based vocabulary activities in foreign language instruction can negatively affect teacher's attitudes towards applying these activities in English courses. Therefore, teachers should be given pedagogical information about how to prepare and use corpus-based vocabulary activities in English instruction.

The corpus offers a good source including a wide range of vocabulary. It can be integrated into foreign language instruction as an effective alternative reference tool for learners' vocabulary development. Moreover, corpora can be used to teach students of different levels. Thus, the results of this study might supply teachers with planning information about how corpora might best be integrated into English language curriculum to develop learners' vocabulary and how learners can benefit from it both in and outside the ELT classroom.

LIMITATIONS

The main limitation of this study is the number of the participants (27 EFL learners) who took part in this study. If the study had been carried out with more students, it could have yielded more reliable results. In addition, in order to get in-depth information about the students' opinions on the use of COCA to develop their English vocabulary, some interviews could have been carried out with some participants. However, unfortunately, because of the time limit problem, the interviews could not be conducted with the participants.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study examined EFL learners' perceptions of using an online corpus (COCA) to expand their vocabulary. Although the participants were at A2 level, they thought that it was not difficult to learn how to use COCA and they were very eager to do corpus-based vocabulary activities. Therefore, further research that investigates higher level EFL learners' (language learners at B2 or C1 level) opinions about the use of online corpora to develop their vocabulary in greater details needs to be conducted.

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Appendix A.

Corpus Tasks (week 1): Assignment

1. How many times does the word "affect / accept / change / think" occurs in the corpus? Find the frequency number?
2. What word usually goes with the words "extremely / almost /badly / certainly"? Use the COLLOCATES function.
3. What kind of adverbs go with the words "happy /kind / nervous / perfect"? Use the COLLOCATES and POS LIST function.
4. What are the most frequent collocates of "make" and "do"?

Appendix B.

Corpus Tasks (week 2)

- Even if house prices are going down, doesn't it still _____ sense for to you buy?
- You recommend a fund that one can own in their IRA that would _____ money from China's growth
- This is the time where he's got to _____ decisions
- I mean, this is an opportunity, opportunity to _____ things better
- _____ room for your daughter's expression of her feelings about having a car
- If you do, then you know that people _____ mistakes

- Up next, women _____ fun of how men act when they're sick, but maybe were not just whiners.
- In an interview posted on YouTube, the President called for Mubarak to _____ changes, but refused to take sides
- But for now, states across the country are in fiscal crises, facing difficult cuts to _____ ends meet
- To _____ matters worse, the region's political leaders rarely have the patience or the skill
- I was too excited to play or sleep, much less _____ homework

Assingnment
Compare the use of look into & investigate, go up & rise in the written language (newspapers & academic texts) and in conversations (spoken language) in terms of frequency. Take one sentence for each word from corpus.

Appendix C.

Corpus Tasks (week 3)

Contextual Analysis

Analyze the context of each to see why one modal verb is used rather than the other

1.At most tourist sites, you **have to** wait in line, purchase a ticket, and see things under the supervision

2. with a higher atmospheric CO2 concentration, plants **have to** open their stomata less in order to get the same amount of CO2

3. You want to live in and around a luxury product? You **have to** pay more

4. What I presume to guess about others **must** come from what I have read about and been told

5. I use a dictionary, even though I have been told that I **must** begin to think in Italian

6. Farmers and agricultural managers **must** consider the variety of ways that diversification can occur within the system and develop methods that best meet their specific needs of crop production and resilience

Cloze activities

Fill in the blanks with "must / have to / should / be able to". Make the necessary changes

1.My disadvantage as a historian is that, for the most part, I lack objectivity. For my information I _____be self-reliant
2.I told you. Didn't I tell you? You _____fill the name! I told you in the hospital
3.In principle, changes in climate _____show up in rainfall statistics, hurricane frequency, temperature records, and so fort
4.He didn't look at his watch, it _____be after midnight
you may not _____ sell your book if you lack a solid platform, says Gini Graham Scott
5.What three goals do you want to accomplish in the next year? What challenges do you _____ overcome to reach them?

Appendix D.

Corpus Tasks (week 4)
Sample Searches of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)
www.americancorpus.org
1. Is "corpus" a common word? Search for CORPUS using the CHART option. Click on the bars to see examples.
2. What adjectives can I use to describe a corpus? Use the LIST option to search for
[j*] corpus
Use the POS (part of speech) list to find the correct code: [j*] = any adjective
Select the ACADEMIC section.
3. What prepositions come after research? Search for
research [i*]
Click on the entries to see examples of the different prepositions..
5. But what verbs can you use with the noun RESEARCH? You don't want to repeat "do research" all the time.
RESEARCH
CONTEXT: any verb [v*]
2 / 0 (=2 words to the left of research; 0 to the right)
ACADEMIC section
6. But what if you're bored with the word RESEARCH. What synonyms can you use? Search for
[=RESEARCH]
in the ACADEMIC section
7. Comparing two words: – search and seek.
COMPARE search seek
8. So, how do we use *seek*? Use the CHART option and enter seek
CONTEXT [nn*] 0 3
This looks for nouns used after the verb "seek".

(Taken from http://writingcenter.unc.edu/files/2011/12/corpus.pdf)

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Research Article

Mind Matters: How is Mindset Correlated with Demographic Variables in Foreign Language Learning?[1]

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Abstract: This study aimed to investigate the correlation between mindset and personal variables of EFL learners at both a private and a state university in Turkey. Quantitative methods were used, and Dweck's Mindset Instrument (DMI), which is a Likert-type scale, was administered to collect a set of data. Three demographic factors; namely gender, the program enrolled, and L2 proficiency level were used as variables. The study was conducted at the Preparatory School of Gazi University and Atılım University, with 203 participants. The data obtained from the scale were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS Statistics 21.0. Quantitative methods were used, and Dweck's Mindset Instrument (DMI) was administered to collect data. Findings revealed that male participants tended to have a more fixed mindset than female participants. However, no correlation was found between mindset and participants' program enrolled. Likewise, it was discovered that mindset and L2 proficiency level of participants were not correlated with each other.

Keywords: *mindset, foreign language learning, demographic variables, correlation, quantitative*

INTRODUCTION

A strong predictor of language achievement is the mindset that learners adopt, fixed vs. growth mindset, a famous and broadly embraced concept suggested by Dweck (2007). According to her, students who carry fixed mindset view the source of intelligence to be a virtue we are born with, stable and unchangeable whereas those with a growth mindset believe that intelligence is malleable, changeable and can be improved with persistence. Fairly limited empirical research has been carried out in this particular issue. In 2008, a research was conducted by Dweck to explore the achievement relevance between mindset and maths/science. The correlation between gender and mindset (Kornilova et al., 2009; Macnamara and Rupani, 2017; Spinath, Spinath and Riemann, 2003; Yan et al., 2014) and between mindset and academic achievement (Castella et al., 2015; Yeager et al., 2014) has also been explored in a few studies.

The ultimate goal of the current study is the determination of any existing connection of mindset and demographic variables of EFL learners studying at university in Turkey. Demographic variables in this study are gender, the program enrolled, and L2 proficiency level.

This research seeks to investigate the following research questions:

1. How does learners' gender correlate with their particular mindset?
2. Is there a statistically significant correlation between participants' enrolled program and their particular mindset?
3. What relationship exists between participants' L2 proficiency level and their particular mindset?

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THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Learners' beliefs about themselves and their own intelligences powerfully influence their learning success as these beliefs about the nature of intelligence structure their inferences, judgments, and reactions to different actions. A person's beliefs about the malleability, in other words, processability of intelligence are accepted as implicit theories of intelligence. Two implicit theories of intelligence have been identified by Dweck (2008): 'Incremental' and 'Entity'. To start with, entity theorists are of the opinion that intelligence is a fixed and stable trait, and people are born with it. Moreover, entity theorists believe that even though people are able to learn new information, their intelligence does not improve further (Ablard and Mills, 1996; Dweck, Chiu and Hong, 1995), and they are inclined to blame their own intelligence and abilities when they face failures. Consequently, they are at risk for academic underachievement since they do not tend to attempt challenging tasks and are more interested in seeming competent rather than learning new skills (Ablard and Mills, 1996) as they have "a high desire to prove themselves to others and to be seen as smart and avoid looking unintelligent" (2008, p. 1). Furthermore, they tend to orient more towards performance goals so that they can show their capability (Dweck, 2000).

On the other hand, learners with an "incremental" theory believe that their intelligence is malleable, changeable, and can be cultivated through effort and persistence. Moreover, they feel smart and comfortable by "engaging fully with new tasks, exerting effort to master something, stretching their skills, and putting their knowledge to good use." (Dweck, 2000). They want to challenge themselves to increase their abilities even if they fail at first. Moreover, as opposed to entity theorists, incremental theorists are more inclined to set learning goals for themselves rather than performance goals. While challenge is threatening for entity theorists, incremental theorists view it as informative even if these challenges cause them to make more mistakes while they are learning.

A great deal of research has been conducted to identify possible existence of various correlations between implicit theories of intelligence and learners' academic achievement. The findings of these studies reveal that there is indeed a correlation between them. One of these studies has been conducted by Elliot and Dweck (2005), proving that there is a correlation between implicit theories and academic achievement in that students' thoughts about intelligence and its malleability play a crucial role on both their academic achievement and how they learn.

In two studies (Bandura and Dweck, 1985; Dweck and Leggett, 1988), fifth, sixth and eighth grade students' theories of intelligence were measured by giving them some agreement and disagreement statements as follows:

"Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much."

"You can learn new things but you can't really change your basic intelligence."

"You have a certain amount of intelligence and you can't really do much to change it."

After a while, some certain tasks were given to students and they were told to choose any task they wish to work on. The first two tasks offered a performance goal whereas the third one offered a learning goal. The important point here was whether students holding different theories of intelligence would choose different goals to pursue. As a result, a significant relationship was found between students' theories of intelligence and the goals they pick. The findings showed that entity theorists tended to choose a performance goal while incremental theorists tended to choose a learning goal.

Carol Dweck (2007), the most important originator of the implicit theories of intelligence concept, also popularized the terms 'fixed' and 'growth' mindset. In the present context, what mindset refers to must be understood well since it is often quoted interchangeably with implicit theories of intelligence as a more popularized and recent terminology.

Mindset

Not all the learners are the same and their beliefs, behaviors, needs and skills highly differ from each other. However, there is one more point which is not all the same in learners: their mindset. Mindset

refers to implicit beliefs about the malleability of personal attributes (Dweck, 2000). Based upon research studies regarding implicit theories of intelligence, achievement and success, Dweck (2006) has come up with a new concept named 'mindset', which makes all the difference in learning and teaching. This new and broadly embraced idea suggests that one can possess one of these two mindsets: fixed mindset or growth mindset. More specifically, Mercer (2012) asserts that the mindset in foreign language education "reflects the extent to which a person believes that language learning ability is dependent on some immutable, innate talent or is the result of controllable factors such as effort and conscious hard work." (p.22).

Those who carry a fixed mindset —entity theorists—support that the possessed intelligence level is stable and unable to change since it is an innate ability. According to Dweck:

> In a fixed mindset, people believe their basic qualities, like their intelligence or talent, are simply fixed traits. They spend their time documenting their intelligence or talent instead of developing them. They also believe that talent alone creates success—without effort. They're wrong. (2016, p.1)

In other words, in a fixed mindset, students do not believe that they can indeed change and improve their existing intelligence since they view it as a stable and inborn quality. It is also worth mentioning that students avoid challenges or opportunities to learn if they feel that they may make mistakes (Mueller and Dweck, 1998, cited in Dweck, 2008). If they make mistakes or do something wrong, instead of correcting them, they tend to hide it (Nussbaum and Dweck, 2008) because they can easily give up when they face challenges and obstacles. Moreover, they are apt to ignore useful feedback, or even can take it personally. Since they do not believe that they become successful as long as they put enough effort, they do not use the feedback to learn, either. Rather, they believe that the higher innate ability they have, the more successful they will be. For this reason, they are afraid of failures as it means constraints or limits that they cannot readily overcome. Furthermore, if they witness the success of their peers, they may feel threatened rather than admiring.

In addition to what Dweck suggested about intelligence, Cattel's (1963) fluid and crystallized theory is also worth mentioning when it comes to intelligence. Raymond Cattell (1963), who was an influential psychologist, first came up with the concepts of fluid and crystallized intelligence, and he developed his theory with one of his students, John Horn, afterwards. The Cattell-Horn theory of fluid and crystallized intelligence introduced the idea that various abilities' interaction and working together produce the actual individual intelligence. According to this theory, fluid intelligence is defined as "the ability to perceive relationships independent of previous specific practice or instruction concerning those relationships." (Cattel, 1963). This type of intelligence is concerned with the ability to think abstractly and solve problems. Fluid intelligence does not depend on people's previous knowledge or experience. To clarify, solving a puzzle can be given as an example for the use fluid intelligence in that a person who cannot solve a puzzle with his/her existing knowledge will use his fluid intelligence to solve it. Unlike fluid intelligence, crystallized intelligence suggests that we are able to use our previously acquired knowledge through experience or education. To illustrate, while people are dealing with language skills such as reading comprehension or grammar, they use their crystallized intelligence. As can be seen, these two types of intelligences can be seen different at first; however, they can actually work together. For instance, crystallized intelligence is used to comprehend and follow to understand and follow the instructions in a recipe while cooking something, and fluid intelligence is used when selecting the ingredients to add which suit your taste. Nonetheless, the difference between crystallized intelligence and fluid intelligence is that while the former one increases with age, the latter one decreases. (Horn, Donaldson, & Engstrom, 1981)

After discussing intelligence and fixed mindset, contrary to fixed mindset, growth mindset is met with different characteristics (Dweck, 2000). Those who have a growth mindset – incremental theorists- support that one's intelligence is fully shaped by self- improvement and determination (Elliott and Dweck, 1988). This is possible because of neuroplasticity – the brain's ability to restructure itself and to form new connections with more repetitive practices, making it stronger in turn. Dweck (2016, p.1) suggests that "In a growth mindset, people believe that their most basic abilities can be developed

through dedication and hard work—brains and talent are just the starting point. This view creates a love of learning and a resilience that is essential for great accomplishment. Virtually all great people have had these qualities." To put it differently, the ones who adopt a growth mindset fundamentally believe that talent comes through effort, and their abilities can be further developed when they are dedicated, perseverant and well-trained enough, so intelligence is indeed improvable (Bandura and Dweck, 1985; Dweck and Molden, 2007). The difference between the fixed and growth mindset is summarized by Dweck as follows:

> In the fixed mindset, everything is about the outcome. If you fail—or if you're not the best—it's all been wasted. The growth mindset allows people to value what they're doing regardless of the outcome. They're tackling problems, charting new courses, working on important issues. Maybe they haven't found the cure for cancer, but the search was deeply meaningful. (2016, p.30)

Moreover, despite the fact that individuals with a fixed mindset care how they are judged by others, those with a growth mindset focus on their own learning. They welcome feedback as a means to improve rather than ignoring or avoiding it. Furthermore, unlike students with a fixed mindset, if those with a growth mindset make any mistakes, they try to correct it immediately. Failures are just temporary setbacks for growth mindset holders, and they are seen as potential chances for growth-minded students for instructive feedback and thus their mistakes make indeed their learning better (Dweck, 2007). For this reason, they tend to demonstrate more adaptive behaviors and psychological traits such as resilience in response to failure. The success of their peers makes them inspired and gives them some lessons. Taking all these into consideration, learners who are of the opinion that abilities are fixed are less likely to progress better than others who believe that abilities can be improved.

Dweck and Molden (2007) state that there is also one more category where those who do not strongly hold either of these two mindsets–fixed vs growth- compose. Their work indicated that among children and adults, approximately 40% of them endorse a growth mindset whereas another 40% adopt fixed mindset. The remaining 20% is undecided, in other words, they fall into somewhere in the middle of the applied scale points. As opposed to Dweck's (2006) argument, Mercer (2012) asserts that fixed mindset prevails in language learning.

The study of mindsets leads to determining the motivation sources of students and how these motivations can encourage them to fulfill their potential and succeed the best of their ability (Dweck, 2015). Doubtlessly, mindsets shape the actions we take, the lives we lead, and our future world. Studies show that what people believe about their intelligence can substantially affect their achievement, anxiety level and resiliency (Dweck, 2008). Furthermore, research also suggests that holders of a growth mindset are inclined to feel more motivated and to have more academic achievement with higher test scores (Aronson et al., 2002; Castella et al., 2015). Other studies also proved that more specifically, a growth mindset usually leads to better academic outcomes (Castella and Byrne, 2015; Yeager, Johnson, Spitzer, Trzesniewski, Powers and Dweck, 2014).

The relationship between gender and mindset has also been explored in various studies (Kornilova et al., 2009; Macnamara and Rupani, 2017). There are three main views regarding what the findings of these studies suggested: a) Women are more inclined to adopt a fixed mindset than men (Leggett, 1985; Licht and Shapiro, 1982) b) Men are more inclined to have a fixed mindset than women (Spinath, Spinath and Riemann, 2003) c) Women and men do not diverge significantly on their mindsets (Kornilova et al., 2009; Macnamara and Rupani, 2017; Yan et al., 2014). The most common view among the aforementioned ones in the relevant literature is the first one, which suggests that women tend to have a more fixed mindset than men as "Starting in infancy, parents tend to give boys more process praise, an advantage that results in a greater desire for challenge, and a growth mindset, later on." (Dweck and Simmons, 2014, p.12). However, a very recent study conducted by Macnamara and Rupani (2017) contradicted with the existing literature and the common view mentioned above. Their study tested if having a growth mindset predicts learners' achievement. It also examined whether or not women tend to have a more fixed mindset than men. The findings of this study showed that contrary to

popular belief, fixed mindset was associated with greater academic achievement. Furthermore, another surprising finding was the fact that women either did not diverge from men, or were more likely to endorse a growth mindset, and no indication or discrepancy indication was found regarding the assumption that women hold more fixed mindset than men

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The present study was conducted on 203 participants who were enrolled in various programs and were receiving compulsory English prep-class education. Among 203 participants, 100 (49.26%) of the students are currently studying at Atılım University Preparatory School whereas 103 (50.74 %) of the students are currently studying at Gazi University Preparatory School.

In the present study, convenience sampling, a kind of non-probability or non-random sampling method where the participants of study are identified from among the ones who are easily accessible, available at a certain time, or simply willing to participate (Dörnyei, 2007), was preferred to be used. The rationale behind the application of the given sampling technique is because it is quite practical and readily available for participants.

Before applying the scale, as the study has a number of variables, some demographic information about participants was gathered such as their program enrolled, graduated high school type, L2 proficiency level, number of years English is known, and any other languages known along with English and mother tongue. Table 1 shows the details below.

Table 1. Demographic information about the participants

		F	%
Gender	Female	90	44,3
	Male	113	55,7
The Program Enrolled	Natural Science	164	80,8
	Social Sciences	39	19,2
Type of High School Graduated	Science High School	21	10,3
	Anatolian High School	86	42,4
	Social Sciences High School	1	,5
	Vocational High School	10	4,9
	Regular High School	11	5,4
	Private High School/College	57	28,1
	Basic High School	11	5,4
	Anatolian Teacher Training High School	6	3,0
L2 proficiency level	Pre-Intermediate	154	75,9
	Intermediate	43	21,2
	Upper-Intermediate	6	3,0
The number of Years English is Known	1-5 years	41	20,2
	5-10 years	113	55,7
	+10 years	49	24,1
Any Other Languages Known Different from English and Native Tongue	Yes	31	15,3
	No	172	84,7

Data Collection

To reach a larger sample group, data were collected at two universities in December, 2017-2018 Fall term. The researcher first started to collect data from Atılım University Preparatory School. Before handing out the scales, she first distributed the Consent Form to the participants. Thanks to this form,

they were informed about the main objectives of the study. Furthermore, they were also informed that confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained and the results of the study would be anonymously shared with other people or institutions. They were also mentioned that if a participant decided at any time that s/he did not want to participate in this study, s/he could tell the researcher and would withdraw from the study without any reason. The researcher also repeated participants' rights orally. Having read the form, almost all the students accepted to be a part of this research and signed the form. After that, the researcher administered the scales in one week and finished the data collection procedure at Atılım University.

Next, with the help of her colleagues at Gazi University, the researcher started to collect data in the second setting of the study, and the same procedure was applied there. Collecting data from Gazi University took one week as well, and finally the whole data collection procedure was completed in two weeks.

Data Collection Instrument

In the present study, data were collected using Dweck's Mindset Instrument (2000) which aims to understand how people view their own intelligence and talent. DMI, a 6-point Likert-type Scale, was developed by Dweck (2000) in order to assess how students view their own intelligence and to divide them accordingly into two "mindset" categories: fixed and growth. The reliability of Dweck's Mindset Instrument was found quite high, indicating excellent internal consistency (α= 0.94 to 0.98) (Dweck, 2000). In line with this, the Cronbach alpha was calculated at .91 in the present study, indicating quite strong internal reliability for DMI.

Originally, Dweck's Mindset Instrument consists of 16 items focusing on both intelligence and talent views of students. However, since all the questions were the same for both intelligence and talent viewpoint items, the researcher did not want to ask them separately and adapted the instrument by combining both intelligence and talent viewpoints in a total of 8 items as follows: 'You have a certain amount of intelligence and talent, and…'. Thus, the number of the items was reduced from 16 to 8 in this study.

As a result, DMI used in this study consists of 8 separate item statements, which students ranked on an agreement scale of 1-6: 1 (strongly agree), 2 (agree), 3 (mostly agree), 4 (mostly disagree), 5 (disagree), and 6 (strongly disagree). By answering the items on the DMI, students revealed what they believe about their own intelligence and success and they were grouped into the mindset they adopt.

There were both fixed and incremental item statements in this instrument. The fixed item statements on the questionnaire consisted of items 1, 2, 4, and 6. These items viewed intelligence as fixed and unchangeable. The incremental item statements, which viewed intelligence as changeable, consisted of items 3, 5, 7, and 8. The scores selected by students for the incremental item statements would be reversed (1 becomes 6, 2 becomes 5, 3 becomes 4, 4 becomes 3, 5 becomes 2, and 6 becomes 1) to ensure that strongly disagreeing with a fixed item statement means strongly agreeing with an incremental item statement. At the end of scoring, students who collected a score between 1 and 3 were considered to view intelligence as something fixed at birth and unable to change, and therefore to have a fixed mindset. Students who gained a score between 4 and 6 were considered to view intelligence as something changeable, and therefore to have a growth mindset. On the other hand, students who gained a score between 3 and 4 were considered as uncertain about intelligence and therefore tended to have both fixed mindset and growth mindset. The items related to growth mindset are negatively and strongly correlated with the fixed mindset items (-0.69 and -0.86), which means that if one agrees with the growth mindset items, s/he will disagree with the fixed mindset items. (Dweck, 2000).

By taking participants' language qualification into consideration, this instrument was translated into their native language, Turkish, by the researcher. Therefore, not the original version but the translated version of DMI was administered to the participants. Since it was of great importance to have no difference between both versions, the procedures of translation and back- translation were applied thanks to some native speakers of English and Turkish colleagues.

Data Analysis

In the given quantitative correlational study, descriptive and inferential statistical procedures in SPSS Statistics 21.0 were applied to evaluate the collected data. Non-parametric tests were employed as the data was not normally distributed. Before the analysis of the research questions, some preliminary analyses were administered. First, the exploratory factor analysis of DMI was carried out to determine the underlying factor structure of the scale. This step was important since the Turkish version of DMI was translated by the researcher herself for the first time. Next, the reliability analysis of DMI was run to see if the instrument consistently reflects the construct it measures. When it comes to research questions, Chi-Square Test of Independence was run for each research question.

FINDINGS

Preliminary Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, and principal component analysis were on Dweck's Mindset Instrument (DMI). The results are presented in the following tables:

Table 2. Exploratory factor and the reliability analyses of mindset scale

	Factor Loading	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
1) You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you really can't do much to change it.	,750	,666	,910
2) Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.	,811	,739	
3) No matter who you are, you can significantly change your intelligence level.	,862	,808	
4) To be honest, you can't really change how intelligent you are.	,827	,758	
5) You can always substantially change how intelligent you are.	,742	,659	
6) You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.	,797	,720	
7) No matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it quite a bit.	,649	,561	
8) You can change even your basic intelligence level considerably.	,821	,759	

KMO Value= 0,883
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Chi-Square Statistics =1066,06 Sd=28 p=0.000 Total Variance Explained=% 61,63

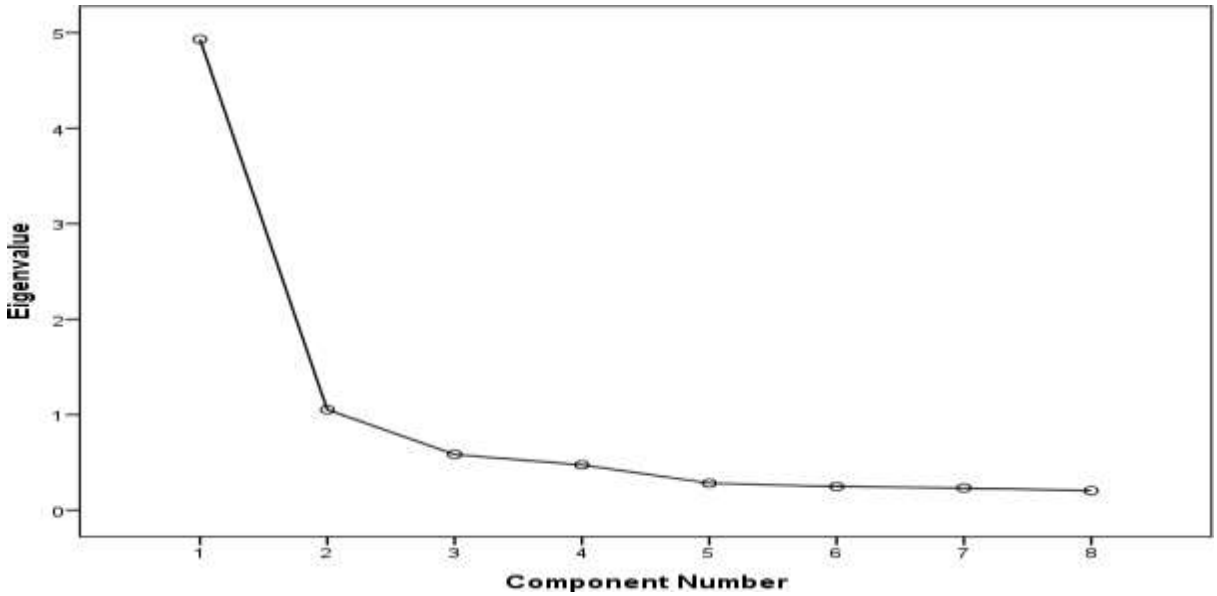
Table 3. Principal component analysis of mindset scale

Total Variance Explained

Initial Eigenvalues				Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4,931	61,635	61,635	4,931	61,635	61,635
2	1,052	13,144	74,778			
3	,583	7,282	82,060			
4	,473	5,913	87,974			
5	,282	3,522	91,496			
6	,246	3,069	94,565			

7	,232	2,897	97,462
8	,203	2,538	100,000

Figure 1. The eigenvalues of the items in mindset scale



As can be seen from Table 2, the reliability of Dweck's Mindset Instrument was found 0.91 in the current study, suggesting that items on this instrument have excellent internal consistency. According to Dweck, Chiu and Hong (1995), DMI has good internal consistency as well (α=.82 to .97). Therefore, the instrument was found quite valid and reliable to administer to students to collect the data in the current study.

As for the exploratory factor analysis of DMI, 8 items of Dweck's Mindset Instrument were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was first assessed. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics value which determines the sample adequacy was found 0,883, indicating that the sample was adequate since it was greater than 0.6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974). Test of Sphericity from Bartlett was also found statistically significant ($p<0.05$), meaning that the data was suitable for factor analysis (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2010).

Principal component analysis revealed the existence of two components exceeding 1, explaining 61,6% and 13,1% of the variance respectively. However, as can be seen from both scree plot and the table showing the explained total variance, the first eigenvalue (4,93) is almost five times larger than the second eigenvalue (1,05), revealing a clear break after the first component. This was further supported by the total variances explained, with the huge difference between Component 1 contributing 61,6% and Component 2 contributing 13,1%, which proves that there was only one dominant factor on the 8-item scale. When the exploratory factor analysis was repeated forcing this dominant factor, 62% of total variance was extracted.

All in all, it is seen that factor loadings ranged from 0,649 to 0,862 and all factor loadings were > 0,65. Along with high factor loadings and high variances, the factorial structure of the 8-item scale had one factor, which was statistically valid. Moreover, item-total correlations are also quite high and vary between 0,561 and 0,808.

Main Findings

Research Question 1: How does the participants' gender correlate with their particular mindset?

For the first research question, whose purpose was to figure out whether or not participants' particular mindset type varies in regard to gender, Chi- Square Test of Independence was applied. Obtained results are summarized in Table 4:

Table 4. Details about the correlation between gender and mindset

			Gender		
			Female	**Male**	**Total**
Mindset Type	**Fixed Mindset**	n	8	29	37
		%	8,9%	25,7%	18,2%
	Undecided	n	15	21	36
		%	16,7%	18,6%	17,7%
	Growth Mindset	n	67	63	130
		%	74,4%	55,8%	64,0%
Total		n	90	113	203
		%	100%	100%	100,0%
$\chi 2 = 10{,}572$ p=0,005					

As Table 4 illustrates, the findings revealed that participants' particular mindset differed significantly in regard to gender and a significant association was found between mindset and gender ($\chi 2$= 10.572, p= .005, <0.05). It was found out that male participants (25.7%) tended to have a more fixed mindset than female participants (8.9%) whereas female participants (74.4%) were inclined to have a growth mindset more than male participants (55.8%).

Research question 2: Is there a statistically significant correlation between participants' program enrolled and their particular mindset?

With regard to the second research question, which tries to explore whether participants' particular mindset type differs or not in regard to the enrolled program, Chi-Square Test of Independence was run. The results are as follows:

Table 5. Details about the correlation between the program enrolled and mindset

			Program Enrolled		
			Natural Sciences	**Social Sciences**	**Total**
Mindset Type	**Fixed Mindset**	N	31	6	37
		%	18,9%	16,2%	18,2%
	Undecided	n	30	6	36
		%	18,2%	15,3%	17,7%
	Growth Mindset	n	103	27	130
		%	62,8%	69,2%	64,0%

Total	n	164	39	203
	%	100%	100%	100,0%

$\chi 2 = 0{,}567$ $p=0{,}753$

As shown in Table 5, the chi-square test of independence statistic value was found to be 0.567 (>0.005) and the p-value was 0.75 (>0.05), which means that students' particular mindsets did not vary significantly in regard to the enrolled program. Put simply, the findings suggested that no statistically significant correlation existed between learners' mindset and the enrolled program.

Research question 3: What relationship exists between participants' L2 proficiency level and their particular mindset?

To respond to the last research question, seeking to explore the relationship between participants' L2 proficiency level and their particular mindset, Chi-Square Test of Independence was utilized. The results are as follows:

Table 6. Details about the relationship between L2 proficiency level and mindset

			L2 Proficiency Level			
			Pre-Intermediate	**Intermediate**	**Upper-Intermediate**	**Total**
Mindset Type	**Fixed Mindset**	n	26	9	2	37
		%	16,8%	20,9%	33,3%	18,2%
	Undecided	n	27	8	1	36
		%	17,5%	18,6%	16,6%	17,7%
	Growth Mindset	n	101	26	3	130
		%	65,5%	50%	50%	64,0%
Total		n	154	43	6	203
		%	100%	100%	100%	100,0%

$\chi 2 = 1{,}430$ $p=0{,}839$

In Table 6 above, the chi-square test of independence statistic value was found to be 1,430 (> 0.005) and the p-value is greater than 0.05 (p= .83) indicating that students' particular mindsets did not differ significantly in regard to L2 proficiency level. That is to say, Chi Square Test of Independence Analysis results did not assert any statistically significant association between learners' mindset and their L2 proficiency level, meaning that the mindset they adopt did not differ significantly with regard to their L2 proficiency level.

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

This quantitative correlational study addressed the research gap in the relationship between mindset and personal variables. Following an analysis of the collected data, the researcher, first of all, confirmed that mindset adopted by female and male learners significantly differs from each other. It appears that male learners are more inclined to have a more fixed mindset than females. However, it was found out that no relationship existed between students' enrolled program and mindset. Likewise,

it was concluded that the type of mindset students adopted is not consistently associated with their L2 proficiency level.

When the results obtained from the current study are evaluated, it was revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and mindset in that females tended to adopt growth mindset more than males whereas males had more of a fixed mindset than females. This result is in line with Spinath, Spinath and Riemann's (2003) and Macnamara and Rupani's (2017, Study 1) studies finding out that females considered intelligence (mindset) to be less stable than males did. The results of this study, on the other hand, conflict with some studies claiming that either females or males do not differ on mindsets (Kornilova et al., 2009; Macnamara and Rupani, 2017, (Study 2 & 3) and that female learners tended to have a fixed mindset more than their male counterparts (Dweck, 2008). Yet, it is crucial to note that not all the aforementioned studies regarding gender and mindset were conducted on EFL learners unlike the current study. For instance, Heyman et al. (2001) carried out their study on engineering students while Dweck (2008) followed 373 junior high school students to investigate whether or not mindset predicts math and science achievement. At this point, it is essential to emphasize that attitudes towards learning is much more dominant for girls while learning a foreign language (Burstall, 1975). Furthermore, it has been seen that females are more motivated in foreign language learning than males (Dörnyei, Csizer and Nemeth, 2006) and their sources of motivation generally differ. For example, to learn a new foreign language, female learners often find more integrative reasons which are proven to be strong impetus in language learning such as learning the culture of the country where the target language is spoken. Yet, male learners choose learning a foreign language due to the fact that they are more instrumentally motivated and they view a foreign language as "a subject to fill in the timetable" (Powell and Littlewood, 1983, p.36) or getting a high- ranking job with a good salary (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Taking this fact into consideration, the results of this study, which indicate that females tend to adopt growth mindset more than males, can relate to the perception and motivation underlying their desire to learn a foreign language, and thus can be explained that since girls have more integrated motivation towards language learning than boys, they may as well be more inclined to endorse growth mindset.

When the mindset literature is reviewed, it is observed that although much has been researched on mindset, to the best of researcher's knowledge, there have been no known studies specifically investigating the relationship between mindset and the program enrolled (categorized as natural sciences vs. social sciences). With this in mind, the findings of the current study have tried to eliminate the gap in this issue. The results of the study revealed that students' particular mindsets did not vary significantly in regard to the program enrolled. Put it differently, whether students studied natural sciences (e.g. engineering, medicine) or social sciences (e.g. psychology, business administration) did not determine significantly the mindset (fixed vs growth) they adopted. The reason behind this finding would be the fact that social-psychological factors such as motivation, attitude, aptitude or learner beliefs may play a more crucial role in shaping one's particular mindset type.

Reviewing the existing literature regarding the relationship between mindset and L2 proficiency, although a large body of research was carried out in order to figure out the connection between L2 proficiency and different variables such as language learning strategy (Roohani et al., 2013) and motivation (Gardner et al., 1977), no specific study investigating the relationship between mindset and L2 proficiency was found. As Mercer and Ryan (2009) also suggest, further research is needed to be carried out among students with different language proficiency levels to examine the correlation, if any, between their mindset and L2 proficiency level. Therefore, in an effort to eliminate the gap, this study tried to determine the relationship between two variables, and found out that no significant relationship existed between mindset and L2 proficiency level. That is to say, no matter how proficient a learner is in the target language, his/her proficiency level is not a predictor of the type of mindset adopted. It is wrong to consider upper-intermediate level students as having a growth mindset or elementary level students as having a fixed mindset since it is not proven to be true in the present study. This result might have occurred because how one views intelligence, in other words, his/her mindset may start to shape during childhood and continue to improve throughout adulthood, so adopting a fixed or growth mindset may require a long process profoundly affected by beliefs, choices and life

experiences. Therefore, it is not surprising that no significant relationship was found between mindset and L2 proficiency.

The present study suggests that some future efforts could be invested in combining quantitative data with the qualitative data, e.g. making interviews with some students as well as administering the related scales, in order to have a better in-depth understanding about the answers of the research questions. Secondly, the current study was a descriptive correlational research indicating only the correlations between various variables, not causations. Thus, more causal studies investigating the cause and effect relations between these variables may contribute to the findings and lead researchers to reach more causal conclusions. Next, in addition to the cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies should be carried out further in order to have a deeper understanding of the relationship among mindset, foreign language anxiety, and certain related variables.

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Review Article

An Overview of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

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Abstract: Bilingualism is the case which occurs when an individual can communicate in two languages. A bilingual person can fully or partially comprehend the messages transmitted in two separate languages. Nowadays, as an inevitable consequence of a very high rate of migration, common implementation of international trades, international tourism events and a diversity of education programs, people are required to be able to communicate in at least two languages together with their mother tongue. Bilingualism plays an important role in today's world because of globalization. As it is related to individuals and languages, it requires detailed investigation in individual, societal, political, cultural, historical, scientific and global level. Considering the importance of the situation, this study focuses on the definition, causes, types, dimensions, outcomes and taxonomy of bilingualism as well as examples across the globe and Turkey. It aims to connect the bilingualism to the changes in people and society, too. It also provides implications of bilingualism in educational context.
Keywords: *Bilingualism, Education, Language, Community, Society*

INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism is a term which refers to communication of a person in two different languages. Some researchers claim that if a person can talk at least a few words in two different languages, s/he is bilingual. Others such as Kokturk, Odacioglu and Uysal (2016) defend that if a person has been raised in a dual-language environment and s/he is equally proficient in the perfect use of two different languages, s/he is bilingual. Wallner (2016) claims that bilingualism is speaking fluently in a language apart from the mother tongue. Ignatkina and Tosuncuoğlu (2020) mention that bilingualism is using two languages efficiently and in a natural flow. Luk and Bialystok (2013) state that despite a diversity of definitions of bilingualism, all agree with that bilingualism is a diverse and complex phenomenon. In this article, the former claim is accepted.

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Bilingualism has a long history as humans have needed to communicate with people speaking different languages. According to Baker and Wright (2017), starting from the time when earliest communities existed, bilingualism has been a phenomenon in every civilization. Unlike the long history of bilingualism, bilingual education came into prominence in the 20th century. However, there are some earlier examples of bilingual education in history in contrast to the common belief claiming bilingual education started in the 1900s. The misconception that bilingualism is a recent topic might result from two important handicaps of bilingual education, which are ambiguous past of bilingualism and disconnecting bilingualism and bilingual education today with their historical roots. Although they might not be parallel to today's understanding of bilingual education, Mesopotamian civilization provides us with some instances of bilingual education. "We have a large number of bilingual texts within the system of scribal tradition and education" (Galter, 1995, p. 25). These texts were written as a consequence of communicational, economic, political and social processes in Mesopotamia. Multiculturality of the region was the main reason behind the actions regarding the bilingual texts and education in that humans have had to find ways to deal with the multicultural societies throughout the history as they have been obliged to or have preferred to share the same environment and means. Taking this into account, it would be appropriate to name bilingualism and bilingual education as phenomena which are commonly related to individuals, groups, countries and nations. Thus, bilingual education is a significant component of a social, political, cultural, economic and educational world. Likewise, bilingualism is affected by several factors such as political or socio-cultural ones.

Considering the interconnectedness of bilingualism and society, research and studies conducted and published in the area of bilingualism and bilingual education are of great importance for the communities. Seeing that, a compilation of previous studies conducted in the fields of bilingualism and bilingual education is reported in this paper. This study also aims to provide an insight into reasons behind bilingualism, types and dimensions of bilingualism as well as outcomes of bilingualism. In addition, it focuses on bilingualism in the context of Turkey. It also gives information about the reasons for bilingual education and its purposes. It examines the taxonomy of bilingual education, as well. It also gives information about the advantages and disadvantages of bilingual education in addition to bilingual education in Turkish context. Finally, it declares some implications for educational context.

CAUSES OF BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism is a term which is used for the situations in which a person is able to communicate in two languages. This term may come out as a result of conscious or unconscious processes. For an individual to be bilingual, a diversity of motivations is required in these processes. People show tendency to become bilinguals due to several reasons:

- The language(s) to which people are exposed in family, at school or in community
- The will to survive in today's globalized world
- In the political context, people's desire to develop diplomatic relations with other countries if they are politicians
- The desire to understand the principles of their beliefs when their religious doctrine is written or presented in a different language
- The must to communicate with local people in the case of immigration
- The desire of local people to do trade with minority groups
- Personal interest in language learning.

TYPES AND DIMENSIONS OF BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism has two different types to be examined starting from the period of childhood. Children may have two different types of bilingualism named simultaneous (sometimes called infant bilingualism) and sequential childhood bilingualism. Baker (2001) states that "this separates child who are exposed to two languages from birth from those who acquire a second language later." (p. 87). To illustrate, a child whose mother is Russian, and father is Turkish is referred as 'a simultaneous bilingual' on condition that s/he is exposed to both parents' languages at the same time. Bhatia and Ritchie (2006) state the cases in which children communicate with both parents in different languages are accounted as "one person, one language" principle, and are associated with simultaneous acquisition. On the other hand, a child whose mother tongue is Turkish will be defined as a 'sequential bilingual' if s/he is exposed to English at a later age.

In the context of bilingualism in the early childhood, Bialystok (2017) claims that children's development is affected by bilingualism. Pieretti and Roseberry-McKibbin (2016) state that the population of children who are exposed to two different languages at school is increasing around the world. With the increasing number of bilingual children, bilingualism is a phenomenon to investigate. To define a child as a bilingual, both language acquisition and language learning play a vital role. While language acquisition is defined as developing language skills without being taught, language learning is a formal process in which children are taught to be able to communicate in the second/target language. However, Baker (2001, p. 87) states that "the boundary between acquisition and learning is not distinct and separate (e.g. informal language acquisition can occur in a second language class.)".

Furthermore, it is not adequate to limit bilingualism only with the period of childhood as people may become bilinguals due to various reasons such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in later stages of their lives. It is possible to declare that adults may have two different types of bilingualism which are simultaneous and sequential as well as children do.

Simultaneous versus Sequential Bilingualism

Simultaneous bilingualism is the process of two different languages' acquisition at the same time by an individual. For a person to be a simultaneous bilingual, a high rate of exposure to two different languages at one time is required. When the term 'simultaneous acquisition' is taken into account, it would be appropriate to examine it in four different dimensions:

1. The Language(s) Which Is (Are) Spoken by Parents

The monolingualism or bilingualism of the parents determines children's acquisition of bilingualism. The monolingualism or bilingualism of the parents determines children's acquisition of bilingualism. For example, children living in Malta are likely to have parents both of whom are able to speak Maltese and English at the same time. It would be inferred that the bilingualism of each parent might increase the chance of being bilinguals for children in Malta. Similarly, as it is pointed out by Baker (2001), monolingualism of both parents would result in the bilingualism of children when children have a chance to acquire a second language from the social environment.

2. The Language(s) To Which the Child Is Exposed by Parents in Practice

This dimension occurs when a child is exposed to different languages as a result of the agreement of both parents on communicating with the child in different languages separately or in different contexts. The circumstance in which a child's mother speaks to him/her in English and Turkish at the same time might set a good example for it. Another example would be the circumstance in which the mother communicates only in Turkish while the father prefers to speak only English with

the child. A third situation, which focuses on the use of the minority language at home and the use of the majority language outside as Baker (2001) suggests, would appear when Turkish immigrant parents in Germany speak Turkish with their children while the children are exposed to German at school or in other social environments apart from their home.

3. The Language(s) to Which the Child Is Exposed by Other Members of the Family

Children might prefer different languages while communicating with the parents and while speaking to each other. The case of Syrian immigrants in Turkey might set a good example for it. In that, Syrian children tend to speak Turkish to each other with the effect of school, media and peers while they need to speak Arabic with their parents at home. Family may not always refer to a nuclear one, as a result of which, extended family members might have an influence on children's simultaneous language acquisition as long as they are involved in an interaction. As Baker (2001) exemplifies, a Chinese child living in the USA might need to understand Cantonese or Mandarin when he/she is to visit a relative although he/she communicates in English at home or at school.

4. The Language(s) to Which the Child Is Exposed in the Community

The languages spoken around a child have a serious impact on children's bilingualism. Baker (2001) remarks that while the child is exposed to a particular language inside the house, s/he can experience another language outside the house (i.e. in a nursery school, medium of instruction of which is different from the mother tongue).

Baker states that "sequential acquisition of bilingualism refers to the situation where a child acquires a first language, and later becomes proficient in the second language." (2001, p. 93). It means that the acquisition of the second language is always dependent on the first language a child acquires in the case of sequential bilingualism. Thus, sequential bilingualism may come up in diverse contexts.

The sequential bilingualism might occur because of global, local, social, political, cultural, religious and demographic changes. English is regarded as the global language. Crystal (2003) points out that you can see politicians talking in English, English signs and advertisements, English menus in restaurants and English speakers in hotels all around the world. This would definitely encourage people from different countries to communicate in English so that they can survive abroad. In the political context, people would acquire a second language to be able to develop diplomatic relations with their counterparts in other countries if they are politicians. In addition, people tend to acquire a second language so that they can understand the principles of their beliefs when their religious doctrine is written or presented in a different language. In terms of demographic changes, the cases in which two or more ethnic groups start to live together in the same region could be given as an example. When an ethnic group migrates to another country, they need to communicate in the language of that country at some point. Similarly, local people in that country might acquire the language of immigrants if they need to trade or do business with the minorities.

Baker (2001) divides means of acquisition into two categories, which are formal and informal means. As the names suggest, formal means are related to official contexts such as courses, and informal means refer to the unofficial environment where people are exposed to a language such as playgrounds.

Age-related Dimensions of Bilingualism

The age factor in language learning is a topic having been debated for years. Some people think learning a language at an early age provides a higher level of proficiency in the language while others claim that people learning the language in later stages of their lives are likely to be more

competent in communicating in the language. Researchers of the area mostly suggest that being at a younger age is to the benefit of the learner.

"Children are better second language learners than adults because their brains are specially organized to learn language, whereas those of adults are not. This is the explanation of the critical period hypothesis." (Birdsong, 1999). This definition indicates children seem to be more advantageous than adults in terms of language acquisition in that adults' biological features pose a challenge for them in developing certain language skills.

Patkowski (1994) summarizes the relevant research on critical age hypothesis in two points, which are, (a) in order to attain full native-like competency in L2 phonology, one needs to be a young learner most of the time, (b) statistics reveal a huge difference between young and older learners' overall competence in the long-run. In the light of the relevant research, it would not be surprising to observe that children who are at nursery school might be better at pronouncing vocabulary than adults at an evening class as they are exposed to the language more in their natural environment during the critical period.

Another point to consider when comparing young learners to adult learners in terms of language competency would be the L1 transfer (also called language transfer or first language transfer), which is a crucial result of the critical period. "Language transfer" is a term used for the tendency to transfer the phonology, syntax, and semantics of the first language into the learning of the second language.

> L2A during the critical period should show little or no effect of transfer from the first language because direct access to UG should override cognitive intervention in the process of constructing the system of rules for the second language. Learning after the critical period, however, would reflect elements of the first language because general cognitive resources would be recruited to construct the linguistic system, and they would naturally begin with the linguistic structures already in place (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1999, p. 167). Therefore, establishing a new linguistic system would be quite difficult for an adult when the existing knowledge of the individual on the first language acquired is taken into account. S/he would compare both languages, which would result in disadvantageousness of her/him.

Compound versus Coordinate Bilingualism

Compound and coordinate bilingualism refer to the concept of different grammar in the brain and the use of different grammar structures as a result of the possession of two languages. "Compound bilingualism", also defined as "simultaneous bilingualism", is referred to the bilingualism which occurs when a person acquires two languages at the same time in the same environment. On the other hand, "coordinate bilingualism" occurs when two languages are acquired in different stages of life.

Bilingualism in terms of Balance of Two Languages

Bilingualism might result in the balance of two languages, which means a person is equally competent in both languages. Even though the evaluation of a balanced bilingual competency is nearly impossible, a person can be named as a "balanced bilingual" if he/she is able to communicate equally in each language considering the context. "Unbalanced bilingualism", on the other hand, means the discrepancy in the competency of two languages. In such cases, a person is unable to communicate in equal competency in both languages.

Formal cases often play an unsuccessful role in equal competency of bilinguals in both languages. Two types of reasons can be accounted for this failure, which are individual-based reasons and professional reasons. Individual-based reasons stem from the speakers themselves. They may personally lack a purpose to acquire a language. It might result from the unpopularity of the target

language, the absence of a context to use that language or inability of the learner to concentrate on learning. In addition, learners might not practice the target language adequately in correlation with the motivational factors. The age of the learners plays a significant role in acquiring a language with high or low level of competency, as well. Professional reasons originate in the planning stage of the acquisition. Insufficient staging of lesson plan, use of the unauthentic materials and implementation of wrong methods are among professional reasons.

Context-related Dimensions of Bilingualism

Informal Second Language Learning

Baker (2001) claims that children tend to become bilingual unconsciously in the environment they live without any formal intention; through the exposure of TV channels watched at home, the communication with the people around them and peer-interaction. For instance, a Turkish child living in Germany may be unconsciously competent both in Turkish spoken by the family members or social groups s/he belongs to, and German spoken by his/her friends or people in the street.

Formal Second Language Learning

Besides the natural environment of a child, formal education plays an important role in becoming a bilingual. Under the title of 'formal education', it is possible to name voluntary language classes, evening classes, Ulpan classes and distance learning methods as well as language laboratories, computer-assisted language learning and language courses (Baker, 2001). In contrast to unconsciously acquiring a language, formal language learning often happens consciously. While it is more unconscious to learn a language at early ages, it becomes a conscious process in the later stages of the life considering job opportunities and social status as an adult.

(a) Voluntary language classes: Baker (2001) states that when family planning of a language is not enough to protect the bilingualism of the children in an immigrant community, and educational environment in schools prevents the use of minority languages, the local community might organize extra classes for children so that they can protect the heritage language. These classes will provide the community with a context to share the heritage culture, common values and ethics. Thus, it will contribute to the diversity of languages and cultures.

> Voluntary provisions may be for religious, cultural, social, integrative and ethnic minority vitality reasons. Thus, the providers are often religious institutions such as synagogues, mosques, temples and Orthodox churches. Jewish families attending a local synagogue are often enthusiastic for Hebrew to be taught to their children to maintain a Jewish identity and for religious observance. Moslems have often been keen for Qur'anic Arabic to be transmitted for worship in the mosque, just as gurdwaras have been instrumental in the acquisition of Panjabi. The Roman Catholic Church also has promoted the community language teaching of Polish, Ukrainian and Lithuanian. (Baker, 2001, p. 95)

Offering voluntary classes for the continuation of a particular identity would be an effective way to sustain the values of a community in the age of fusion, which is an inevitable outcome of globalization. Otherwise, all the religious, social and ethnic identities would be liable to transform into one single unit. Then, we would live in a monochrome environment rather than celebrating the diversity of the identities and cultures.

The United Kingdom contributes to the development of the minority languages by providing community language classes (Baker, 2001). It is an unavoidable action of the country considering the political and economic interaction of the country with the other communities across the country and the world in addition to the balance change among the languages. Edwards (2001) explains that it is highly possible for community language classes to integrate into the mainstream education in the

future considering Britain's becoming a member of the European Union, increasing importance of global trade and balance shift between the world languages as well as the efforts of ethnic group minority communities. Taking this into account, it would be appropriate to state that practical reasons attach a great importance to the protection of the minority languages. The attrition of the minority languages would result in the loss of political, economic and social interlocutors.

(b) Evening classes: As adult learners do not have time during the day most of the time, evening classes are offered for them at night or in the evening. They might try to learn a language as a requirement for their occupations, or they may learn it for other personal reasons. As Baker (2001) states, it might be organized to pass a proficiency test in the second language or to gain proficiency in the minority language.

(c) Ulpan courses: When a community needs to undergo a recovery process as a result of a social and political incident, it might employ ulpan courses so that it can transfer the heritage language to the following generations. "Ulpana is an Aramaic word, which could be translated as teaching, training or studio" (Newcombe & Newcombe, 2010). Ulpan courses require intensive training in Hebrew and cultural subjects. These courses provide the individuals with cultural components in addition to education in the heritage language. Lav (2009, Table 1) indicates the operation of Ulpan Department as following:

Table 1: The Ulpan Department operates in the following areas:

Note: From "The Integration Process in Israel," by Y. Lav, 2009, *Öif Dossier,* p. 20. Copyright 2009 by Österreichischer Integrationsfonds.

Baker (2001) states that the intensity of the courses is dependent upon the purpose of the course and the learners provided that the content includes communication and cultural elements. In other words, position of the immigrants, thus the motivation for taking place in the community will be the determinant in how many hours of course they will take. It is natural to see the concept of ulpan courses in Basque and Welsh in that these are also the communities which went through a recovery process to be able to conserve their heritage culture.

(d) Distance learning methods: With the development of technology, a lot of sources for language learning and acquisition such as software of coursebooks, online videos that contain language lessons provided by teachers, online language lessons, computer- assisted language learning facilities have become easily accessible. For instance, for a full-time working adult, it is preferable to take online language lessons provided by a professional teacher or institution in the comfort of his/her home after the intensive working hours he/she spends at work.

OUTCOMES OF BILINGUALISM

Nowadays, it is a must for a person to be a bilingual in order to survive in this multicultural and multilingual world. Being able to communicate in more than one language has been an advantage which almost everyone may want to use in our globalized world. However, it is important for people to use the languages they know correctly considering which of the languages they need to use in order to communicate. Bilingual adults and children tend to use all the languages they own separately. Nicoladis states that "current research suggests that 'in terms of phonology, lexicon, and syntax, children seem to produce their two languages differentially from very early in development." (as cited in Baker, 2001, p.91). Furthermore, children are able to code-switch easily when they talk to a monolingual or a bilingual person. 'Code-switching' refers to mixing or changing the structures, vocabulary and other components of at least two languages when a person possesses at least two languages. Nicoladis and Genesee (1997) point out that parents' attitude, children's ability to use the language(s), education language, communication with peers, children's characteristics, social and cultural environment might determine a child's language preference. As well as children do, adults' preference to use both languages or either of them is highly affected by several situations such as language barriers or lack of practice.

Language Loss

People mainly tend to lose their minority language when they have an intense exposure of a majority language. Mosin et. al. (2017) argued that it is possible that a person's lexical capacity may be affected negatively because of the unbalanced use of two languages. For example, a Syrian living in Turkey uses Turkish mainly in his/her education, peer-interaction and in many other fields of social life. Thus, s/he only uses his/her mother tongue with family members or with other minority language speakers of his/her community, and s/he gives priority to Turkish as it seems to have more prestige and more preference. A precaution which would be taken either by the family or by the government in terms of language planning is a must for a bilingual person so that s/he does not lose his/her minority language (Baker, 2001). Family language planning is a highly important component in proceeding the bilingual status of individuals; in that, family is the unit in which people get the basic values. When families fail in teaching their children their cultural elements, morality and ethics, and how to be the women or men they want them to be, they will end up having nothing in common, which will result in the loss of intimacy (Wong Fillmore, 1991). The loss of intimacy will eventually bring the loss of that language in the community in question together with the other cultural elements. It would be a disadvantageous situation for a bilingual individual since s/he loses a language; correspondingly, it would result in the attrition of an identity.

Codeswitching

Bilingual people might code-switch consciously or unconsciously while communicating with speakers of different languages considering the context. While some bilinguals mix the two languages, they have such as Turkish speakers living in Germany (i.e. Danke schön canım!), a few others can separate the two languages considering people they interact with are monolinguals or bilinguals. Language interference which is effective in determination of a person's language may be a good example of mixed code-switching. If a bilingual child is unable to differentiate between the two languages, it would be easily inferred that s/he experiences problems with language interference. For instance, a bilingual child who speaks Turkish at home and English at nursery might ask for water in Turkish at nursery school while s/he is communicating with his/her teacher. Similarly, s/he can greet his/her parents in English at home.

Borrowing some words or phrases from a language (language borrowing) is a common issue because of globalization. For example, English words such as 'drone' and 'selfie' are used commonly due to the technological developments around the world. As a bilingual Turkish and English speaker, one tends to use the English version of these words while communicating in Turkish in his/her daily life. It would be the result of the popularity of these words around the world. It could be argued that

when languages come into contact with one another, it is inevitable to borrow words or phrases from other languages (Baker, 2001).

Children as Language Brokers

As stated by Baker (2001), minority families might need their children to mediate between two communities. These children are responsible for translating or interpreting the conversations between the minority and majority community. For instance, when a Turkish family hosts a child from another country as a part of April 23 National Sovereignty and Children's Day, and the family members are monolinguals, the host child builds a bridge between the guest and the family in terms of communication. S/he translates the messages between the family members and the foreign child to break the communication barriers so that they can share their cultural or social values and experiences with one another. Interpreting the messages may sometimes be challenging for a child because they do not have the ability to think like an adult due to cognitive insufficiency. It may cause an intensive emotional and linguistic pressure on the child. However, interpreting can provide several benefits for children. Children play a valuable role in the family and keep the family together. They can gain maturity and improve themselves in cultural and social aspects by getting information from adult world at an early age, convey the messages faster than a monolingual, have a high level of metalinguistic awareness and gain empathy by linking two languages including their cultures and social lives. As stated by Baker (2001), minority families might need their children to mediate between two communities. It means these children are responsible for translating or interpreting the conversations between the minority and majority community. For instance, when a Turkish family hosts a child from another country as a part of April 23 National Sovereignty and Children's Day, and the family members are monolinguals, the host child builds a bridge between the guest and the family in terms of communication. S/he translates the messages between the family members and the foreign child to break the communication barriers so that they can share their cultural or social values and experiences with one another. Interpreting the messages may sometimes be challenging for a child in some cases because they do not have the ability to think like an adult as a result of cognitive insufficiency. It may cause an intensive pressure on the child in terms of emotional and linguistic cases. Furthermore, interpreting can provide several benefits for children such as creating a valuable role in the family and keeping the family together, they can gain maturity and improve themselves in cultural and social aspects by getting information from adult world at an early age, conveying the messages faster than a monolingual, having a high level of metalinguistic awareness and gaining empathy by linking two languages including their cultures and social lives.

BILINGUALISM IN TURKISH CONTEXT

Turkey hosts a diversity of cultures. Ayaz and Karataş (2017) state that cosmopolitan nature of the country results in the use of different languages. It is highly possible for a citizen of the country to become bilingual while living in that society. As the official language of Turkey is Turkish, speakers of minority languages are to speak Turkish in official contexts in line with the legal regulations. Therefore, speakers of minority languages tend to become bilinguals. Turkish speakers can become bilinguals through interaction with minorities, education system and the effects of globalization. In short, Turkey provides its citizens with many opportunities and environments so that they can become bilinguals as the country gives importance to diversity.

CAUSES AND AIMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Bilingual education is a complex progress which must be classified considering several aspects such as the diversity of languages used at home, used for implementing the curriculum, used by the people in the community. Considering the differences in the contexts, all bilingual education programmes are different. While categorizing the bilingual education types, it is essential to deal with the aims of the education type first.

As cited in Baker (2001) “A frequent distinction in aims is between transitional and maintenance bilingual education.” (p.192). In transitional bilingual education, it is aimed to replace the minority language with the majority language with the help of assimilation. In maintenance bilingual education, while students are encouraged to use their minority language, they are also taught to protect the rights of an ethnic minority group in a nation and maintaining their cultural identity.

- People can communicate with each other in a natural environment and become a part of a community socially.
- Bilingual education may aim to bring various people together under the same umbrella.
- Thanks to bilingual education, a person can build efficient language skills providing employment opportunities.
- Bilingual education may aim to keep a person’s language at the same level in order not to lead to minority language loss. It also prevents a person from the assimilation of ethnic and religious identity.
- We can also aim to develop his/her minority language skills in order to reach the completely proficient level in academic aspects.

TAXONOMY OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Considering a diversity of targets, in a classroom, bilingual education does not require to use the languages in an equalized way due to several aspects such as political, socio-cultural or economic issues. Classification of education is a good way to cover the aims and outcomes.

Table 2: Forms of education for bilingualism

WEAK FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM				
Type of Program	**Typical Type of Child**	**Language of the Classroom**	**Societal and Educational Aim**	**Aim in Language Outcome**
SUBMERSION (Structured Immersion)	Language Minority	Majority Language	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SUBMERSION with Withdrawal Classes / Sheltered English)	Language Minority	Majority Language with 'Pull-out' L2 Lessons	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SEGREGATIONIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Monolingualism
TRANSITIONAL	Language Minority	Moves from Minority to Majority Language	Assimilation	Relative Monolingualism
MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching	Language Majority	Majority Language with L2/FL Lessons	Limited Enrichment	Limited Bilingualism
SEPARATIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (out of choice)	Detachment/ Autonomy	Limited Bilingualism
STRONG FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM AND BILITERACY				
Type of Program	**Typical Type of Child**	**Language of the Classroom**	**Societal and Educational Aim**	**Aim in Language Outcome**
IMMERSION	Language Majority	Bilingual with Initial Emphasis on L2	Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINTENANCE/ HERITAGE LANGUAGE	Language Minority	Bilingual with Emphasis on L1	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
TWO-WAY/DUAL LANGUAGE	Mixed Language Minority & Majority	Minority and Majority	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL	Language Majority	Two Majority Languages	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
Notes: (1) L2 = Second Language; L1 = First Language; FL = Foreign Language. (2) Formulation of this table owes much to discussions with Professor Ofelia García. This typology is extended to 14 types of bilingual education in García (1997, p. 410).				

Note: Forms of Education. From *Foundations of Bilingual Education*

(3rd ed., p. 194), by C. Baker, 2001, Clevedon, Buffalo,

Toronto, Sydney: Multilingual Matters Ltd. Copyright 2001 Colin Baker.

Submersion Education

Submersion education is a process which requires a minority language student to study all day long in a majority language environment full of fluent majority language speakers. Carroll and Combs (2016) state that sufficient exposure to target language is necessary to acquire the target language. Similar to English medium schools in Turkey, both students and teachers are expected to communicate in the majority language rather than the minority language. In order to create a successful environment to the submersion education, some regulations must be enacted.

- Considering the aims of education, minority language students are put into the groups with each other not with majority language students. In this education environment, language grading (immersion) is essential in order to make the students competent in the majority language.

- While creating the student groups, it is crucial to consider the diversity of majority language levels of language minority students.

- Students' minority language may contribute to the learning process of the majority language.

Submersion with Pull-Out Classes

In order to create an appropriate environment required for teaching the majority language, submersion education may take place with or without the help of withdrawal or pull-out classes. In withdrawal classes, students may be pulled out for compulsory lessons in the majority language. There are some handicaps which may affect withdrawn students' success. First, the students who are pulled out may fall behind the curriculum and it may be impossible for them to catch up with the others. Secondly, it may affect the relationship between the peers in a negative way. The withdrawn students may be thought to be insufficient in the majority language by their peers.

Segregationist Education

A government's policy or aim may affect the education system in which the learning and acquisition happen among the minority language speaking students. In this system, minority language speaking students are forced to be isolated from the speakers of the majority language environment in order to discriminate the minority group or provide acquiescence. "Segregationist education forces a monolingual language policy on the relatively powerless" (Baker, 2001, p.198).

Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE)

Transitional bilingual education provides students with the use of their minority language or they are taught in their L1 until they become fully competent in the majority language with firm steps. May (2016) states that students use their mother tongue to make the process of transition into second language easier. Increasing the practice in the majority language step by step and decreasing the use of the minority language in the classroom environment is the main aim to make students proficient enough to deal with the mainstream education.

As Ramirez and Merinohere state there are two ways to implement TBE: providing minority language speakers with the home language in the classroom up to two years (early-exit) and providing students with the help of their minority language usage in the classroom for nearly half of the lessons until the sixth grade (late-exit) (as cited in Baker, 2001, p.199). In order to build a good rapport with the children and understand the progress of language learning to create strategies for teaching, a teacher must be bilingual and competent in both of the languages and s/he must switch the languages if needed.

Mainstream Education (with Foreign Language Teaching)

In most countries, students take their education in their home language although some foreign language teaching may take place. For instance, in Turkey, students take their education in Turkish, but they have second language lessons such as English and German at school. However, this type of education is not effective in terms of second language learning because of the time limit or lack of enough practice in the second language. To create a conducive environment for making the students functionally bilinguals, keeping motivation high and being advantageous financially are the key factors.

Separatist Education

In this kind of education, minority group isolates its language from the majority language for different reasons and in different contexts. Although there are not so many examples of this kind of education, it still exists.

BENEFITS AND DRAWBACKS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Bilingual education provides individuals and societies with many benefits as well as some drawbacks depending on the contexts. Therefore, it is highly important to detect the outcomes of bilingual education.

- Minority language speaking students may have difficulty in understanding the instructions of the teacher, peculiarly in the first couple of months of the school.
- The teacher may be unable to support his/her instructions to clarify the message with non-verbal tools.
- Students who have difficulty in conveying the instructions may be demotivated and unwilling to participate in the learning process.
- In mainstream education classes, discrepancy between the students who range from competent majority language owners to those who have difficulty in conveying the meaning may be challenging for the teacher.
- In order to create a balance between competent and incompetent students, a teacher is required to have a good range of expertise.
- Assimilation of the minority language may end up with the ignorance of a student's identity, cultural values and ethnic group. This ignorance may increase the stress level of the student and lead to build a language barrier.
- In the learning process, doing different things at the same time may cause stress.
- Students can communicate with each other and become a part of their natural social environment.
- Bilingual education brings different students from a diversity of cultures together under the same umbrella.
- Students enhance their chances to find appropriate business opportunities as a result of bilingual education.
- A student develops his/her minority language skills in order to reach the completely proficient level in academic aspects.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN TURKISH CONTEXT

Mainstream with foreign language teaching bilingual education system is adopted in Turkey. Turkish is the official language, and it is the dominant language in many contexts as well as the education system. English as a foreign language classes are offered in schools across the country. Apart from English, some other languages such as German and French are also offered as elective foreign languages by schools. There are some schools providing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in Turkey, which means medium of instruction is another language rather than the mother tongue. English is medium of instruction in those schools in Turkish context. However, the

country does not put focus on English medium education to a great extent. Many schools adopt Turkish as the medium of instruction around the country.

Republic of Turkey Directorate General of Migration Management (2017) states that the number of people having working permit in Turkey in 2016 is 56591 besides 174466 irregular migrants. It indicates that there have been a great movement to the country, and these people need adaptation in terms of social life, economic life and educational life in the country. Children of Syrian immigrants, having moved to Turkey in recent years, have been required to adapt to common education system in Turkey. This means that they have faced submersion bilingual education system. Students are to survive in schools even if they do not speak Turkish. Burlbaw & Özfidan (2017) suggest ethnic identity reinforcement for minority students to succeed. In some schools, Arabic is offered as an elective course so that immigrant students can maintain their heritage languages. Turkish students have a chance to take these courses; thus, to communicate better with their immigrant peers. Syrian students are provided with 15 hours of Turkish lessons. Thus, they are aimed to be integrated into the society more easily. Some institutions, either official or unofficial, provide Turkish classes not only for children but also for adults. Immigrants have a chance to adapt to Turkish society through the utilization of those courses. Peachy (2016) assumes that in Turkey, American model of instruction, which includes instructions in both the mother tongue and the national language is the most suitable and easy one to implement for bilingual education.

CONCLUSION AND EDUCATIONAL REMARKS

Bilingual education is a system, which dates back to around 5000 years, and is to be understood by figuring out its historical background. Fabian, Failasofah and Fnu (2018) define the basic aim of bilingual education as improving students' skills in two languages. In this study, different dimensions and types of bilingualism and the factors which lead people to become bilinguals have been explained. While it is possible to become a bilingual in a bilingual environment provided by parents or environment in which people live unconsciously, it is also possible for a person to be a bilingual person consciously. On the other hand, bilingualism can lead a person to lose his/her minority language because of intensive use or the prestige of the majority language.

Bilingualism might bring about some responsibilities for the children, as well. Interpreting another language is a common expectation of families from bilinguals. Bilinguals also tend to code-switch between the languages they speak. Although bilingualism seems to bring some minor disadvantages to individuals in some contexts, its advantages outweigh those minor drawbacks in that bilingualism ensure diversification of languages and cultures around the world.

Different bilingual education forms have also been investigated. Immersion education programs have some positive effects on bilingual education as well as some negative outcomes. These outcomes are related not only with the second language learning, but also with the success in the curriculum areas. Students' individual and social performances are affected in a positive way by strong forms of bilingual education. Baker and Polanco (2018) state that literacy and math growth rate of students in bilingual programs are faster, which is an important point for bilingual education. Herrera (2020) claims that "according to research, bilingual students perform better on tasks that require divided attention and executive control tasks" (p. 29). Ağaoğlu and Yağmur (2016) mention that balanced bilingual education allowing students to build on their mother tongue is a better way than mainstream language education.

Apart from the general framework, bilingualism and bilingual education in Turkish context have been examined. Studies have shown that countries in current world system adopt bilingual education systems. Coste (2014) states that cultural plurality and its effects on communities are to be accepted in schools. Blackledge and Creese (2010) claim that bilingual pedagogy provides teachers and learners with identity performance besides learning and teaching. Chimbutane (2009) states that bilingual education facilitates academic success and acculturation of immigrants into the community by protecting heritage culture of immigrants and leading majority community learners to learn a

second language. Mukan, Shyika and Shyika (2017) state that Canada's educational programmes at the beginning of the 21st century are aimed to be available to all communities in the society, which fosters bilingual education policies. Maljers (2007) mentions that The Netherlands established a bilingual education system to enable students learn the content of the subject while providing students with a second language. Holm, Sahlström, and Zilliacus (2017) declare that cultural integration of all students into the education and society through bilingual education is the focus of curriculum in Finland. According to Palaiologou (2016), Greece is working on bilingual education by asking universities to prepare related activities and programmes. Gao and Ren (2019) assert that Chinese government is in favor of bilingual education to unify the nation, modernize and develop linguistic diversity. It means Turkey needs bilingual education models to adapt to the rest of the world. Mukan, et al (2017) remark that economically developed countries include bilingual education programs in their system as they are aware of the significance of it in the society. Hegediš and Hus (2018) state that bilingual education is a sign of respect for others and provides equality among the ethnic groups. Taking all these points into consideration, more research on bilingualism and education is required for better application of bilingual programs as well as the acceptance of the importance of bilingual education.

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Research Article

An Analysis of Turkish Students' Written Errors: A Case of an EFL Context

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Abstract: The present study depicts the use of an authentic small-scale database consisting of students' written errors from a preparatory school at a private university based in Turkey, intending to analyze their learning errors and types of them. The data has been collected from 17 English preparatory school students, whose levels are reported as intermediate according to the proficiency test based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. To unveil the students' written errors, two researchers have investigated 17 essays thoroughly. Via briefing, the researchers have reached a consensus on the categories and analyzed the frequencies of errors using descriptive statistics. According to the findings, the participants have struggled mostly in the grammatical aspect, followed by lexical and mechanical aspects of language. The errors of the students have been further categorized into small groups by presenting sample errors. Overall, the present study has implications for teachers, curriculum designers and students.
Keywords: *error analysis, EFL writing, grammatical error, lexical error, mechanical error*

INTRODUCTION

English has been perceived as the inevitable language in some aspects due to a more globalized world. Therefore, mastering English and boosting English language skills such as reading, listening, writing, and speaking, have become compulsory. Among these skills, writing has been widely referred to mostly as a challenging skill to develop in English (Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013; Rattanadilok Na Phuket & Othman, 2015). The case is similar in higher education, according to Gillet (2004). This challenge continues in the contexts where English is taught as a foreign language; and the learners seem to have difficulties producing academic writings since writing demands cognitive analysis and linguistic synthesis (Seitova, 2016). Therefore, it doubles the challenge of writing and requires time and effort to master the skill. In the meantime, EFL learners inevitably and naturally commit various errors which might be utilized for several learning purposes (Raimes, 1983). Firstly, students have a chance to elaborate on the grammatical structures, vocabulary, and idioms that have been presented to them, and then, they necessarily get involved in the use of new language features in the writing process. In addition to this, Corder (1967) has demonstrated the significance of learners' errors in the language learning process. First of all, learners' errors inform teachers considering the extent of accomplishment of teaching-learning objectives and weaker areas of learners on which need to be elaborated. Moreover, learners can use the errors as a tool to enhance their language learning progress. As it has been acknowledged, the domain of errors is highly significant in that it provides various benefits not only to teachers but also to students themselves. Therefore, studying errors is of importance in foreign language teaching since it provides feedback to teachers and enlightens them in terms of the effectiveness of the instruction.

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Among the ways of studying errors in a pedagogical context, Error Analysis seems to be undertaken by many researchers. Corder (1981) has explicated two reasons for performing Error Analysis (EA): theoretical and practical reasons. The former informs teachers regarding the teaching and learning process. The latter provides remedial steps needed to be taken to correct learners' errors. Hence, Error Analysis is a useful method to diagnose learners' writing problems, analyze them, and discover solutions to improve the teaching process. Moreover, Ferris (2002) has clarified that error analysis can increase language learning effectiveness and the teaching process alongside corrective feedback techniques. In a similar vein, Vahdatinejad (2008) has asserted that the Error Analysis method provides evidence of learners' errors, which help teachers determine what is missing in the learners' linguistic competence.

Considering the Turkish EFL context in the recent past, there seem to be a spark of interest (Can, 2018; Demirel, 2017; Kırmızı & Karcı, 2017; Lay & Yavuz, 2020; Polat, 2018; Taşçı & Aksu Ataç, 2018; Terzioğlu & Bensen Bostancı, 2020) investigating the L2 errors of students. Following the related literature traces, the present study set out to unveil the samples and frequencies of the participants' written errors. Therefore, the current study has been conducted to discover and analyze the errors made by EFL learners from preparatory school in a private university. To this end, the research questions of the present study are demonstrated hereunder:

1- What is the frequency of grammatical errors performed by students at a private university in an EFL context?
2- What is the frequency of lexical errors performed by students at a private university in an EFL context?
3- What is the frequency of mechanical errors performed by students at a private university in an EFL context?

The present study might contribute to the related literature by bringing more examples from the aforementioned error types. Therefore, it might have practical implications in terms of potential errors to be committed by the learners. In this light, the practitioners might tailor their lessons, whereas curriculum designers elaborate on those areas more, according to the learners' needs. Likewise, the learners might be presented with the errors and asked to work on those errors collaboratively, which might yield a good practice of challenging language features.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Error Analysis is regarded as among the most common and beneficial methods used by researchers and educators in order to analyze the learners' errors. In previous studies pertaining to error analysis, the researchers employed different categorizations, reflecting either a particular interest or a holistic perspective. Their samples of interest also differed depending on the context, which is presented as global and local, respectively. In this section, emerging patterns of written errors and analyses are aimed to be unveiled.

Sun (2014) conducted a study to explore the frequent ungrammatical patterns found in Chinese EFL learners' free writings. Accordingly, the researcher aimed to find useful pedagogical implications for grammar teaching in the EFL context in China. 30 undergraduate students participated in this study. For the data collection, the students were asked to write about anything they want, including at least 250 words. The corpus of texts included 323 errors, and they were categorized into 13 error types as lack of S-V agreement, missing verb (predicate), multiple verbs, missing NP/Subject, "to" infinitive, wrong tense or verb form, misuse of determiners, misuse of the preposition, misuse of adverbials, violation of binding theories, zero use of the pronoun, misuse of quantifiers, and Chinese-English expressions. Among them, misuse of determiners errors (n=119) is the most repeated error type in the data, followed by Chinese-English expressions (n=43) and Wrong Tense or Verb Form (n=37). In conclusion, teachers can enable learners to notice these most frequent grammatical mistakes and help them restructure and internalize these structures through explicit grammar instruction.

Pescante-Malimas & Samson's (2017) conducted a study in which senior students' linguistic errors were analyzed. The research aim is to identify the grammatical syntactic and substance errors of the participants' thesis proposals alongside a justification per error qualification via employing content analysis, frequencies of errors, and student interviews. The researchers coded a compilation of 32 thesis drafts. Therefore, a comprehensive error analysis yielded three main categories of errors: grammatical, syntactical, and mechanics/substance. After coding, specific examples from errors were taken as a sample for the related category of the error to get a more in-depth insight. Moreover, to identify the relationship between the three major departments and linguistic errors, a chi-square test was implemented. To validate the previous data, the researchers conducted an interview with students to understand their awareness of their mistakes. According to the findings, the category of grammar attracted the most frequent number of errors from the participants, especially in terms of pronoun and antecedent agreement, proper tense usage, and verb-subject agreement. On the other hand, considering syntactic errors, fragments and run-on sentences led the error-prone areas, whereas punctuation and spelling were the top errors in mechanics-type errors.

Singh, Singh, Razak, and Ravintar (2017) investigated the most frequent grammatical errors of tertiary students from different areas of Malaysia. In this vein, the study follows the Error Analysis approach and qualitative approach. 144 tertiary students from different schools in Malaysia participated in the study. After the students took the university entrance exam, the data was collected from them, including 144 essays, including approximately 250 words. The essays were examined, and grammatical errors were marked. Those errors were divided into several categories, such as parts of speech and tenses. The errors were analyzed according to their types and frequencies through descriptive statistics. The results yielded that the error types belong to nine categories: subject-verb agreement, verb tense, noun, preposition, adjective, article, pronoun, adverbs, and conjunction. It was concluded that the total number of errors found in the corpus is 744. The most frequent error types were found as subject-verb agreement (n=258), verb tenses (n=226), noun (n=141), followed by preposition (n=44) and adjective (n=34). The least frequent ones were article (n=19), pronoun (n=16), adverb (n=4) and conjunction (n=2). This study contributed to the analysis of grammatical errors in texts written by EFL learners.

Sermsook, Liamnimit, and Pochakorn (2017) carried out a study to investigate the types and the sources of language errors found in the writings of 26 major English students from Thai University. 104 pieces of written work were collected from the students. Besides, the researcher employed a questionnaire and individual/group interviews to support the data. After the researcher collected the students' written work, each sentence was examined and marked by the researcher. The errors were categorized into two groups as the sentential level errors and the word-level errors. 17 types of errors were identified in the students' written works. In total, 296 errors were detected in the data. Among the sentential level errors, punctuation errors (n=42) were the most frequent error type found in the data. It is followed by subject-verb agreement errors (n=35) and capitalization errors (n=24). On the other hand, among the errors at the word level, the most common error type was articles (n=39), followed by spelling errors (n=29) and verbs (n=14). These errors might be seen as valuable indicators of the language learning process. Using evidence of error types from this study, teachers can help their learners lessen their writing errors. Teachers might enable learners to notice the differences between Thai and English.

When it comes to the Turkish context, it seems that written errors have been of more interest in the last decade. Regarding Yalçın's (2010) Ph.D. dissertation, it was organized as a cross-sectional study upon analyzing the syntactic errors of 34 Turkish students' argumentative essay writings. First-year and third-year students were compared based on their error types. As a result, the use of articles (31.4%), verbs (25%), nouns (16.6%), pronouns (12.8%) attracted the errors mostly. The comparison across the year of study did not yield any significant difference in the frequency of errors. Article-related errors, on the other hand, were regarded as significantly different from the rest of the error types.

Focused on particular types of errors, Kırmızı and Karcı (2017) aimed to investigate the types and the frequencies of grammatical and lexical errors in the essays of higher education Turkish ELL students in terms of function words, grammar and morphology, syntax, and lexical errors; the predominant errors in the essays of higher education Turkish ELL students and the sources of the errors in higher education Turkish ELL students' essays. 30 undergraduate students majoring in English Language and Literature were selected as participants. They were required to write an essay on "The qualities of a good teacher". As for the data analysis, the classification was adopted from Wakkad (1980) and Tan (2007), which has six categories (function words, morphology, and grammar, syntax, word order, lexical errors) and several subcategories at each level. Overall, the results of the study implied that wrong word choice, the addition of "the," and word order type of errors are more error-prone than the rest. As for "function words"; "addition of the" and "confusion of prepositions" were the most frequent errors, whereas "confusion of articles" attracted the least frequency of errors. As for the category of "morphology and grammar"; "lack of agreement between the subject and the main verb", while "irregular verb" attracted the least amount of errors. Under the category of "lexical items"; "wrong word choice" dominated the errors, whereas "typical Turkish construction" had the least number of errors. Within the category of "syntax"; "omission of the verb to be" attracted a frequent amount of errors; on the contrary, "using progressive" had the least amount of errors. In the category of "word order"; the most predominant subcategory was "sequence of the sentence" whereas the least predominant was "wrong use of word group". As for the category of "confusion of tenses"; it can be said that the most frequent amount of errors belongs to this category, which might be further associated with L1 interference and interlingual interference. It is noteworthy that overgeneralization errors are still prevalent at this high level of proficiency; thus, L1 influence should not be disregarded at higher proficiency levels. It is suggested that possible sources of errors could be studied from the students' point of view.

As for error analysis studies focusing on genre, Demirel (2017) conducted a study in the Turkish EFL context. The purpose was to describe the learners' performance clearly to enhance teaching practices and provide evidence about non-native learners' writing for the literature. The corpus of the study included 150 student essays of different genres: the extended argument, argument, process, and definition essays from 45 undergraduate students. The study's findings indicated that the most problematic areas for the students were verbs, nouns, and prepositions. Verbs use-related errors comprised of 26.3% of all errors in the study, while noun use-related errors accounted for 23%. Proposition use-related errors were 15.7%, and these error types were regarded as interlingual transfer errors. Among the style related errors, while the majority of them was in-text citation errors, it was followed by wordiness errors (19.6%) and lack of reference (9%). This corpus analysis study provided an essential resource for language professionals because the findings in this study might help them improve and adjust their activities and materials.

Employing a holistic perspective, Polat's (2018) conducted a study, which was a type of comparative error analysis with regards to the writings of A2-leveled undergraduate preparatory school students who were from Turkey (n=5), Syria (n=5), and Azerbaijan (n=5) in terms of lexical, spelling and grammatical errors. In the related literature, it was found that understanding the learners' struggles in writing was crucial so as to improve the quality of L2 writing. Nonetheless, there was no comparative writing analysis concentrating on the differences between learners' errors from distinct cultures. In light of this aim, the study was guided through three research questions focusing on the distribution of grammar errors, lexical items, and spelling. Qualitative data was collected via 60 pieces of writing by following the error analysis steps suggested by Corder (1974) to answer these questions. Interestingly enough, findings revealed that Turkish and Azerbaijani students had a good number of commonalities regarding the types of errors, although the three groups had some differences in terms of frequency and type of errors. This similarity was linked to the similar features of the culture and language of Azerbaijani and Turkish. In contrast, the underlying reasons for differences among the three groups were related to negative transfers from L1 or the effect of the background culture. This study is of importance when its comparative nature has been considered within the boundaries of error analysis.

In the study conducted by Can (2018), learner corpus data was utilized to analyze agreement errors of Turkish and Greek learners, who were reported as in the range of B1-C2 proficiency according to CEFR. Corpus-based data was used within the framework of Corder's (1971) Error Analysis method, which is also established as a foundation for the present study. According to the analysis, Verb Agreement, Noun Agreement, Anaphor Agreement, Determiner Agreement, Agreement Error, and Quantifier Agreement errors were ranked the most erroneous domains, respectively. Overall, the teachers in the EFL context are recommended to make use of authentic learning materials alongside data-driven teaching methods to maximize the learning experience. By observing written and oral productions, teachers can have the opportunity to highlight and build on the areas that learners tend to make errors. Building on the data-driven learning and corpus studies, Lay and Yavuz (2020) investigated 30 low-intermediate Turkish learners' written errors through pre and post-test design. Their analysis focused on Turkish to English interlingual errors, which were gathered in more than ten weeks. The findings suggested that corpus and contextualized data-driven learning eventually contribute to decreasing the participants' written errors.

With the aim of analyzing grammatical errors only, Taşçı and Aksu Ataç (2018) designed a study in which the learners were given a free writing task. The grammatical errors of the learners were categorized, relying on ICLE/ Louvain Taxonomy of Errors. After analyzing the errors individually, three coders reached common ground and finalized the analyses. The findings demonstrated that preposition errors ranked the most, preceded by the errors pertaining to verbs, articles, word classes, and pronouns. Parallel to the related literature, the potential sources were associated with developmental processes and interference of L1.

Terzioğlu and Bensen Bostancı (2020) gathered data following a quasi-experimental design from 58 Turkish Cypriot students studying in tenth grade. The errors were divided into syntactic, morphological, orthographic, and lexical categories. The results yielded that errors were ranked respectively as of the areas related to articles, prepositions, word order, verb tense, plural -s, possessive –s, comparative adjectives, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and word choice. Moreover, there was a significant difference between experimental and control groups regarding the total number of errors. Whereas the syntactic category attracted more errors from both groups (experimental=133; control=175), morphological category (experimental=72; control=103), orthographical (experimental=24; control=37), and lexical category (experimental=3; control=5) followed. Both interlingual and intralingual interference were considered as significant factors affecting the production of errors.

In the present study, it is aimed to build upon the literature based on the analysis of written errors through Error Analysis following Corder (1967), which has also been established as a foundation to recent research conducted in the Turkish context (Polat, 2018; Can, 2018), as well. By providing more examples from this context, it might be beneficial in the following terms:

i. Turkish learners' written error samples might be compared and contrasted to those with similar proficiencies,
ii. The error types might be compared to those in the other EFL contexts,
iii. The distribution of errors might be beneficial in informing the teachers and curriculum designers.

METHODOLOGY

Following the convenience sampling method, 17 English preparatory school students have been selected. They are undergraduate students from various departments that require the completion of preparatory school with a substantial level of English language proficiency. The participants' level is reported as intermediate, B1 according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001), which has been determined through a proficiency exam conducted at the beginning of the term. The proficiency exam focuses mostly on academic English and covers reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills. The participants' age range, who stated to be instructed in EFL for over nine years, is between 19 and 21.

Considering the private institution they study at, the participants are provided with a 4-hours separate class focusing on only writing instruction. The institution follows a writing booklet generated by the instructors based on the results of need analysis. Accordingly, the writing curriculum includes different genres such as cause and effect essay, advantages and disadvantages essay, opinion essay, compare and contrast essay. After students master these genres, they focus on the 'mix type' essay, a term created by a group of instructors working specifically on the writing skill. The mix type essays are a combination of different genres in one task, which is formed due to need analysis. For instance, students are supposed to write about the advantages of something and its causes, which is called the advantages and causes essay. This method's rationale is not to limit students within the border of the genres and let them express their opinions freely.

In this study, the participants have been asked to write an essay on the disadvantages/effects of living in a city/countryside, disadvantages/ effects of smoking as a requirement of the writing course. The essays have been produced as 350- 450 words-long in general. As for the analysis, the steps of Error Analysis laid out by Corder (1967) are applied, which comprises the collection, identification, and description of errors. In this light, firstly, the articles have been collected through the learners' production, and the researchers have identified their errors. Categorization conducted in the present study is similar to those in JMPVK and Premarathna (2011) and Pescante-Malimas and Samson's (2017). Firstly, grammatical errors denote the wrong usage of the parts of speech, such as verb tenses, prepositions, and articles. Lexical errors cover the errors affecting the meaning of the constructions such as substitution, omission; meanwhile, mechanical errors cover the errors related to the technical part of sentence construction such as punctuation, capitalization.

Upon describing the errors with the main categories, emerging themes and codes have been demonstrated with authentic examples derived from the collected data. The researchers have compared and contrasted their coding and reached a consensus on the final categorization via briefing. Some subcategories have been unified under broader categories to have a bigger picture of error-prone areas. This analysis procedure might be interpreted as content analysis since systematic labeling has been utilized to discover the characteristics of a document (Polat, 2018). After the analysis, the errors have been counted to demonstrate and summarize the data so that the descriptive statistics would contribute to unearthing the participants' patterns of errors.

FINDINGS

Table 1. Distribution of Errors – Main Categories

	Frequency	Percentage
Grammatical Errors	143	52.38
Lexical Errors	80	29.3
Mechanical Errors	50	18.31
Total	273	100

The present study's findings have demonstrated that the participants have difficulty in all three categories of error. As it can be clearly seen in Figure 1, grammatical errors (n=143; 52.3%) have attracted the highest number of frequency, followed by lexical errors (n=80; 29.3%) and mechanical errors (n=50; 18.3%), respectively. It might be beneficial to elaborate on the error types and the subcategories via examining examples to have a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Table 2. Distribution of Errors – Subcategories

		Frequency	Percentage
Grammatical Errors	Preposition	30	20.97
	Singularity/ Plurality	25	17.48
	Verb Conjugation	21	14.68
	Article-related	20	13.98
	Subject-Verb Agreement	15	10.48
	Conjunction	13	9.09
	Auxiliary verb	10	6.99
	Word order	9	6.29
Lexical Errors	Substitution	49	61.25
	Omission	13	16.25
	Spelling	11	13.75
	Wrong word class	7	8.75
Mechanical Errors	Punctuation	24	48
	Conjunctions	7	14
	Incomplete sentences	7	14
	Capitalization	7	14
	Written-mode	5	10

a. Grammatical Errors

The findings have yielded that the corpus of the study consisted 143 grammatical errors. Among them, errors related to singularity/plurality (n=25) are the most frequent category, followed by verb conjugations errors (n=21). On the other hand, the least common grammatical error is related to using the addition of prepositions (n=8). The other types identified in this category are the omission of the auxiliary verb(n=10), subject-verb-agreement errors (n=15), the wrong verb conjugation(n=21), wrong use of conjunction or omission of conjunction (n=13), the omission of the preposition (n=13), the addition of preposition (n=8), wrong use of preposition (n=9), wrong word order (n=9), and omission and addition of articles (n=20).

Some of the errors related to singularity/plurality committed by learners are as following:

(1) Another disadvantages is the risk of lung cancer.*

(2) These structure make a city bad.*

(3) A lot of effect of smoking cigarette…*

Some of the errors related to the wrong verb conjugation committed by learners are as follows:

(4) People want to living in the countryside.*

(5) There are many disadvantages, such as not have a private life.*

(6) People who living in a city are not happy.*

b. Lexical Errors

When the lexical errors were analyzed, it was discovered that the majority of the error types were related to the use of the wrong word (n=49). However, errors pertinent to misuse of word-class were very few. The other lexical errors were related to misspelling (n=11), wrong word class (n=7), and omission of the word (n=13).

Some of the errors related to wrong word use are as following:

(7) Social activities provide (encourage) the people*

(8) Cigarettes have got (include) tobacco, carbon monoxide.*

(9) They are false (wrong) role models for kids.*

c. Mechanical Errors

The findings of the analysis include 50 mechanical errors, of which the most repetitive error type was the omission of punctuation (n=24). The majority of this error category (n=17) includes the omission of a comma after conjunctions.

Some of the errors related to the omission of punctuation committed by learners are as follows:

(10) Firstly I would like to start with the disadvantages.*

(11) However we are not sure about it completely.*

(12) They are many disadvantages and also* effects on people.*

The least frequent mechanical error type was related to the use of informal language in academic writing. In this category, the contraction was the most repetitive error type in the learners' paper.

Some of the errors related to contraction are as following:

(13) It's a big mistake for adults.

(14) I can't describe how it looks like.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This study investigates the written errors committed by English preparatory school students via examining their essays in terms of grammatical, lexical, and mechanical errors. The findings have revealed that the participants have had the highest number of errors in the category of grammatical errors (n=143; 52.3%), whereas lexical errors (n=80; 29.3%) and mechanical errors (n=50; 18.3%) have attracted less number of frequency by the students. The findings inform us further that errors

pertaining to substitution (n=49), preposition (n=30), singularity/plurality (n=25), punctuation (n=24), verb conjugation (n=21), articles (n=20), subject-verb agreement (n=15), conjunction (n=13), omission (n=13), spelling (n=11), auxiliary verb (n=10), word order (n=9), wrong word class (n=7), conjunctions-comma (n=7), incomplete sentences (n=7), capitalization (n=7), written modality (n=5) ranked as the most error occurring fields, respectively.

In line with the present study's category of grammatical errors, prepositions have been ranked as the most occurring error type in the study of Taşçı and Aksu Ataç (2018). According to the results of a study conducted by Sermsook et al. (2017), punctuation errors are the most frequent error type identified in the data. Likewise, this error type is the most frequently occurring error type in this study within the mechanical error category boundaries. This study has also discovered that the wrong word use is the learners' major lexical error, which might be related to mother tongue influence as choosing the appropriate vocabulary items for the related context. This result is parallel to Sun's study (2014), which indicated evidence for many Chinese-English expressions under the influence of L1 interference.

On the other hand, contrary to the studies that found article-related errors most occurring in their data set (Yalçın, 2010; Kırmızı & Karcı, 2017; Terzioğlu & Bensen Bostancı, 2020), the present study has found the articles as relatively lower ranking compared to other types. However, the articles still occupy a significant proportion (n=20; 13.9%) when the overall distribution of errors is analyzed. Therefore, special attention might be needed for Turkish EFL learners to overcome this type of errors. As suggested by Can (2018) and Lay & Yavuz (2020), the data-driven learning method and authentic data utilizing contextualized corpus might establish a way for guiding the learners to overcome the errors.

In the related literature, the researchers have utilized various perspectives regarding the error analysis. The present study has employed a holistic perspective while analyzing the written errors of the students. Apart from the perspectives, categorizations have differed across various studies. For instance, instead of the syntactic category, which has been exploited by Pescante- Malimas & Samson (2017), this study has used the lexical category. By categorizing some errors under the lexical category, it has been aimed to find some common errors concerning lexical items' usage. Similarly, Kırmızı & Karcı (2017) have formed two categories as lexical and grammatical, which makes the category of mechanical errors distinctive in this study. Since genre-based writings emphasize the organization of the writing besides other aspects, apart from these two categories (grammatical, lexical), in the present study, mechanical aspects have been examined, as well. As for the results, Pescante- Malimas & Samson (2017) have found high frequencies of errors in the grammatical error category, which is in accordance with the present study. Furthermore, JMPVK et al. (2011) have discovered that the majority of the errors are pertinent to grammar, which is in line with this study. On the other hand, under the grammatical category, pronoun and antecedent agreement, proper tense usage, and verb-subject agreement have been reported to attract a higher number of errors, while in the present study, singularity/plurality and verb conjugations have been identified as the most frequent subcategories.

In light of this study's findings, educators might take some remedial steps to lessen the number of errors committed by the learners. Owing to the high frequency of wrong word choice, it could be emphasized that students should not only use a bilingual dictionary but also monolingual dictionaries in order to avoid the effect of mother tongue. Furthermore, students might be encouraged to elaborate on how to use a concordance. Hence, they might be able to see the word in the context. Further studies might employ a comparative study on the error analysis across different genres to see the patterns of errors. Designing a quasi-experimental study comparing different genres and isolated use of specific genres might be fruitful. In this way, the results might reflect the differences among such a twist on the genre-based approach and its benefits/drawbacks regarding student production.

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Research Article

The Role of Pedagogical Translation on The Development of Intercultural Communicative Competence in Language Teaching

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Abstract: Methods of language teaching, up to the boost of communicative approach, have neglected the role of pedagogical translation throughout the twentieth century in order to prevent the use of the L1 (the mother tongue) in the classroom. With the elaboration of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in 2001, there has been a radical shift from an interactional language learning perspective at a bilingual environment to an intercultural perspective at a multilingual level with the recent theories of sociocultural learning and the emergence of intercultural competence. This study intends to redraw the theoretical background of translation in language learning after the traditional grammar-translation method and to deconstruct the neglected role of translation in the emerging methods during the second half of the twentieth century up to communicative and action-oriented approaches. The study aims at reinitiating the translation-based learning in coherence with the action-oriented approach, which is based upon the appropriation of an Intercultural Communicative Competence in language teaching. It was a qualitative phenomenographic research and the researcher examined data collected from ten experts and three main categories had been determined. The main theme was the impact of translation on intercultural communicative competence, which was divided into three categories (role, impact, and awareness via translation) It has been concluded that the translation is a way to surpass cultural boundaries in language teaching and the role of translating is a kind of mediation. Translation is not only an activity of transcoding, but also a complex procedure in which interfere language, culture, but also the inter-subjective pragmatic relations between individuals and the society.

Keywords: *Pedagogical translation, Intercultural Communicative Competence, Action-oriented approach, CEFR, Foreign Language Education*

INTRODUCTION

> **"**In order to translate a foreign language, one should fulfil two conditions which are both necessary and not enough on their own: to study the foreign language; and to study (systematically) ethnography of the community in which this translated language is expressed**."**
>
> George Mounin

Under the increasing influence of globalization, demographic and immigration movements, the activities of translation become a widespread phenomenon in order to cope with multicultural and multilingual demands enhancing during the last decades in Europe and worldwide. These circumstances lead the European Community to elaborate a CEFR (2001) based upon the satisfaction of deeds of language learning and communication requirements in a multilingual environment that challenge the promotion of a social and intercultural competence in an action-based language-teaching curriculum. Traditional methods of language teaching have neglected the role of pedagogical translation throughout the twentieth century in order to prevent the use of the L1 in the classroom. Yet, with the arrival of action-oriented approach, we witness at a regain of interest of the use of translation

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in a foreign language class. In this study, we will examine the reasons of the ignorance announced above and deconstruct the negligence of translation in the emerging methods during the second half of the twentieth century up to communicative approach. The researcher intends to reinitiate the translation-based learning in coherence with the action-oriented approach, which is based also on the appropriation of an Intercultural Communicative Competence in language teaching (Byram& Zarrate, 1996; Byram & Flemming ; 1998, Byram, Nichols & Stevens, 2001; Byram, Gribkova &Starkey, 2002; Zarrate, 2003; M Byram, P Holmes & N Savvides ,2013; Byram, 2012). Camphell (2002) claims that EFL (English as a foreign language) teaching methods often disapprove the use of the first language altogether and as a consequence ignore the potential of translation in language learning and he enumerates four factors that undermine the lack on integration of translation and EFL as 1) a strong anti-translation bias in EFL teaching methodology; 2) lack of recognition of translation in EFL publishing industry; 3) obstacles stemming from the demographics of EFL; 4) lack of interest from translation. Nevertheless, Naimushin (2002) claims that translation could be considered as the fifth skill alongside the other four in a foreign language class. The potential of translation activities to develop foreign language skills (Camphell, 2002; Elorza, 2008; Beaven &Alvarez 2004; Kocbek, 2014) is mostly ignored by foreign language teachers. The researcher in this paper intends to undo the negligence of translation activities in foreign language teaching and to analyse the effects of translation studies as a strategy that could be used in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) as a key factor in order to apprehend the skills necessary in a learning directed to the achievement of an intercultural communicative competence which requires mutual understanding and awareness of not only the culture of the self but also the others.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

"To speak a language is to take on a world, a culture."
Frantz Fanon

Translation as a method dates from the 16th century while the teaching of Greek-Latin and vice-versa, and the reputation of the translation as a major method in order to teach a foreign language was during the 19th century when it was used to understand and learn grammatical rules in target language. This method named originally as Grammar-Translation method was focused on learning grammar rules and vocabulary. Some researchers (Cook 2010, Malmkjaer 1998) determine actually the neglect of translation in SLA throughout the 20th century and they associate this undermining to the Grammar-Translation method. Thus, this method privileged formal accuracy in writing and prevents the use of language as a communicative tool. It requires a word-to-word equivalence, which neglects the social and pragmatic aspects of the language in context. The Direct Method banned the use of translation to facilitate learning in foreign language classes by giving priority to oral interactions. Since the emergence of the Direct Method, the foreign language teaching put the emphasis on natural learning, which is a kind of immersion in the language just like a child do in his/her first contact with his mother tongue without grammar or translation. Translation, as a learning skill and strategy, has been under suspicion and effectively banned from the foreign language classroom. (Davies, 2012, p. 16). Until the arrival of the Communicative Approach and task-based teaching approaches, language teaching sees translation as a detriment activity, which prevents communication, yet Vermes (2010, p. 91) points out of the using of pedagogical translation as a strategy in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) as below:

> "…translation is not only structure manipulation; it is primarily a form of communication. And as such, it necessarily involves interaction and cooperation between people, which makes it a potentially very useful device in FLT".

Despite the progress in language teaching methods, the use of translation in second and foreign language classrooms is still been perceived as a threat to the effectiveness of a satisfied communication and interaction among the learners. However, in this paper we will discuss the usefulness of the translation as a pedagogic strategy, which aims at the enhancing of the effectiveness of the intercultural communicative competence.

> "Because intercultural speakers/mediators need to be able to see how misunderstandings can arise, and how they might be able to resolve them, they need the attitudes of decentring but also the skills of comparing. By putting ideas, events, documents from two or more cultures side by side and seeing how each might look from the other perspective, intercultural speakers/mediators can see how people might misunderstand what is said or written or done by someone with a different social identity. The skills of comparison, of interpreting and relating, are therefore crucial: Skills of interpreting and relating (savoir-comprendre): ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one's own" (Byram, 2000, p. 12)

Since the emergence of communicative approach in 1970s, there has been a reconsideration of the new ways the peoples of different cultures and languages react and the way of their communication influence the interaction among them. The cultural turn- the introduction of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) to complement Communicative Competence –has further refined the notion of what is to be competent for communication with speakers of different languages and with speakers using a lingua franca. Teachers and learners now need to be aware of the other people's cultures as well as their own and therefore the term ICC has emerged along with other terms such as "cultural awareness" and "transnational competence".

According to Beneke, Intercultural Competence is to a large extent the ability to cope with one's own cultural background in interaction with others" (2000, p.109). In such an approach, the intercultural aspects of communication deal, in Kramsch's words, with 'the meeting between people from different cultures and languages across the political boundaries of nation-states' (Kramsch, 1998, p.128). According to Byram, a person having an intercultural communicative competence is able to recognise externally and internally the relationships between cultures among a given society and he/she has a critical and analytical interpretation on his/her own culture and the other cultures and is aware that his/her perspective is culturally determined rather than being natural. (2000, p. 10)

As Elorza (2008) states students mostly recourse to translation in cases of problem-solving activities and decision making about the translated text and determining various forms of sayings and cultural norms in order to evaluate perceptions from the target culture. Thus, the arrival of action-based approach in foreign language teaching as designed in CEFR and the enhancing studies on bilingual perspectives, the recourse to develop Intercultural Communicative Competence in a multicultural and globalized world has become necessary. It is required not only for language learners and but also for teachers to envisage language as a tool of contact and of mediation in which the role of translation becomes more and more central.

With the elaboration of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in 2001, there has been a radical shift from an interactional language learning perspective at a bilingual environment to a sociocultural and intercultural perspective at a multilingual level with the recent theories of sociocultural learning and the emergence of intercultural competence. As it is defined in the CEFR:

> "Users of the Framework may wish to consider and where appropriate state:
> • what prior sociocultural experience and knowledge the learner is assumed/required to have;
> • what new experience and knowledge of social life in his/her community as well as in the target community the learner will need to acquire in order to meet the requirements of L2 (second language) communication;
> • what awareness of the relation between home and target cultures the learner will need so as to develop an appropriate intercultural competence." (CERF, 2001, p.103)

The shift announced above influenced the scope of translation activities to transfer both linguistic skills and cultural capacities whereas skill of analysis of a text became more important than mere information in order to cope with the cultural, social, psychological and anthropological aspects inherent to any translation activity. There has been a shift in the place of the translation in language learning which was firstly associated to a form of searching equivalences in a literal text towards a perspective of mediation between language and culture. Besides the concept of culture has changed over time from emphasis on literature, the arts and philosophy to culture as a shared way of life. (Byram, 2000, p.10) So according to Byram, ICC needs to develop the deeds such as:

> "Attitudes: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own. Knowledge: of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction.
>
> Skills of interpreting and relating: ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own.
>
> Skills of discovery and interaction: ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.
>
> Critical cultural awareness/political education: an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries." (Byram, 2000, p.10)

Indeed, under the influence of the communicative approach promoted by English as a Second Language, Kramsch (2013) differentiates language pedagogy from literary pedagogy asserting that the former referring to culture as "small c" of daily life focusses on communicative competence and acquisition of conversational skills and the latter referring to culture as "big C" of literature and arts focusses on the analysis, interpretation and translation of texts from one language into another. Culture will be envisaged as "big C" in the concept of civilisation and will be called "small c" in the concept of beliefs and behaviours. (Halverson, 1985 cited by Lazar, Krieger and al, 2003).

The objective of language learning is defined in terms of the intercultural competence, which is "the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures" (Meyer, 1991, p.138). This definition emphasizes not only the communicative competence but also incorporates the intercultural competence as a part of it.

Translation is mostly acknowledged as a medium to enhance metalinguistic awareness of differences between languages in university students (Anderson, 2018) or as a useful practice to

improve written abilities in low-proficiency students (Woo Lee, 2018). It can also be interpreted as a mean to make inferences between two languages. Foreign language teaching especially ELT (English Language Teaching) focuses on oral dimension of language and has been favouring a specific emphasis on ICC (Intercultural Communicative Competence (Balboni, 2005; cited by Fois, 2020). To embed the ICC in translation process should help to overcome the opposition to translation in language teaching. (Fois, 2020, 562) Naimushin (2002) claims that translation could be considered as the fifth skill alongside the other four in a foreign language class. The potential of translation activities to develop foreign language skills (Camphell, 2002; Elorza, 2008; Beaven &Alvarez 2004; Kocbek, 2014) is mostly ignored by foreign language teachers. Nevertheless translation-based learning should be an asset to contribute to develop the intercultural communicative competence (Byram& Zarrate, 1996; Byram & Flemming ; 1998, Byram, Nichols & Stevens, 2001; Byram, Gribkova &Starkey, 2002; Zarrate, 2003; M Byram, P Holmes & N Savvides ,2013; Byram, 2012), which is a milieu to encounter the "other" and the "self".

Therefore, this study aims at responding the questions below:

1. What is the importance of pedagogical translation?
2. How could the pedagogical translation be used as a key factor in order to familiarize with the target language culture?
3. How can the pedagogical translation contribute to enhance the awareness of the culture of the self?
4. What is the contribution of translation-based learning in the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence?

Respectively, the researcher will analyse the effects of translation studies as a strategy that could be used in Second Language Acquisition as a key factor in order to apprehend the skills necessary in a learning directed to the achievement of an intercultural communicative competence which requires mutual understanding and awareness of not only the culture of the self but also the others.

METHODOLOGY

Study design

This study was conducted with a qualitative research method. Qualitative data with their emphasis on people lived experiences, are fundamentally well suited for locating the meanings people place on the events, processes and structure of their lives and for connecting theses meaning to the social world around them. (Miles, Huberman, 2014, p.11) The research design among qualitative research, which is suited best for this study, is therefore phenomenograpy. Phenomenography is a research method adapted for mapping the qualitatively different ways in which people experience, conceptualize, perceive, and understand various aspects of, and phenomena in, the world around them (Marton, 1986, p.31). Phenomenography was developed and practiced for some years before it was named and designated as a distinct research design. Its origins stem from the research on 'approaches to learning' (i.e. the different ways in which students conceive of and go about their learning) carried out at Goteborg University in Sweden in the 1970s by Marton, Svensson, Dahlgren, Saljo and others. (Tight, 2016). Thus, the researcher aim is to discern the perceptions and beliefs of foreign language teachers on language teaching about the place of translation in enhancing Intercultural Communicative Competence of students.

Participants

The sample used in phenomenographic study is purposive. Purposeful sampling is mostly used in phenomenography with a special emphasis on qualitative researches. It ensures deeper understanding and information-rich cases in order to get crucial amount of relevant data to conduct properly the research (Patton, 2002, p.46). Participants in a phenomenographic study are determined according to their relevance to the purpose of the study and the experience of the participants of the phenomenon being explored. (Yates&Bruce, 2012, p.103). Therefore, the research was conducted with ten academicians in three universities (seven participants from Anadolu University, one participant from Galatasaray University, two participants from Erzincan University) and from the departments of German, English and French Teaching as a second or foreign language.

Table 1. Participants' Features

Participant	Age	Department	Experience /years
P1	32	English	10
P2	38	French	5
P3	64	French	34
P4	52	German	29
P5	49	French	23
P6	44	German	21
P7	47	French	27
P8	25	French	1
P9	35	French	12
P10	30	German	7

Ethical Concern

The participants are previously all informed about the nature of the study by a research consent form on which they could find the questions to be replied. Their consent for the study was obtained via the Interview Consent Form. The names of the participants are altered in the study and pseudonyms are assigned instead of the names of the participants in the present study. Their pseudonyms are utilized when quoting the responses of participants.

Data Collection

The data was collected from the participants stated above via E-Mail du the fact that the researcher was not able to displace. There were seven open-ended questions and the questions were semi-structured. The responses were collected during November 2019. The participants were given a duration of fifteen days to reply the questions. Data is coded by the researcher and one of the colleagues from Foreign Language Teaching. The collected data is examined in order to scrutinize the impact of translation on ICC, three main themes emerged according to the saturation of themes which reappears during the analyse. So, the main theme was the impact of translation on intercultural communicative competence, which was divided into three categories (role, impact, and awareness via translation) and ten subcategories.

Reliability

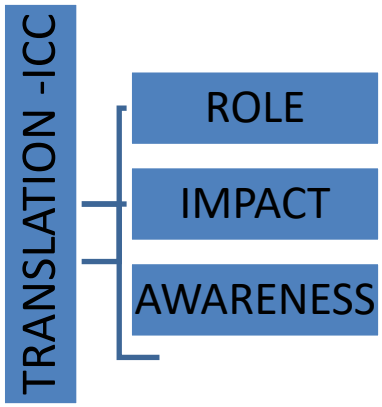
According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p.64) the data is coded at least by two intercoders in order to validate the results. Check-coding is a good reliability check procedure and ensure clarity. The eventual inter-code agreement should be up in the %90 range depending on the size and range of the coding scheme. Thus, in the current study the data is coded by more than one intercoder, the researcher and one colleague from the Foreign Language Teaching Department. The first intercoder defined 10 codes and the second intercoder defined 12 codes initially. The total number of initial codes was 22. The reliability is calculated using the formula as defined by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.64):

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Number of agreements (22)}}{\text{Total Number of agreements (22) + Number of disagreements (2)}} = \%91$$

Data Analysis

The researcher examined and coded the collected data. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p.58) one method of creating codes is that of creating provisional start list of codes prior to work. That list comes from the conceptual framework, list of research questions, hypotheses, problem areas and key variables that the researcher brings to study. So, in that research, the researcher created a list of codes according to research questions, hypotheses and key variables that has the potential to influence the study in question and she defined three main categories. The main theme was the impact of translation on intercultural communicative competence, which was divided into three categories (role, impact, and awareness via translation) and ten subcategories. These categories and themes are illustrated in Table 2 as follows:

Table 2. Main Themes and Subcategories



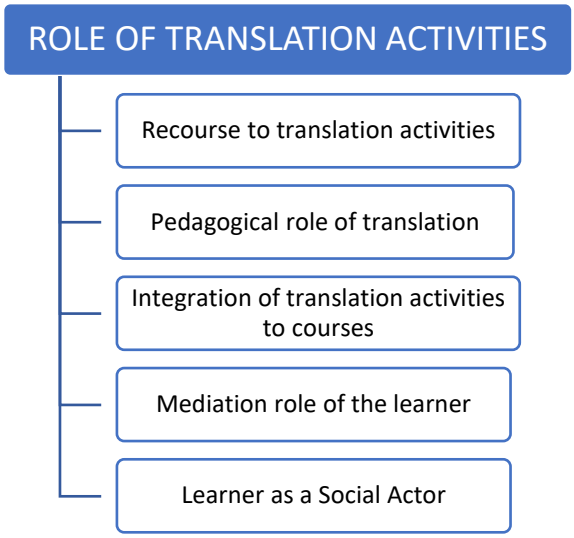
Role	Impact	Awareness
•Recourse to translation activities •Pedagogical role of translation •Integration of translation activities to courses •Mediation role of the learner •Learner as a Social Actor	•Developement of ICC •Impact of translation on ICC	•Awareness of the self •Impact of the translation on the awareness of cultural phenomenon •Awareness of the other

FINDINGS

Responses obtained in the interviews were analysed under three themes, these themes are the role of translation activities in courses, the impact of translation on ICC development and the intercultural awareness of the learner.

The Role of Translation Activities

Table 3. The Role of Translation Activities



Recourse to the translation activities

Most of the participants (8/10) stated that they have recourse to the translation activities during their courses. P (8) and P (4) stated that they never have recourse to translation activities during their courses, P (3) revealed that once they started to use translation the students have tendency to use the L1. P (4) declared that she does not affirm the usage of translation, because it affects the usage of the language negatively.

Recourse to translation activities has been a controversial issue among language teachers due to their various conceptions on the issue which stem from a historical rupture between various conceptualisation of the usage of translation activities in FLT. In FLT, the role granted to translation has been divergent. During Grammar-Translation method it was the main activity at the centre of

language learning, but with the emergence of methods focusing on the development of verbal skills it was started to be neglected, then rehabilitated as a pedagogical tool in language learning in last decades (Cook 2010; Leonardi, 2010; Malmkjaer, 1998; Kocbek 2013). But on the other hand, Cook (2009) defines the detrimental effect of translation on L2 acquisition which was heavily influenced by L1.

The pedagogical role of translation

Learners mostly have recourse to translation activities especially in order to elucidate the meaning, to ease understanding between structures, to ease understanding of complicated situations and phrases, to elucidate the connotations and denotations of various cultural codes, to motivate the learners and to control the understanding of students. Some participants state that a word to word translation in courses influence the learner negatively and the usage of L2 becomes difficult and decelerated. Instead it is better to orient learners to find equivalences of the words both on a cultural and linguistic level. One of the participants stated the pedagogical role of translation as follows:
P (3) stated that she utilizes translation activities to facilitate the access to the meaning of the difficult worlds, the scientific terms, the written passages of the students to resume the case. These activities are made orally, in a rapid way and especially in the theoretical courses as linguistics, the phonetic system of French and the didactic of French as a second language. For her, the translation could be used as a mean of control of the comprehension in the practical courses of foreign language teaching, but limitedly. These activities could be used in the moments of explication or exploitation of the course just like a natural activity of translation. They should be applied orally which could consequently move the student away from the mechanism of word-to-word translation and orient him/her to the reformulation activities. Lado (1964) states that the use of translation in the language classroom encourages a word-for-word rendering between the L1 and the L2.

P7 uses translation for controlling purposes to resume the subject. As she declared, it is required to study with texts, to develop interpretative competence, and to assist students to find especially the inedited equivalences. Therefore, the translation could become an instrument of perfection.

Integration of translation activities to courses

Two of the participants (P8 and P4) never integrate translation activities to their courses.

P7 integrates it only for resuming purposes and she states that she never allows students to translate because they have tendency to translate word-to-word. P9 integrates it according to the context when she thinks it is required. Her purpose "is to demonstrate the social usage of the word and to make students understand the context totally and to prevent the misunderstandings during the communication situations when encountered with a native speaker." P5 integrates the translation in a comparative approach between L1 and L2. P6 integrates translation in order to facilitate the understanding and to make the students participate actively to the course. It is because some interpretations in German become insufficient for certain students who ask for a feedback in Turkish."

P3 gives theorical courses, she does not aim the teaching of the foreign language necessarily but the relevant knowledge of the field studied. As a result, she integrates easily the translation to her courses in order to facilitate the transmission of the message and in the cases when she recognises a difficulty of the comprehension.

P1finds translation activities useful in teaching grammar, especially to differentiate between structures. P2 uses the translation to explain a grammatical rule in order to make students understand completely. As it is stated by the participants, translation activities mostly integrated to make the students to grasp the meaning completely, to facilitate grammar teaching or to transmit the message correctly for the courses which necessitates a much more understanding of the language in question due to the loaded knowledge in the courses like linguistics, acquisition of language etc. Translation has recently witnessed a revival in the field of language analysis (Gotti and Sarcevic, 2006). It is required to make students react correctly in a social context. Cook (2013) points to a growing literature which supports a return to bilingual teaching for a number of acquisitional, pedagogic, political and educational reasons.

Mediation role of the learner via translation

P5 In the classroom, the teacher can propose similar activities to daily life. Even though the class is limited to realise them, the Internet offer many possibilities to surpass such limits. And the learner as a mediator between two cultures can share the results of his/her researches and discoveries with the partners who do not know the L2. P6 states that once the learner starts to learn the language, she/he automatically becomes a mediator.

P2: Via the usage of a forum or blog on the Internet the learner could share his/her view with the target language interlocutors and gives information about his/her own culture as a mediator. P7: At first glance, we should fix some objectives, which are real and realisable. For example, when we ask the learner to make reportage, he/she should have the questions to ask and the necessary materials. In addition, their effort should be appreciated. They should be able to work with the students of the target language country. Therefore, they can share their experiences and results. In that way, they can be real mediators. With the recent technology, it is possible to fix communicative objectives.

As it is stated above, the participants unanimously affirm the importance of the mediation role of the translation between two languages and cultures. Even though it seems as a difficult objective to achieve, they claim that with the expansion of the usage of internet the learners turned more and more to be a mediator as a language learner between two countries and cultures. This is said, translation becomes an activity expanded worldwide and Richards and Rogers (1999) states that translation has never been completely abandoned.

Learner as a social actor via translation

P4 states that the learners should become social actor between two languages in order to develop the tolerance, empathy and communication with the target culture interlocutors".

P9: The target language should be taught by a focus on the social usages (if the context and the in-class structures and interactions allow to). The intercultural communicative competence is so crucial in order to establish a correct understanding and expression in the society in which the target language is used via verbal and non-verbal elements. The learner should choose the appropriate elements to communicate in order to ensure a serein understanding. Therefore, as the intercultural communicative competence development directly influences the pragmatic usage of the language, I do not believe in the possibility of development of the usage of translation activities in classroom in order to enhance the intercultural communicative competence.

Participants affirm that learning a different language appeals empathy and tolerance for people having different life stories. As a language learner, a person develops his/her sense of empathy, which in turn leads to raise awareness towards global social issues and social problems/ misunderstandings with a higher sense of responsibility.

P3: The most important part of the course is dedicated to the acquisition of a content of sociolinguistic. If the learner is incited to participate actively to interactions in class, and to document his/her researches and if we put the learner in an authentic lingual context, varied and interesting, there will be more chance to see the learner more implicated in the course. In fact, to feel more capable of manipulating a new language should be the best mean to approach the other's culture without prejudice, neither hesitation and with more interest.

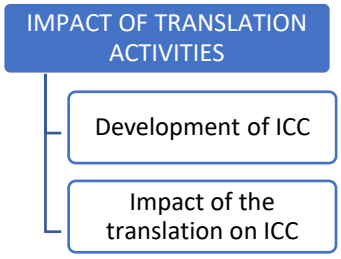
P6: It is crucial to make the learner understand that it is possible to think in foreign language without preventing him/her of thinking in L1. To ensure the transfer in both languages. … The learner could become a social actor by having a competence to transfer the language mentally in both languages.

P8: The learner could be a social actor thanks to autonomy. They use autonomy for teaching purposes. The learner should acquire a competence to learn in autonomy and the realisation of projects render the learner a social actor, because they have the tasks to realise in order to achieve a certain objective.

As participants state above, the learners become a social actor and play the role of a mediator between two languages and cultures via translation. They develop easily a sense of tolerance, empathy and approach the other's culture without prejudice, neither hesitation and mostly with more interest, thus she/he becomes more attentive against the misunderstandings with a higher sense of responsibility.

The Impact of Translation Activities to Develop ICC

Table 4 The Impact of Translation Activities to Develop ICC



Development of ICC

P8 prepares a course about the French culture once per week. (Especially clichés feast etc.) We do comparison of two cultures. P10 tries to explain the occurrence of the translation, literature, musical, pictorial, photographical activities from daily life in the target language and foreign one to develop ICC. P5 creates occasions in order to make them understand the target culture by discovering the cultural events, by developing their personal experiences and vision on the target culture. P2 uses films, songs and journals in order to develop intercultural communicative competence.

Teachers are mostly aware of the cultural boundaries in language learning and they act in a way to make the students surpass these boundaries via integrating the ICC in their courses. In doing this, they awake certain curiosity on the foreign language and culture and evoke the cultural aspects of the target language.

Impact of the translation on ICC

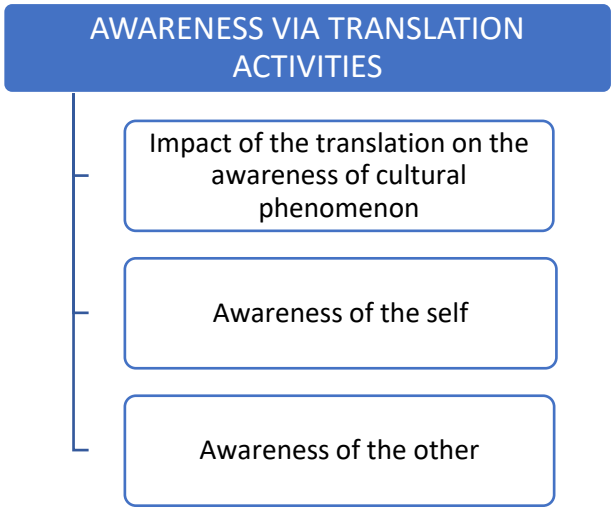
P9 thinks that translation does not have positive effects on the development of intercultural communicative competence due to the fact that it orients the learner to think in L1 and to transfer it in L2 and force him/her to think in L1."

P7 states that usage of authentic texts permits to discover the vision of the other culture, which makes it possible to be tolerant against the differences. It contributes to the personal development. According to P2, the usage of L1 in courses enhances the feeling of belonging to one's culture. P8 stated that she never uses translation activities just as P6 who never uses translation activities during the courses.

Most of the teachers stated that the usage of L1 in courses was neglected via the problems of transference and interference between two languages, but when it is neglected, it leads learners to the lack of intercultural competent and to the sublimation of the culture of the target language whereas the intercultural competence is to accept the culture of the other and to know his/her own culture. It is evident that as we see the L1 as a porter or part of the culture, we could not neglect L1 usage. It is acceptable therefore to use L1 or translation without an excessive recourse.

Awareness Raising Via Translation Activities

Table 5. Awareness Raising Via Translation Activities



Impact of the translation on the awareness of cultural phenomenon

P6 declared that she tries to transfer the names, places, way of life, nutrition habitudes, feast etc. in the target culture. P1 mainly uses the main course books that raise such issues; and related activities include, reading on differences between cultures, watching videos about cities and the lifestyle of people in the target culture, and discussing about these differences and similarities between the target

culture and that of the learners. According to her idioms also work well with the issue, so, the learners improve their understanding of the way the people of the target culture think and behave in specific situations.

P10 thinks that the learner would be able to communicate competently enough without translation activities when he/she finds the possibility to express himself/herself fluently without being shy or afraid in foreign language as a learner who perceive correctly the way of life, culture and logic of the target culture. Therefore, she believes in the importance of translation activities between the learner and teacher until the prejudices and the feeling of failure had been broke down.

P3 declares that the recourse to translation attract the attention of the learner to the relation between language and culture, she thinks that the lingual expressions as vehicle of culture serve to break down the ethnocentrism.

Teachers stated that the recourse to the translation activities and the lingual expressions as vehicle of culture serve to break down the ethnocentrism which leads the learner to appreciate not only his/her own culture and language but also the other's. The awareness in both languages help him/her to face some stereotypes and prejudices. They surpass not only the dichotomy of language/culture but also self/other.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Language learning is a way of building a bridge between his/her own culture and that of the target culture. In that sense, it would not be considered as a set of rules transferred to the learner but also the culture is conveyed via the language in question. Culture is the principal aspect of the language, which leads the learner to cope with not only linguistic competence but also social and pragmatic usage of it. It is an asset to be familiarized with the cultural and social dimensions of any language in a language-teaching classroom. Mostly, teachers shortcut this dimension due to its difficulties, problematic issues turning around the requirement to face some stereotypes and prejudices and lack of their own background respectively.

As Nord (1997, p.1) asserts "communication takes place through a medium and in situations that are limited in time and place. Situations are not universal but embedded in a cultural habitat, which in return conditions the situation. Language is thus to be regarded as a part of culture and communication is conditioned by the constraints of the situation in culture." According to Tudor, "translation can be interpreted in two ways: as a text production process dependent upon proficiency in all four skills whose final goal is a refined linguistic competence or as a communicative activity whose objective is to convey messages across linguistic and cultural barriers" (1987, p. 269). The close connection between language and culture implies intercultural awareness, which is indispensable to perfect communicative competence. (Fois, 2020, p. 564) So, translation is a way to surpass cultural boundaries and the role of translating is a kind of mediation and it is crucial as a learner to have a communicative, cultural competence in order to understand not only the language but also the culture of the other to adapt, to transpose and to explain beyond the mere words. The translation is not only an activity of transcoding, but also a complex procedure in which interfere the language, the culture, but also the inter-subjective relations between individuals and the society. Besides, the non-verbal communication is generally unconscious and indeed essential part of the communication and interpretation activity. The behaviour of individuals, which is perceptible, is a way that leads to the understanding of the world and the hierarchical values of the other which remains mostly invisible of

the cultural aspect. These are decoded mostly in accordance with the culture and language. However, this diversity of the values in a social and cultural level is an important source of misunderstandings in the teaching-learning process of a foreign language. In addition, translation is the key factor to prevent these misinterpretations in a multicultural and multilingual environment.

Pedagogical translation could not be only seen as a way, which leads to the other cultures or languages, moreover it is a gate opened to the awareness of the culture of the self. As the one is not separated from the other and the language is the key factor to warrantee this union, on its turn the language could not be achieved without translation activities, which plays mostly the role of a mediator between two counterparts. The teachers in the classroom and translation activities fulfil this mediation. It is crucial to be aware of the target language and native language at the same time, so the translation in the classroom replaces sometimes the teacher as a mental cognitive action, because in each act of language the learner as a lecture or writer applies to the translation cognitively. As a result, he/she encounters not only the linguistic but also pragmatic use of the target and native language simultaneously. This act enhances his/her ability or awareness irreversibly in both languages and cultures. His/her intercultural and inter-lingual abilities develop according to his/ability and manoeuvres in both languages which is a positive asset in language/culture dichotomy.

Translation is the mere act to deconstruct the dichotomy mentioned above between language and culture. Noticeable trends include a continued interest in deconstructing cultural differences and membership through interculturality studies in which scholars seek to interpret how participants make aspects of their identities, in particular, socio-cultural identities relevant or irrelevant to interactions through symbolic resources including, but not solely, language (Kramsch, C., & Zhu Hua, 2016, p.48). This deconstruction is based upon the development of an Intercultural Communicative Competence among learners by putting them in a face-to-face interaction with not only the text in the foreign language but also the verbal aspect of it. The deconstruction in question ensures the appropriation of both language and the culture for the learner. For Leonardi, translation is a productive activity that focuses on contextualization and recontextualization. (2010, p.20) While translating a text, whether orally or in a written format, the learner activates his/her linguistic competence in a way to be in contact functionally with the context of the target language and culture. Therefore, he/she becomes a social actor and mediator in between two languages/cultures. Doing this, the learner faces both the linguistic structure and pragmatic elements and usages of the native and the target language and gets an insight in both of them. Translation becomes the bridge between them for the learner who becomes acquainted with the target culture via linguistic structures, catches the implications and do inferences on the pragmatic usage in L1 and L2, which enriches his/her grasp of the language /culture aspects in spoken and written forms. These implications, inferences and inductions contribute mostly the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence, which requires an inter-cultural and inter-lingual acquisition depending on the capacity, knowledge and expertise of the learners in both languages. This expertise easily acquired through translation activities in and outside the class influences the fluency of the communication and prevents in most cases the misunderstandings directly. So, the learner not only appeal to the cultural referents and also linguistic structures which orients the learner to the development of an inner-sight by breaking down stereotypes, prejudices vis-à-vis the target culture and social phenomenon.

For further studies, the researcher suggests:

- Examination of the role of social actor for the learner via translation activities
- Examination of the language teacher as a cultural mediator between two languages

- The impact of translation activities to the awareness of the self and the other culture
- To develop the interaction among learners via translation and culture contact
- Enhance cultural motivation of learners to approach the culture of the other via translation
- To decrease the misunderstandings via translation and transfer process of cultural baggage.
- The usage of translation as a learning strategy to access the culture of the other and the self.

The insight developed by referring to the translation ensures respectively a sound and lucid communication between the learner and the practitioners of a wide range in the target language, which is an important aim in the case of English-spoken world for instance which is spread out in the world. It is a mean to overcome misunderstandings and misinterpretations not only in the linguistic, communicative, but also pragmatic level.

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APPENDIX

Interview questions are defined as below:

1. Do you have recourse to translation activities for didactic purposes during your courses? Especially in which courses, situations and contexts?
2. How do you perceive the didactic role of translation in foreign language teaching?
3. How do you integrate the translation to your courses? What is your main purpose in this integration process of translation to the foreign language teaching?
4. What kind of activities do you use to develop an insight in the learners both to enhance the awareness of the culture of the self and the others?
5. How do you contribute to the development of intercultural Communicative Competence during your courses?
6. What is the impact of the pedagogical translation to the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence according to your professional experiences in class?
7. Based upon your experiences, what is the way to make learners a social actor in language learning process and mediator in between two cultures, as it is required in Common European Framework of Reference for Languages?

Interview consent form is designed as below:

Interview consent form and open-ended questions for the survey entitled "The Influence of Pedagogical Translation in the Development of Intercultural Communicative Competence in Language Teaching- A phenomenological survey on the perception of language teaching professionals" conducted via E-Mail.

The questions below are open-ended questions, prepared by the researcher in order to study the impact of pedagogical translation in the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence in Foreign Language Teaching classrooms. (The study does not include the translation courses, but it is rather about the usage of translation in language teaching classes). The data will remain confidential and your responses will be used in academic purposes for a qualitative survey. In the final paper your names will not be mentioned, instead numeric or alphabetic pseudonyms will be used.

Age:
Department:
Title:
University:
Teaching Experience:

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The Use of Technology and Its Effects on Language Learning Motivation

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Abstract: This study aimed to find out the effects of technology use on the motivation level of foreign language students in the language classrooms. For this reason, an experiment was carried out in this study. There were two groups of students who were studying in Tourism and Hotel Management Program. 20 of them were in the control group while 25 of them were in the experimental group. The same questionnaire developed by the researcher was administered to both groups as a pre- test and a post-test. The results indicated that; while there were not any significant differences between two groups as a result of pre-test, students in the experimental group were highly motivated after a four-week treatment. On the other hand, there was not a significant difference in students' motivation level in the control group.
Keywords: *Motivation, Technology, English Language, Foreign Language Learning, Experiment, Pre-test, Post-test, Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University, Vocational School*

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, different approaches, methods and techniques have been used in order to teach a foreign language in a best way, increase motivation of the students and encourage students to learn a foreign language. One of the ways that will be effective in foreign language learning and teaching process is the use of technology. As Kang (1999) mentions, using computer and technology in language classrooms provides opportunities for learners to understand the real life and meaningful communication. Besides, using technology in foreign language teaching is not just a material but they are also tools to motivate students, promote their learning and reach all students in the classroom who have different types of language learning styles (Signes, 2001). Other advantages of using technology in the foreign language classrooms are listed as follows: "It provides opportunity for the learners to identify the real world in the classroom setting. It is helpful to motivate the learners for the course. Films, music and different materials help the students to improve psychologically and socially. It makes the learners to be active in the language classroom. Students can follow their own performance during the language learning process. It helps students to be free and courageous. It can develop students' each skill in the classroom through real communication provided by technology (Brinton, 2001; Genç İlter 2009; Rost, 2002; Wang 2006)

As it is stated above, the use of technology in the foreign language classrooms has a number of advantages that cannot be ignored and it motivates learners to learn a foreign language since it provides interesting and authentic materials for each skill in the language learning and teaching process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Types of Motivation and Technology Usage

The notion of motivation which has attracted attention of many educators and researchers in recent years has a great deal of different interpretations and come to be used in different ways by

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different people since theories of psychology have changed (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Maslow, 1987; Williams & Burden, 2000). For example, Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) stated 102 definitions about the concept of motivation. Therefore, giving a simple definition of motivation is not possible. However, Gardner (2004) notes that the motivated learner has some remarkable characteristics such as " being goal directed, expending effort, being persistent, being attentive, having desires (wants), exhibiting positive effect, being aroused, having expectancies, demonstrating self-confidence (self-efficacy), and having reasons (motives)" (p. 2). Therefore, the components of motivation can be cognitive, affective or behavioural.

One of the dimensions of motivation has tended to be stated in dichotomy. That is, learners are driven to learn a language by either instrumental or integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Instrumental motivation is defined as the desire to get something practical from studying the foreign language. It means learning language is for the sake of something (Gass & Selinker, 2008). It is typical in the foreign language learning environment where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, such as the students in a foreign language classroom in Turkey. These learners' purposes in language learning are more practical, such as meeting a requirement for school or university graduation, having a good job. On the other hand, integrative motivation is defined by the learner's positive attitudes and perceptions on the target language group and this kind of learner wants to become a part of a target group and uses this language in this social group (Fei, 2005; Spolsky, 1969). Therefore, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language (Fei, 2005). However, there are not many opportunities for Turkish learners who learn English as foreign language to use it in daily life as Turkey is a monolingual and mono cultural country.

Brown (2007) suggests that both instrumental and integrative motivation are equally important for second language learners and he adds that some learners benefit from instrumental motivation in some contexts while others make use of integrative motivation when learning a second language, but generally they use both of them. He exemplifies this situation and states that international students in the United States learn English for their studies and want to be a part of this community and culture, as well. Similarly, another study was carried out with twenty Japanese students at the beginning level of intensive English language course at a UK university. They were asked to give four major motivations for learning English. The study result showed that two kinds of motivation for their learning English are equally important (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Additionally, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) discuss the concept of motivation under two sub-titles as *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation. Intrinsic motivation is characterized as engaging in an activity for its own sake but not for a reward or a better position and intrinsically motivated individuals enjoy feeling competence and self-determination (Deci, 1975) whereas extrinsic motivation is directly related to "rewards such as money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of feedback" (Brown, 2007, p. 172). However, performing different actions in daily life such as going for school, reading book, watching the news or wearing uniform at schools as a student are not always done because of just motivated intrinsically or extrinsically (Williams & Burden, 2000).

As it is discussed above, motivation is an important point in the settings of language learning process. It is known that it will be difficult to teach foreign language in a learning environment where learners do not have any desire to learn (Gömleksiz, 2001). In language learning process, teachers also can make the learning environment more interesting and more relevant to students' age, interest and level of ability. They can overcome this problem with flexibility in materials design or variety in skills work or classroom interaction. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) also point out some areas which will increase the levels of motivation among the students. They include motivating students for the lesson, varying the activities, tasks, and materials and using co-operative rather than competitive goals in the language classrooms. Therefore, technology use in the language classrooms could provide various activities and authentic materials which would be useful for the students having different interests and different learning styles. Since technology is a part of our lives and it undoubtedly affects language learning and teaching as well, students expect their teachers to use technology in the language

classrooms. Lin (2010, p. 2) also stresses that "technological advancements have deeply affected the methodology of education in general and foreign or second language in particular in which computers are at the heart of this process".

Rost (2002, p. 1) states the importance of technology use in the language classroom with the following statements: "Using technology gives students real opportunities to learn more effectively and it increases the enjoyment of language learning, improves students' ability to become better language learners and makes our own teaching more enjoyable and rewarding". Technology use, which creates opportunities to learn and hear language from native speakers through authentic materials, is really precious for the countries where students can learn and talk the language in the classrooms. This is emphasized by Linse (2005, p. 199) who notes that students "are probably delighted at all of the resources that they can access via the internet".

Previous Studies on the Use of Technology and Language Learning Motivation

In the literature, a number of studies were carried out to reveal the importance and the effects of technology use on motivation and language learning (Akobirov, 2017; Barreto, 2018; Chen & Kent, 2020; Genç İlter, 2015; Gill, 2006; Göçerler, 2018; Fandino, Munoz & Velandia, 2019; Kalanzadeh, Soleimani & Bakhtiarvand, 2014; Sun & Gao, 2020; Tavakoli, Lotfi & Biria, 2019, Wong, Tan & Lin, 2019), which will be summarized below.

Kalanzadeh, Soleimani and Bakhtiarvand (2014) conducted a study in an Iranian EFL university with 60 participants in order to find out whether the use of technology affects students' motivation to learn English. A questionnaire was administered to participants who had studied English through technological equipment such as computer, mobile phone or power point. The results showed that Iranian EFL university students had positive attitudes towards the technology use in the classroom.

Genç İlter (2015) investigated perceptions of both language teacher candidates and young learners about the use of technology in the language teaching and learning process. 12 language teachers and 10 young learners took part in her study. Data were gathered through two structured questionnaires. Results revealed that according to the teachers, the use of technology increased students' both language and cultural awareness and affected them positively since English language classes were more enjoyable and took their interest easily. On the other hand, students preferred playing games and communication with their teachers in the classroom. In other words, they preferred using technology not in the classroom but outside in order to complete their homework. This study suggests that teachers should plan their classes and activities based on the students' needs, age and interests.

Barreto (2018) examined the effects of technology use on motivation of students' English use. In this project, there were 16 students who were studying at a private University in Tunja and they had English classes twice a week. Data were gathered through a field diary, an online forum, a survey and students' documents. The findings demonstrated that students were motivated to work collaboratively in order to use English and the use of technology also developed their language skills.

In the study conducted by Akobirov (2017), he investigated the language learning motivation level of students and the effects of technology use on their English language learning process. 129 EFL students from Bukhara State University (BSU) and 38 ESL students from Kansas City Kansas Community College (KCKCC) took part in the study and three instruments were utilized in order to collect data, which are Attitude-Motivation Test Battery, Motivation and Technology Questionnaire and the researcher's instrument on Social Media, Social networking, Instant messaging applications and Online Learning platform. The results demonstrated that ESL students were more motivated to learn English than EFL students. On the other hand, the use of technology affected language learning of EFL students more positively than ESL students.

In the study of Fandino, Munoz and Velandia (2019), undergraduate students' motivation to learn English in E-learning platform was investigated by means of interviews. 19 participants took part in the study and the analysis of the data was completed via semantic categorizations and NVivo 11 software program. Results demonstrated that some external factors such as a new method, course resources and relationship with the tutor affected motivation of participants.

Tavakoli, Lotfi and Biria (2019) investigated the effect of computer-assisted language learning (CALL)and task-based language teaching (TBLT) on the motivation level of EFL students. An experimental method and two instruments which are called as Oxford Placement Test and Attitude-Motivation Test Battery were used. In the experimental group there were 45 participants while in the control group there were 38 participants. The results demonstrated that CALL-mediated TBLT affected positively students' L2 reading motivation.

Sun and Gao (2020) carried out a study in which they investigated the effect of intrinsic motivation on using mobile devices while learning English. The research was conducted with 169 participants and the findings showed that intrinsic motivation did not affect students' behaviours to use mobile devices. However, it affected some variables such as perceived usefulness of mobile devices and task technology fit. Another variable, perceived ease of use did not affect students' intention.

Chen and Kent (2020) conducted a study with students learning English as a second language in an English Support Program of the public research university in Australia. They aimed to find out whether 3D virtual learning had an effect on students' productive skills and their language learning motivation. Findings demonstrated that this type of learning made the students more motivated and it provided much more opportunities to develop their written and spoken language skills.

There are also studies which investigate the impacts of technology use on motivation level of students learning German, Spanish and Chinese. Göçerler (2018) examined the effects of using smartphone applications on both students' vocabulary learning and their motivation. 42 students who were studying German Language and Literature at Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University took part in this study. Data were gathered through vocabulary tests, observation notes and interviews. Results showed that these educational games developed vocabulary learning strategies and promoted language learning motivation.

Gill (2006) investigated the use of technology in the foreign language classrooms and its impacts on second language learning (Spanish). In this study, a language attitude questionnaire was administered to two groups (Technology-Enhanced Syllabus class and Non-technology enhanced syllabus classes) as a pre-test and post-test before the term started and after the term ended in order to reveal students' language learning motivation and particularly their writing motivation in the second language. The results indicated that technology develops both receptive and productive language skills of learners and creates opportunity to think critically.

Wong, Tan and Lin (2019) investigated whether the use of interactive whiteboard affected achievement of students and their language learning motivation. The participants of this study were 46 primary school students who were learning Chinese as a second language and experimental study was employed. According to the results of the study, achievement and motivation among the students in the control group and the experimental group did not change while achievement of students in the experimental group changed significantly after the treatment.

In the literature, besides studies which examine the use of technology on motivation level of foreign or second language learners, there are studies which involve general education or different disciplines. Since this is not the concern of this study, two researches will be presented below in order to illustrate their findings. Granito and Chernobilsky (2012) carried out a study in order to examine the effects of technology on students' motivation to learn and retain information. In this study, there were three groups consisting of 102 students who had a World History course. One of the groups prepared conventional storybook projects (control group-paper), another group conducted computer-based

projects (Experiment Group A-computer) and the last group created a project what they wanted to prepare (Experiment Group B-option). Data were collected via pre-test, post-test, survey and interviews after the projects completed. Findings showed that students who had opportunity to choose which projects they wanted to complete scored better than the students who were in the group completing computer-based projects. Another interesting finding was that retention post-test scores for control group and experiment group B were higher than experiment group A. Researchers reached a conclusion that students who have interest to use technology and learn through it can benefit from the advantages of technology whereas students who do not have any interest can benefit from conventional classes and methods.

Baytak, Tarman and Ayas (2011) examined 6 students' experience in technology integration. Data were gathered through interviews, observations (classroom observations and home observations) and field notes. According to the findings of the study, students believe that technology was a useful tool to make the life and learning easier, students felt themselves independent while they were studying with a computer and parents' worries might hinder students' technology use.

As a conclusion, aforementioned studies show that motivation and technology are two important keys in education, particularly in the language teaching and learning process and teachers are other important factors in terms of increasing and maintaining motivation of students by using various activities and authentic materials, which could be provided by using technology in language classrooms. Although there are a number of studies in general education or in various disciplines with different level of learners, the effects of technology use on foreign language learners in a vocational school have not been explored. Consequently, this study aimed to find out the effects of technology use on the motivation level of foreign language students in a vocational school. Within this scope, the following research questions were investigated.

R.Q. 1: Is there a significant difference between the learners with whom technology is used and the learners instructed by traditional method regarding the effects of pre-test results on the motivation level of the students?
R.Q. 2: Is there a significant difference between the learners with whom technology is used and the learners instructed by traditional method concerning the effects of post-test results on the motivation level of the students?

METHOD

In this study it was aimed to investigate the effects of the technology use on the motivation level of students in the language classrooms. For this reason, experimental method was used for the study in which one class was taught using technology and technological equipment whereas other class was taught using conventional method in a traditional classroom setting. It also should be noted that all language materials activities used in the experimental group were given to control group as a self-study after the treatment in order to eliminate unfairness among both groups of students.

Before the experiment, a pre-test which is also called a motivation-attitude scale consisting of 45 items was administered to both groups in order to find out whether there were any differences between the groups in terms of their attitudes and motivation level. As a result of the pre-test, it was justified that the levels of these two classes were equal.

During the treatment in the experimental class CDs, DVDs, power point presentations, songs, internet based activities related to class syllabus were used while in the traditional class the course book was used as a teaching material. The experimental study was carried out for four weeks by the same instructor in each class. After four-week treatment, the same test which was used as a pre-test was administered to both experimental and control groups. Finally, the data gained in the study was fed into a computer through SPSS 18 and analysed by using an analysis of Descriptive Procedure in order to find out answers for the research questions.

Setting and Participants

This study was conducted in Tourism and Hotel Management Program of Şarköy Vocational School in Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University. The underlying reason why tourism students were selected for this study was that they need to know at least one foreign language in order to find a good job after graduation and they are more curious about language than other program students in the vocational school. Students were studying English as a compulsory course in their first year and had four-hour English class a week. 45 students participated in this study. 25 of them (13 males and 12 females) were in the experimental group and 20 of them (14 males and 6 females) were in the control group. That is, two intact classes were selected via convenience sampling and they were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups.

Sample Classroom Activities

While the course book "Active English" and its activities were used with the students in control group during four weeks, the same subjects were studied using different kinds of technological equipment in the experimental group. In order to exemplify what kinds of activities and technological equipment were used in the experimental group (See Appendix 2), how grammar was taught will be stated here. Firstly, the grammar point of the first week "Present Continuous Tense" was explained by the teacher through power point presentation. It took learners interests since it was not explained on the board by a traditional way. They listened to their teacher and asked their questions when they did not understand. Following the presentation of "Present Continuous Tense", the internet-based activities were done. This provided immediate feedback for the students as soon as they completed answering the questions. Moreover, it attracted their attention since it was different from the activities on the course book in that they could not have such a material on the course book. They had more opportunities to practice form, meaning and use of "Present Continuous Tense" as they did not spend time writing all the answers on a notebook while in the control group each answer of each question in an activity was written on the book. The activities were introduced in the order of their level of difficulty. However, students in the control group were restricted to the activities on the course book and did not have opportunity to practice more. Finally, a video about "Present Continuous Tense" on the internet was watched to review the whole lesson. It was also enjoyable for the students as a summary of "Present Continuous Tense". As a follow-up activity, a song related to "present continuous tense" was listened, which is sung by Susanne Vega. While they were listening, teacher asked the learners to listen to it and fill in the blanks on the power point presentation. This activity was used to review "Present Continuous Tense" and teach some new words. During the whole lesson students in the experimental group were all active learners and highly motivated for the course to learn new things.

Development of Data Collection Instrument

The questionnaire administered in the study was Motivation-Attitudes Scale. It consists of 2 sections. The first section of the questionnaire is developed in the form of category questions. Second section is the motivation-attitude scale which is in the form of 5 point Likert scale, ranging from 'Totally Agree' to 'Totally Disagree' and they are coded as (Totally Agree=5, Agree=4, No idea=3, Disagree=2, Totally Disagree=1). There are 45 questions which were adapted from Demir's (2005) Motivation-Attitude Questionnaire, from Gardner's (2004) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: International AMTB Research Project, from Genç İlter's (2009) article named Effect of Technology on Motivation in EFL Classroom and some of the questions were developed by the researcher. The Motivation- Attitude Scale had five subscales and 45 items. The first six items were used to find out students' attitudes towards English language. The next six items were used to understand students' attitudes towards learning English. The other seven items were adapted to investigate students' attitudes towards learning target culture. In order to investigate students' motivation before the experiment and after the experiment ten items were added to the questionnaire about motivation. The last sixteen items were about technology use and they were used to find out students' attitudes towards technology use in the language classroom.

The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were checked by the pilot study since the questionnaire was adapted by the researcher. There are a few ways to measure the reliability of a scale. But according to Field (2006), Cronbach's Alpha (a) is the most widely used in order to measure the reliability of the scale and 0.7-0.8 is enough value to accept and use a scale in the research. As the alpha value of the scale used in this study was 0.891, it can be said that it is reliable. Moreover, the alpha value of subscales had to be measured to find out "internal consistency reliability" which means "the homogeneity of the items making up the various multi-item scales within the questionnaire" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 110). Therefore, it can be said that all of the subscales used in the research is acceptable for the study as their alpha value varies from 0.903 to 0.702, which is demonstrated in the following Table 1 below.

Table 1. Categorization and alpha values of each category

Item Numbers	Category	Alpha value
All items	Whole questionnaire	0.891
1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	Attitude towards English Language	0.702
7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12	Attitude towards learning English	0.862
13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19	Attitude towards learning target culture	0.836
20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29	Motivation	0.746
30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45	Attitude towards technology Use	0.903

Data Collection Process

In the first place, the necessary permission was taken. In the questionnaire administration process, the instructor explained the aim of the study and the content of the questionnaire to the students in both control group and experimental group. Prior to the experiment and after the experiment the same questionnaire which consisted of 45 items was administered to all participants and it was administered in the native language (Turkish) of the participants since they were all elementary students and would probably have problems to understand English items.

Data Analysis Process

Before the experiment, the questionnaire was administered to all participants as a pre-test to find out whether there were any differences between the groups and the same questionnaire was administered again as a post-test after the experiment. As a result of the pre-test, it was found out that there were not any significant differences between two groups. Then, the experimental study was carried out during four weeks. The same instructor taught English in both classes for four hours a week. Finally, the same questionnaire (Motivation-Attitude Scale) was administered to both groups of students as a post test. The obtained data both from the pre-test and post-test were fed into a computer through SPSS 18 and analysed by using Descriptive and Inferential Statistics.

RESULTS

After data analysis, findings of the study regarding two research questions will be summarized below. R.Q. 1: Is there a significant difference between the learners with whom technology is used and the learners instructed by traditional method regarding the effects of pre-test results on the motivation level of the students?

To find out an answer for the first research question independent samples t-test was used in order to examine the possible differences between the mean scores of the pre-test results of the experimental group and control group. According to Büyüköztürk (2010, p. 39), the researchers use

independent samples t-test to see whether the difference between the means of two unrelated samples is significant or not. As a result of the independent sample t-test, it is assumed that the variances of two groups are approximately equal. However, these variances need reliability which is controlled by "Levene's Test for Equality of Variances". "If the Levene's Test is significant ($p < .05$), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant ($p > .05$), the two variances are approximately equal" (Ghorbani, 2011, p. 24). According to independent samples t-test, the results of pre-test of experimental and control groups were presented below.

Table 2. Pre-test results of the experimental group and the control group

Groups	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**	**Sig.**
English Language of Pre Experimental	25	3,5200	,63158	,12632	,312
English Language of Pre Control	20	3,5917	,58808	,13150	
Learning English of Pre Experimental	25	3,1267	,99102	,19820	,634
Learning English of Pre Control	20	3,2583	,87438	,19552	
Culture of Pre Experimental	25	3,5100	,63770	,12754	,579
Culture of Pre Control	20	3,0429	,88197	,19721	
Motivation of Pre Experimental	25	2,9920	,71351	,14270	,228
Motivation of Pre Control	20	3,2050	,51959	,11618	
Technology of Pre Experimental	25	3,3025	,72146	,14429	,465
Technology of Pre Control	20	3,5031	,65503	,14647	

$p<.05$

Motivation-Attitude Scale which consisted of 45 items and had 5 categories was administered to the students in both experimental group and control group before the four-week treatment in order to find out whether both groups were homogeneous or not. Table 2 showed mean values, standard deviation, standard error mean and significance of five categories of the questionnaire.

According to Independent samples t-test results for 25 students, the mean score of the pre-test of experimental group for attitudes towards English language was M=3.52 while the mean score of the pre-test of control group for attitudes towards English language was M=3.59. The mean score of attitudes towards learning English was 3.12 in the experimental group' pre-test results and it was 3.25 in the control group's results.

The mean score of experimental group for attitudes towards culture learning was 3.51 while it was 3.04 in the control group. However, it was not significant ($p = .57 > .05$). In the experimental group the mean scores for motivation (M=2.99) and attitudes towards technology use (M=3.30) were not significantly different than motivation (M=3.20) and attitudes towards technology use (M=3.50) in the control group. Moreover, it can be stated that the mean scores of each part in the pre-test of the control group were higher than the mean scores of the pre-test results of experimental group except the part of attitudes towards learning target culture of the questionnaire. Therefore, the effect of treatment on the students of experimental group will be determined easily after four weeks.

In addition, it can be assumed that the variances of these two unrelated samples are equal since the Levene's test for Equality of Variances is not significant ($p > .05$) for each part of the questionnaire. The part of attitudes towards English language is not significant ($p. = .31 > .05$), the part of attitudes towards learning English is not significant ($p = .63 > .05$), the part of attitudes towards culture learning is not significant ($p = .57 > .05$), the part of motivation is not significant ($p = .22 > .05$) and the part of attitudes towards technology use is not significant ($p = .31 > .46$). Therefore, it can be assumed that both groups are not significantly different from each other and the variances are equal.

R.Q. 2: Is there a significant difference between the learners with whom technology is used and the learners instructed by traditional method concerning the effects of post-test results on the motivation level of the students?

After four- week treatment in the experimental group and the students in the control group taught in a conventional method, the questionnaire which is Motivation- Attitude Scale was administered to the both groups as a post- test According to Table 3 below, the mean scores of post-test of experimental group were significantly different from the mean scores of control group's post-test. In the experimental group the mean scores of the post- test were between the 4.10 and 4.33 whereas the mean scores of the post- test in the control group were between 3.21 and 3.41.

When the pre-test results of both groups are re-examined, it can be stated that the mean scores of experimental group were between 2.99 and 3.52 while the mean scores of the control group were between 3.04 and 3.59 in Table 2 above. Therefore, it can be concluded that motivation of learners in the control group and their attitudes towards English language, learning English, learning target culture and technology use did not change during four weeks since they were not instructed through technology in their classes. However, there was a significant gap between the pre-test results and post test results of the experimental group since using technology affected them in a positive way

Table 3. Post-test results of the experimental group and the control group

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig.
English Language of Post Experimental	25	4,2200	,46328	,09266	
English Language of Post Control	20	3,3250	1,14130	,25520	,005
Learning English of Post Experimental	25	4,3067	,41242	,08248	,038
Learning English of Post Control	20	3,2167	,93830	,20981	
Culture of Post Experimental	25	4,3371	,43542	,08708	,006
Culture of Post Control	20	3,4143	1,22531	,27399	
Motivation of Post Experimental	25	4,1000	,34157	,06831	,016
Motivation of Post Control	20	3,2300	,53123	,11879	
Technology of Post Experimental	25	4,1050	,26865	,05373	,001
Technology of Post Control					

$p<.05$

As Table 3 indicates, the post-test results of experimental group were significantly different from the post-test results of the control group since significance levels were not more than 0.05 ($p <$

.05) for each part of the questionnaire, which implies that using technology in the experimental group took students' interest and made them highly motivated to learn English and affected their attitudes and perceptions towards English, learning English, learning target culture and using technology positively.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

The findings of this study demonstrated that students taught through technology have much more motivation than the students instructed by traditional method although both groups have more or less same motivation level in the beginning of the study. Regarding the studies carried out in various contexts (Akobirov, 2017; Barreto, 2018; Chen & Kent, 2020; Genç İlter, 2015; Gill, 2006; Göçerler, 2018; Fandino, Munoz & Velandia, 2019; Kalanzadeh, Soleimani & Bakhtiarvand, 2014; Sun & Gao, 2020; Tavakoli, Lotfi & Biria, 2019, Wong, Tan & Lin, 2019), it could be concluded that there is a positive relationship between the technology use and the students' language learning motivation. The results of this study are compatible with the studies stated above.

The students in the experimental group have more positive attitudes towards English language, learning English language, learning target culture and technology use than the students in the control group, which implies that using computer, CDs and DVDs and authentic materials downloaded from the internet makes the learners be aware of the opportunities for learning language and using that language in the target culture. Therefore, they are more active in the language learning process. They also believe that films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop their listening, reading, speaking and writing skills and their vocabulary in English. Similar to the results of Frigaard's (2002) study in which Spanish was taught to the high school students in the computer laboratory, in this study using technology in language classroom makes lessons more enjoyable and helps the students to develop their language skills. They benefit from it as audio visual materials to develop their listening skill in English. All these results are in line with the advantages of technology use in foreign language classrooms (Brinton, 2001; Genç İlter, 2009; Rost, 2002; Wang 2006).

It could be concluded that according to post test results, the students in the experimental group have integrative motivation rather than instrumental motivation. This shows that they learn language to be the part of the target language and culture but not for the sake of something (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Fei, 2005; Spolsky, 1969). Finally, in the light of the data obtained from the study, some suggestions might be stated in relation to the use of technology in foreign language teaching. These are listed as follows:

1. In-service teachers particularly the teachers having worked for a long time should be encouraged in order to use technology in their foreign language classes by providing them with in-service training since they do not have enough knowledge about technology and its use in the language classroom.

2. In Faculty of Education of universities pre-service foreign language teachers should be trained for using technology in order to attract their future students interest, make them active in language learning process and make the lesson more enjoyable.

3. Computer labs as well as projectors, CD and DVD players in foreign language classrooms should be available at schools and foreign language teachers should be encouraged to exploit them.

4. While English is taught in a foreign language context, students should be encouraged to practice their English by means of technology since they do not have any opportunities to use the language.

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APPENDIX 1

Motivation- Attitude Questionnaire

Dear Participant,
This questionnaire has been designed to find out their motivation and perceptions and attitudes of students learning English as a foreign language in the first year of university, towards English language, learning English and target culture and technology usage. Please, do not forget that there is no right or wrong answer in this questionnaire. Therefore, it is important that your answers are sincere and honest.
Your proficiency in English: AA --------- BA ---------
BB --------- CB ---------
CC --------- DC ---------
DD --------- Please state if there is another. ---------

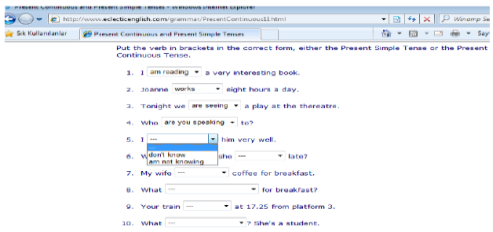
		Totally Agree	Agree	No Idea	Disagree	Totally Disagree
1	English is acceptable in every part of the world.	5	4	3	2	1
2	English is important.	5	4	3	2	1
3	English is enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
4	English is easy.	5	4	3	2	1
5	English is interesting.	5	4	3	2	1
6	English is a polite language.	5	4	3	2	1
7	I love learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
8	Learning English is very enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Learning English is a waste of time.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Learning English is very interesting.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Learning English is very easy.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Learning English is fun.	5	4	3	2	1
13	While learning a foreign language, learning about the target culture is too important.	5	4	3	2	1
14	While learning a foreign language, learning about the target culture increases motivation of the learners.	5	4	3	2	1
15	While learning a foreign language, it is needed to learn about the target culture.	5	4	3	2	1
16	While learning a foreign language, learning about the target culture will contribute to the future profession.	5	4	3	2	1
17	That the foreign language learning includes learning the target culture will provide me the opportunity to use this information in many places.	5	4	3	2	1
18	While learning about a different culture, I read texts in the foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1
19	While learning about a different culture, I listen to songs in the foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1
20	I learn English because I like it.	5	4	3	2	1
21	I learn English because it is compulsory.	5	4	3	2	1
22	I learn English because I believe that it will be useful to me in the future to find a good job.	5	4	3	2	1
23	I learn English because speaking English makes me happy.	5	4	3	2	1

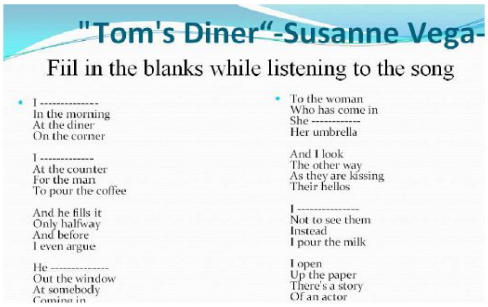
24	I learn English because without it one cannot be successful in his job.	5	4	3	2	1
25	I learn English in order to be similar to the British and Americans.	5	4	3	2	1
26	I learn English because I can be a more knowledgeable person.	5	4	3	2	1
27	I learn English because my parents want me to.	5	4	3	2	1
28	I learn English because I want to understand English speaking films and music.	5	4	3	2	1
29	I learn English in order to pass the class.	5	4	3	2	1
30	Use of technological equipment in language teaching increases my motivation.	5	4	3	2	1
31	Authentic materials downloaded from the internet make me active in the language learning process.	5	4	3	2	1
32	Computer-based teaching activities make the lessons more enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
33	When technology is used every time, it makes the lessons boring.	5	4	3	2	1
34	I can understand language better when my teacher uses technology in the class.	5	4	3	2	1
35	Different technological devices should be used in the class to increase my motivation for learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
36	If my teacher uses power point presentations, English lessons can be more enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
37	Films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop my speaking skill in English.	5	4	3	2	1
38	Films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop my writing skill in English.	5	4	3	2	1
39	Films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop my listening skill in English.	5	4	3	2	1
40	Films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop my reading skill in English.	5	4	3	2	1
41	Films, videos, CDs and internet can be helpful to develop my vocabulary in English.	5	4	3	2	1
42	Computer-based lessons are more enjoyable and effective than traditional lessons.	5	4	3	2	1
43	Technological devices are important sources to learn about culture of target language.	5	4	3	2	1
44	Technology facilitates effective communication with the people speaking target language.	5	4	3	2	1
45	Technological devices cause a waste of time in the class.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX 2

Samples for language activities used in the experimental group

http://www.eclecticenglish.com/grammar/PresentContinuous1I.html





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BOOK REVIEW

Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction (2010)

Author: William Littlewood
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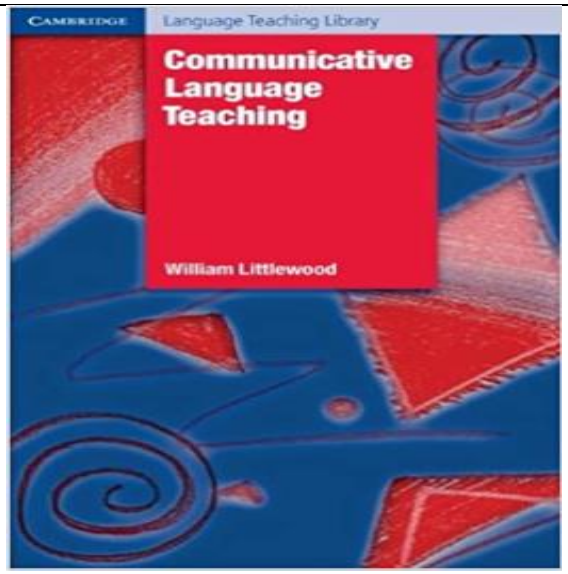

Definition of 'language' has been changed throughout the years. Accordingly, the scope of linguistics and the ways of language teaching have also changed. The language was previously studied in a structural view. In other words, language learning referred to knowing the grammatical rules and having linguistic knowledge. However, learners were unable to use the language, namely unable to communicate. Being able to communicate requires more than mastering linguistic structures (Hymes, 1972 and Canale & Swain, 1980). For these reasons, communicative language teaching approach revealed as the product of educators who were dissatisfied with the grammar translation and audiolingual methods. In this respect, "Communicative Language Teaching", a kind of introduction book, can be a guide for researchers, teachers, under- graduate and post graduate students.

The book, which was first published in 1981, is in its 30th edition now. It consists of 8 parts, further reading, bibliography and index. It starts with the definition of communicative ability and ends with a part titled, *A Communicative Approach*. Each chapter includes a summary part in which the chapter is revised shortly and main parts are emphasized.

The first chapter of the book, *What is Communicative Ability*, starts with a discussion of the communicative view of a language and language learning. In this chapter, two important aspects of communicative language teaching, *structural and functional views* are analyzed in a detailed way. Combination of these aforementioned aspects in a more communicative view is discussed. The author outlines four broad domains of skill which lead to communicative competence. These are: linguistic competence of learners, learners' awareness of difference between the linguistic competence and the communicative functions that they perform, learners' learning skills for using language to communicate meanings and learners' awareness of the social meaning of language forms.

The second chapter, *Relating Forms to Meanings*, aims to demonstrate how acquisition of linguistic structures is related to the other components of communicative ability described in the previous chapter. The author tries to illustrate differences between functional and structural facts, also

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makes the topic clear with the examples and readers can easily get themselves aware of the relation between structure and communicative functions. Furthermore, with some pre-communicative activities the link is also explained between language and social context.

In the third chapter, *Communicative Activities: Some General Considerations*, purposes and types of communicative activities and teachers' and students' roles are explained on the basis of the experienced or probable situations. The author makes a distinction between two main categories: "Functional communication activities and social interaction activities". The author emphasizes both the social meaning and the functional meaning of different language forms.

In the fourth chapter, *Functional communication activities,* the author categorizes functional activities considering main uses of language: *Using language to share information* and *using language to process information*. Throughout the chapter, various activities are presented in order to illustrate interaction both in the controlled and less controlled environment. The first type of activity is *sharing information with restricted cooperation*, in which learners must interact with each other according to strict rules determined by the teacher. Another type of activity mentioned here is *sharing information with unrestricted cooperation*. In both activities, the goal of communication is to share factual information. The next type of functional communication activity is *Sharing and processing information*. In this activity, learners must not only share information, they must also discuss or evaluate the information in order to solve a problem. The last one is *processing information,* which is formed when there is a need to share information. In these activities, learners will gradually become more creative with the language they have acquired. The author also focuses on some limitations of the functional activities due to the fact that some of them cannot be used outside the classroom.

Chapter 5, *Social Interaction Activities*, firstly reviews the differences between the functional activities and social interaction activities. The author points out that social interaction activities with their functional meanings make the learners closer to situation where they have to communicate outside the classroom. This chapter offers four approaches to make the classroom a social context for foreign language use. They are listed as follows: "using the foreign language for classroom management, using the foreign language as a teaching medium, conversation or discussion sessions and basing dialogues and role plays on school experience". After the summary of these approaches, the importance of different forms of interaction such as simulation and role-playing is emphasized since language learners have to deal with possible problems or different situations socially and functionally outside the classroom. This chapter also provides techniques for simulation and role-playing. They are listed from control to creativity: "performing memorised dialogues, contextualised drills, cued dialogues, role playing and improvisation". Finally, it offers some considerations for teachers who create social interaction opportunities in language classroom.

In Chapter 6, *Listening Activities,* the author claims that foreign language learners are generally in the receiver position during face-to-face communication and while understanding messages from various sources such as radio or television. He puts emphasis on the importance of using listening activities with a purpose in order to develop learners' listening skills. These activities for listening with a specific purpose are called as *"Performing physical tasks, Transferring information, Reformulating and evaluating information"* and they are discussed in detail. Moreover, he argues that learners listen in order to receive functional meanings but they should develop their awareness of how they use language forms and behave in a social context.

The seventh chapter, *Choosing What to Teach,* focuses on the course content. The author stresses that the communicative approach does not underestimate the structure of the language since the learner has to know about the structural system of a language to communicate. He suggests that language forms which widen learners' communicative knowledge should be taught first. Apart from teaching language structures, he also states that different aspects of language use can be taught for communicative purposes and these are listed as follows: *(i)* functional-structural organisation, *(ii)* functional organisation, *(iii)* notional organisation and *(iv)* topic based organisation. He suggests using several organisations in one course rather than using only one organisation in order to connect

language teaching with learners' communicative goals. Finally, he notes that using a published checklist such as "the Council of Europe's Threshold Level" would be useful for teachers while assessing learners' communicative needs for situations, language activities, functions, topics, general notions and language forms.

In the last chapter, *A Communicative Approach*, the author summarizes the differences between "pre-communicative activities" and "communicative learning activities" used throughout the book. He classifies pre- communicative activities as structural activities and quasi-communicative activities, which aim to produce acceptable language, and communicative activities as functional communication activities and social interaction activities, which aim to convey message. He also notes that this relationship between the types of activities is relevant to methodology rather than their sequence in a classroom. Subsequently, the importance of feedback is emphasized in communicative approach. It is also stated that the role of teachers with this approach has been changed. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), teachers in communicative classrooms talk less and listen more. They are active facilitators of their students' learning. Teachers set up the exercise and move step back and sometimes observe acting as a referee or moderator. During the activities, they act as advisers, answering students' questions. They might make note of their errors to be worked on at later time during more accuracy-based activities.

Finally, it is known that the principle of the communicative approach is to develop communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) or communicative ability. Therefore, language learners should develop their grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). As this book presents plenty of activities in order to provide real communication with which students might confront outside the classroom, it is a remarkable material for particularly novice English language teachers and they make use of the great store of activities in a practical way.

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KİTAP İNCELEMESİ

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Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde dil bilgisinin yeri ve niteliği, önemli bir tartışma konusudur. "Dil bilgisi nasıl öğretilmelidir?" sorusu, bu tartışmaların odağında yer almaktadır. Tek yönlü olarak dil bilgisi kurallarını aktarmanın yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenicisi için anlamlı olmayacağı; dil bilgisinin, öğrenicilerin dili işlevsel bir biçimde kullanabilmelerine zemin hazırlayacak biçimde öğretilmesi gerektiği günümüzde genel kabul gören yaklaşımdır. Çağdaş yaklaşımlara göre dil bilgisi, öğretim etkinliğinin asıl amacı değil, öğrenicilerin dili etkili kullanabilmeleri için bir araçtır. Bu nedenle dil bilgisinin, öğrenicilerin hedef dilde anlama ve anlatma becerilerine katkı sağlayacak biçimde öğretilmesi gerektiği savunulmaktadır. Bu görüş, yabancı dil öğretimi alanında yayımlanan güncel programlarda da ifade edilmektedir.

Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimine rehberlik eden "Diller İçin Avrupa Ortak Öneriler Çerçevesi", yabancı dil öğretiminin dil bilgisine dayalı bir müfredattan çok, ihtiyaç analizine dayalı ve gerçek hayattaki iletişim durumlarını temel alan dil işlevlerini merkeze alarak inşa edilmesi gerektiğini savunmaktadır (CEFR, 2018, s. 26). Çerçeve metindeki bu yaklaşım, yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğretimi programlarında da karşılık bulmaktadır. Yunus Emre Enstitüsü tarafından hazırlanan "Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe İlk Kazanımlar İçin Başvuru Rehberi (A1 Öncesi)" (YEE, 2018) adlı kaynak, dil bilgisinin değil; dilin işlevsel kullanımlarının öğretilmesi gerektiğini ileri sürmektedir. Türkiye Maarif Vakfı tarafından hazırlanan "Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe Öğretimi Programı" (Türkiye Maarif Vakfı, 2020) da işlevsel dil öğretimi yaklaşımını temel almakta ve dil bilgisi kurallarının iletişimsel üretime katkı sağlayacak biçimde öğretilmesi gerektiğini belirtmektedir.

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Yukarıda özetlendiği üzere çağdaş yaklaşımlar ve Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimi alanındaki güncel programlar, dil bilgisinin işlevsel bir biçimde öğretilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmektedir. İşlevsel dil bilgisi öğretiminin zemininde ise o dilin ne tür işlevler taşıdığı, o işlevlerin hangi dil bilgisi yapılarıyla aktarıldığını betimleyen araştırmalar yer almaktadır. Ancak bu noktada Türkiye Türkçesinde hangi dil bilgisi ögesinin hangi işlevi/işlevleri taşıdığının ayrıntılı ve bütüncül bir biçimde betimlenmemiş olması, önemli bir eksiklik/sorun olarak gündeme gelmektedir. Alan yazını incelendiğinde Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimine kaynak oluşturacak işlevsel dil bilgisi çalışmalarının oldukça sınırlı, kısmi ve dağınık olduğu görülmektedir. Yapılan çalışmalar, belli başlı dil bilgisi kurallarının iletişim durumlarında taşıdığı belli başlı işlevlerle sınırlı kalmakta; bu da Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimine bütüncül bir bakış açısı sunamamaktadır. Marmara Üniversitesi Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi'nde görev yapan Ahmet Benzer'in kaleme aldığı "Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe Öğretiminde İşlevsel Dil Bilgisi" başlıklı kitap, alan yazınındaki söz konusu boşluğu doldurma iddiası taşımaktadır. Kitapta, Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimi kapsamında işlev temelli bir dil bilgisi sınıflaması gerçekleştirilmiştir. 2020 yılında Pegem Akademi tarafından yayımlanan kitap; "Teorik Temeller", "Yapı" ve "İşlev" başlıklı üç bölümden oluşmaktadır.

"Teorik Temeller" başlıklı birinci bölümde kural koyucu, betimleyici, pedagojik ve işlevsel dil bilgisinin temel nitelikleri açıklanmış ve bu dil bilgisi yaklaşımlarının farkları belirlenmiştir. Ardından dil bilimde yapısalcı paradigmanın temel gerekçelerine değinilmiş, işlevsel dil bilgisinin de arka planında yer alan işlevci paradigmanın ortaya çıkışı, ilkeleri ve yapısalcı paradigmadan ayrıldığı noktalar üzerinde durulmuştur. Birinci bölümün sonunda, işlevsel dil bilgisi tanımlanmış ve Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde işlevsel dil bilgisinin yeri tartışılmıştır.

"Yapı" başlıklı ikinci bölümde, Türkiye Türkçesinin sözcük ve tümce oluşturma kuralları betimlenmiştir. Yazarın ön sözde belirttiği üzere, kitapta ele alınan dil bilgisi kuralları, harften cümleye doğru; yani tümevarımsal bir sıra içinde ele alınmıştır. Ayrıca bu dil bilgisi kurallarının işlevsel ve eğitsel bir bakış açısıyla betimlenmeye çalışıldığını söylemek de olanaklıdır. Dil bilgisi kuralları açıklanırken hangi iletişim durumlarında ve hangi işlevlerle kullanıldığına da yer verilmiştir. Örnek cümlelerle dil bilgisi kuralları ve yansıttığı işlevler somutlaştırılmış, böylece dil bilgisinin amaç değil; dil kullanımında bir araç olduğu varsayımı güçlendirilmiştir. Zaman zaman da Türkçe dil bilgisi kurallarının İngilizce dil bilgisi kurallarından farklılaştığı noktalar üzerinde durulmuştur. Böylece Türk dil bilgisi kuralları, "dışarı"dan bakılarak yorumlanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Kitabın üçüncü ve son bölümü "İşlev" başlığını taşımaktadır. Bu bölümde selamlaşma, iyi dilekte bulunma, karşılaştırma, sebep ve amaç, bağlantı, zaman, olumlu tepkiler ve olumsuz tepkiler gibi işlevsel dil kullanımları, alt başlıklara ayrılarak ayrıntılı bir biçimde sınıflandırılmış ve betimlenmiştir. Bu bölüm hazırlanırken yazarın ön sözde belirttiği gibi "Bir yapı ile kaç farklı işlev aktarılabilir?" sorusu yerine, "Bu işlev için kaç farklı yapı tercih edilebilir?" sorusuna yanıt aranmıştır. Başka bir deyişle dil bilgisi ögelerinin işlevleri sıralanmamış, dilin gerçek iletişim durumlarındaki işlevlerinin hangi dil bilgisi ögeleriyle yansıtıldığı betimlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Kitabın özgün niteliği de buradadır. "İşlev" başlıklı bu bölümde işlev, işleve ilişkin açıklama, bu işlevi yansıtan dil bilgisi yapısı örnek cümlelerle somutlaştırılmıştır. İşlevlerin örnek cümlelerle belirginleştirilmesi, dil bilgisi öğretiminde bağlam ve kullanımın önemini vurgulamaktadır. Ayrıca bu bölümde, bir işlevi yansıtan farklı dil bilgisi ögelerinin hangi seviyede (A, B, C) öğretileceği de ilgililerin dikkatine sunulmuştur. Dolayısıyla bu kitapta "aşamalılık" ilkesi, işlevsel dil bilgisi öğretiminin temelinde yer alan bir öge olarak sunulmuştur.

Kitap, geleneksel yaklaşımlardan farklı olarak dil bilgisini işlevsel ve eğitsel bir bakış açısıyla ele almaktadır. Söz konusu kitap, alan yazınında kuramsal olarak önemi sıkça vurgulanan işlevsel ve iletişimsel dil öğretimine somut bir veri tabanı sunmaktadır. Yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenicilerinin

sıkça sorduğu “Bu dil bilgisi kuralı ne işimize yarayacak?” veya “… durumunda ne söylemeliyim?” gibi sorular, söz konusu kitapta ayrıntılı bir biçimde yanıtlanmıştır. Dil bilgisinden işleve değil, işlevden dil bilgisine doğru bir yönelimi temel alan bu kitap; Türkçeyi yabancı dil olarak öğretenlere, bu alanda program geliştirenlere ve ders kitabı hazırlayanlara katkı sağlayacak niteliktedir.

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BOOK REVIEW

How Languages Are Learned (2013)

Authors:
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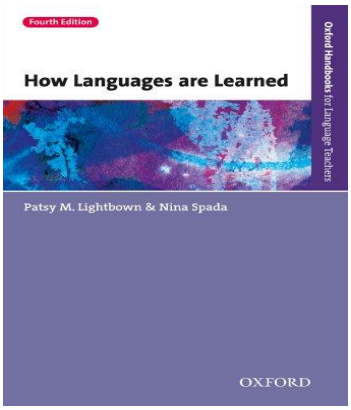

Language acquisition is one of the most fascinating and unique aspects of human development. Teaching people how to walk is impossible because we are designed to walk; likewise, teaching a language to a child is very unlikely as we cannot prevent him/her learning it (Chomsky, 1994). Because of the fact that language is extremely complex, there are a number of hypothesis and ideas about how children and adults learn their mother tongue or a second/foreign language. In this respect, "How Languages are Learned", which is a kind of an introduction book to the main theories of first and second language acquisition, can be an invaluable source and guide for educators, researchers, and students.

The book How Languages are Learned (ISBN 978-0-19-454126-8) was written by Patsy M. Lightbown & Nina Spada, and first published in 1993. The fourth edition of this award-winning book was published in 2013, and it is extensively used by educators and linguists all around the world. Patsy M. Lightbown is a Distinguished Professor Emerita in Applied Linguistics at Concordia University, Montreal. She has been working on second language learning & teaching for more than forty years. She is an author, editor, consultant and an advisor. The co-author of this book, Nina Spada, is a Professor Emerita in the Second Language Education Program at University of Toronto. Her main research interest is form-focused instruction in classroom SLA. Furthermore, she was a Visiting Professor at Boğaziçi University, Turkey, in 2015. The book's updated content provides educators some important information about recent research on second language learning. It also presents a number of useful activities and questions related to this field which will trigger critical thinking. The books itself is a good and reliable source that relates language acquisition theory and research to teaching and learning in the classroom.

The prize-winning book consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 deals with language learning in early childhood, and introduces the reader how children, in the first three years, acquire the language, and how they initially form the morphemes and basic questions during language acquisition process. The chapter also highlights three broad theoretical perspectives for describing first language acquisition; namely, behaviorist, innatist, and interactional/developmental perspectives. The chapter,

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finally, outlines the language disorders and delays during the stages of language development as well as childhood bilingualism.

Chapter 2 draws the readers' attention to second language learning. The authors first discuss the learner characteristics and learning conditions. Then, they introduce various hypotheses of error, which are contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage. After that, how second language acquisition takes place in learners was analyzed in detail by explaining developmental sequences, grammatical morphemes, negation, question, possessive determiners, and so on.

In the 3rd chapter, the authors focus on individual differences in second language learning. Crucial individual characteristics such as intelligence, language learning aptitude, learning styles, personality, attitudes and motivation, motivation in the classroom, identity & ethnic group affiliation, and age. The chapter emphasizes that it is hard to interpret the research results when it comes to individual differences, and it relates this to the fact that learner characteristics are not independent of each other.

The 4th chapter aims to explain second language learning, and theories of second language acquisition in depth. The behaviorist, innatist, cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, which were dealt with in the first chapter, are described with their own theories and models in detail. Krashen's 'Monitor Model', information processing, usage-based learning, the competition model, the interaction hypothesis, the noticing hypothesis, input processing, processability theory are introduced and exemplified in this chapter. The authors touch upon the fact that teachers are not content with the lack of agreement among experts when it comes to language acquisition theories, so they cannot benefit these theories which could clearly give them more insight into language teaching practice.

In chapter 5, discussion is moved towards observing, learning, and teaching in the second language classroom. More specifically, the chapter reviews several ways in which different features of second language acquisition can be explained and interpreted. It also provides a lot of studies examining specific pedagogical features such as corrective feedback and question types. Lastly, examples of chats and taxonomies are presented in this chapter so as to help the reader observe and comment more on the interactions between student and teacher in the classroom.

Chapter 6 concentrates on six crucial and useful proposals for classroom teaching and interaction based on research findings and concentrates on how the proposals get translated into classroom practice. The chapter also presents various examples of classroom interaction, and discuss research findings with the aim of assessing how affective they are.

The 7th chapter, which is the final one, concerns with revisited popular ideas about language learning. It presents 18 practical and useful commonly-held beliefs and ideas, and relates them to the ideas and studies discussed in chapter throughout the whole book. At the end of this chapter, there is a glossary where the reader can check the items that have a special or technical meaning in second language acquisition research and second language teaching.

This prize-winning book covers the theory and practice of first and second language acquisition in a very balanced way. It is well-written and well-organized in such a way that anybody who is not even familiar with the topic can easily read it as the theoretical concepts have been presented as quite reader-friendly. The authors also have succeeded in bridging smoothly between first language acquisition and second language acquisition. What makes the book also remarkable is that there are plenty of examples, evaluations and case studies throughout the book, therefore, the reader is clearly exposed to some research ideas and practical context about the topic. It is worth noting that the majority of these examples presented in the book is based on real-life examples in language classrooms. Thanks to the book, teachers can reflect on their experience in teaching, which, in return, will have a great contribution in understanding of their duties and responsibilities as educators and the students' responsibilities and abilities as language learners. This book is, therefore, insightful and informative handbook for language teachers, teacher trainers, professional researchers, graduate and

postgraduate students who are interested in discovering more about first and second language acquisition.

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