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Journal of Language Education and Research

Research Article

Investigation of collocational priming in tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' mental lexicon

Ahmet Aktürk[*]   Ali Şükrü Özbay[**]   Hakan Cangır[***]

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	Much research in EFL context investigated language use of the learners in terms of lexical combinations but failed to recognize collocations in terms of psycholinguistic framework. Inspired by Lexical Priming Theory, the current study both emphasizes that collocations are not only textual but also psychological phenomena and underlines that non-native-like language use by EFL learners may stem from the fact that collocations are not mentally represented as a single unit in mental lexicon. Thus, a lexical decision task was designed where the participants were asked to classify the words flashing on their screens as words/non-words. Reaction times concluded that verb-noun collocations are not primed in the learners' mental lexicon. Mixed effects modelling analysis demonstrated the frequency of the prime words in collocations had a significant effect in the process. The findings were discussed in the light of vocabulary acquisition theories, and suggestions were provided for further research.

[*] PhD Student, Lecturer, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4207-3748, Gümüşhane University, Department of Foreign Languages, ahmetakturk@gumushane.edu.tr

[**] Assist. Prof. Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3421-0650, Karadeniz Technical University, Department of Western Languages and Literature, ozbay@ktu.edu.tr

[***] Lecturer Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2589-2466, Ankara University, School of Foreign Languages, hcangir@ankara.edu.tr

Introduction

Having a good command of English has long been acknowledged to be a *sin que non* in EFL countries. As far as the case in Turkey is concerned, it appears that there exists a lack of quality in terms of the use of English by the tertiary level EFL learners for various reasons such as lack of proficiency, anxiety, lack of practice and training, etc. (Alshahrani, 2016; Atay & Kurt, 2006; Aydın, 1999; Ballester, 2015; Çam & Karatepe, 2020; Ekmekçi, 2018; Kara, 2013; Kırmızı & Kırmızı, 2015; Yalçın, 2010). The studies regarding the tertiary level EFL learners suggest that the learners make frequent word-choice errors in their linguistic production and the learners in the higher levels of their English instruction do not conform to the prescribed CEFR guidelines (Kırmızı & Karcı, 2017; Özen et al., 2013). Even though grammar and vocabulary have been considered to be the culprit of the learners' lack of quality in their language production, the picture may be much more complicated in this case. The study, therefore, is concerned with unnatural and non-native-like language use by the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. In this study, it is assumed that the learners ignore the naturalness in their target language since they do not process L2 collocations in their mental lexicons as native speakers do. To be more precise, L2 collocations may not be represented as a single unit in the mental lexicon of tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. According to Hoey's (2005, p. 1) influential lexical priming theory, which he claims to be "a new theory of language", priming phenomenon is the reason why collocations exist in the first place. He argues that every time native speakers encounter a word in language, they acquire its accompanying context including words and grammar structures. As a result, they come to be conditioned to recognize specific words occurring together, which is spelled out as collocational priming. For instance, a language user would be likely to recognize the word *commit* more quickly if they have already seen that it occurs together with *crime*. Even though the language user can offer several alternatives occurring together with *commit*, his/her linguistic experience may prime the word *crime* in his/her mental representation in an endeavour to sound rather natural compared to other alternative ways to express the same concept. In this sense, *commit* can be said to prime *crime*, and such priming effect would be found in language user's mental representation. Similarly, Durrant (2008, pp. 105-106) puts forward that priming exists when a language user recognises a semantically related word faster as opposed to a semantically unrelated word; "the word girl is recognised more quickly when it comes soon after the word boy than it does when it follows a semantically unrelated word." The authors assume that naturalness in language is achieved through priming of collocation pairs, and embark on seeking whether such relationship is found in the mental lexicon of tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. The study investigates collocational knowledge of the learners through the medium of a psycholinguistic construct, collocational priming. As far as psycholinguistic nature of collocations is concerned, Hoey's (2005) definition could manifest that they are indeed psycholinguistic constructs. He suggests:

> It is a psychological association between words (rather than lemmas) up to four words apart and is evidenced by their occurrence together in corpora more often than is explicable in terms of random distribution. This definition is intended to pick up on the fact that collocation is a psycholinguistic phenomenon. (ibid., p. 5)

It has been long assumed that the proficiency levels of learners do not improve even after years of instruction where grammar is in the center of attention (Lu, 2016). Based on

our EFL experience, we have come to observe that grammar is prioritized over vocabulary in EFL classrooms. Turkish EFL students learn English in teacher-centered classrooms where grammar is taught traditionally (Uysal & Bardakci, 2014) and grammar instruction is prioritized (Süzer, 2007) before learners enter ELT and ELL departments of universities. Even if those learners are able to produce grammatically correct and perfect sentences, the naturalness in language is still a matter of question. Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) suggest that competent use of English depends on organized and relevant intra-lexical connections between words in the mental representations of those learning a second language. The intra-lexical links between words are collocations. In this sense, the study investigates whether collocations are mentally represented as a single unit in Turkish EFL learners' mental lexicon. The reason why Turkish EFL learners tend to produce ill-formed and non-nativelike language could be their lack of collocational knowledge, and the study seeks such knowledge in the first place; namely, learners' mental lexicon. Durrant (2008, p. 2) suggests that if collocations are mentally represented in native speakers, they are then sound targets to be taught, and they are really "known" by language users. Such equation underpins the goal of the study in that Turkish EFL learners' mental lexicon is investigated through the lens of priming phenomenon to find out about their collocational knowledge. Much research has been done with a focus on Turkish EFL learners by investigating their collocational knowledge. However, none of those studies except two (Cangır et al., 2017; Cangır, 2018) approach the issue from a psycholinguistic perspective. More specifically, there is not a single study investigating L2 collocations in L1 mental lexicon in Turkish context. The two psycholinguistic studies mentioned above were not concerned investigating English collocational knowledge in Turkish mental lexicon. Therefore, taking the paucity of psycholinguistic research regarding English collocational knowledge of Turkish EFL learners into consideration, it is worth investigating whether collocations hold psychological reality for Turkish learners of English, and the influence of Turkish as L1 on L2 English mental lexicon. Therefore, discovering whether collocations are mentally represented in Turkish EFL learners may hold evidence manifesting learners' collocational knowledge.

According to Fernández and Schmitt (2015, p. 96), "if EFL learners aspire to use language in an accurate and fluent fashion, they must have collocational knowledge". Rather than doing the third conditional again, EFL learners must add to their existing collocation repertoire as it is "the only achievable way to reach advanced levels" (Lewis, 2000, as cited in Ying & O'Neill, 2009, p. 182). However, setting goals for EFL learners to reach native-like language standards has long been a hotly debated issue in literature (Jaworska et al., 2015). Comparing EFL learners with native speaker norms in a fashion where they are supposed to use language like native speakers do has been a controversial theme among scholars. Although it may be argued that it is not equitable to expect learners to reach native-like standards in terms of their language production, EFL learners should be aware of the fact that erroneous collocational use in their language production may result in dire consequences. Gass and Selinker (1994) state that collocational errors in language production lead to communication breakdowns. More precisely, wrong word choice in collocation sets is likely to change the meaning that is attempted to be conveyed through spoken or written medium. With that in mind, the study utilizes the terms natural/unnatural and native-like/non-native-like language production as two ends of a continuum rather than a goal that EFL learners must achieve. Therefore, the study attempts to unearth the psycholinguistic reason behind EFL learners' unnatural and non-native-like language use by investigating priming effect in their mental lexicon rather than setting an unrealistic goal for the learners. The authors argue that the aim is not to find out whether EFL learners are doing better in terms of linguistic output in the study. Considering the

fact that corpus is mainly concerned with descriptive picture and organic development of language, it would be reasonable to claim that what counts in corpus linguistics is not a "standard" language according to which we can judge the linguistic performance of a non-native speaker against a native one. On the contrary, by doing so we have tried to provide the readers with a reasonable interval of acceptable collocations and their priming sequences with considerable frequency. This should not be considered as an imposition of a norm or standard language or a priming sequence but equipping the learners with reliable data so that they can be more confident in language use and better at making language related decisions. The use of contrastive analysis is due to the fact that it is "the most frequently used method of investigating formulaic language in a learner corpus that compares the results of a learner corpus analysis with those obtained from the analysis of a comparable native corpus and identifies errors and patterns of learner over- and underuse of formulaic sequences" (Paquot & Granger, 2012, p.132).

Literature review

Much research has been done in terms collocations and collocational knowledge. However, various definitions of collocations have been put forward by linguists depending on their study. As a result, there seems to be much confusion as to how collocations are approached. Durrant and Mathews–Aydınlı (2011) gave a description of three main approaches to collocations named phraseological, frequency-based, and psychological approaches.

From the perspective of phraseological approach, one of the constituents of the collocations does not have a literal sense (e.g. *meet deadlines, go green*) or in which the constituents of the collocations are so restricted that they cannot be easily replaced by another constituent (e.g. *flunk* cannot be easily followed by any noun other than *an examination*, *test*, or a course of study). More specifically, phraseological approach which is also called "Russian school of phraseology" (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009) is inclined to define collocations as frequent word combinations containing transparent meaning and restricted elements. According to phraseological approach, at least one of the words in collocations needs to be transparent or compositional; otherwise they are considered free combinations (Gyllstad, 2009). For example, in phraseological approach, *comb hair* is considered to be a free combination because both of its elements are transparent or compositional in meaning and the interpretation of the pair can be extracted from its elements. If, on the other hand, both of the elements are non-transparent or opaque, that would be an idiom in accordance with the guidelines of phraseological approach (e.g. *hit the sack* is and idiom rather than a collocation as the meaning is not possible to be understood from the constituent words.)

It must be noted that the boundaries between those types of word clusters described above are not clear-cut. It is not possible to clearly set the limits and they should be seen as a continuum rather than as explicit types. In this sense, Cangır et al. (2017) also assert that the fundamental problem with the classification described by phraseological approach is that it is not easy to set limits between the classifications suggested by phraseological approach. In a similar vein, another disadvantage of phraseological approach is that telling free combinations from restricted ones can only be made qualitatively. Quantitative criteria cannot be applied to distinguish free combinations from restricted collocations in phraseological approach. Even though statistical association measures such as t-score are possible to be used to determine how salient and significant a collocation is in a corpus, thresholds and values of those measures are determined subjectively (Lu, 2016). In the present study, phraseological approach is not taken into consideration.

The second approach is "frequency-based approach" (Sinclair, 1991) in which collocations are viewed as word combinations statistically tending to co-occur in spoken or written discourse. Collocations are approached the same way as in the phraseological approach and they may not necessarily have a restriction. For example, the word pair *make a cake* may be considered as a free combination in phraseological approach, whereas it may be a collocation in accordance with the guidelines described by the frequency-based approach.

Frequency based approach posits that the more frequently word combinations occur together in language, the more probable they are to be established in the mental lexicon and are possible to be considered as collocations (Cangır, et al., 2017). The advantage of frequency-based approach compared to phraseological approach seems to be quantitative criteria such as frequency measurement rather than intuitions with which phraseologists decide what is considered as a collocation and what is not. However, a major disadvantage of frequency-based approach is that it takes performance into account while ignoring competence (Howarth, 1998). Focusing on observable frequency data in a corpus without taking notice of semantics may unearth word pairs not considered as collocations by native speakers.

Taking only observable frequency data into consideration without noticing semantic aspects could mislead researchers if they aim to investigate why collocations exist in the first place. Frequency based approach is helpful in spotting collocations in language rather than explaining why there are collocations in language (Hoey, 2005). The existence of collocations according to Hoey is that statistical measures are not sufficient in explaining why there are collocations in language. Discontent with frequency-based definitions of collocations, he addresses psycholinguistic definitions (Vural, 2010). In a similar vein, Cangır, et al. (2017) say that collocations described by frequency-based approach have a tendency to be insufficient in terms of psycholinguistic explanation. The problem with the phraseological and frequency-based approaches is that neither of those gives an account of why collocations exist in spoken or written discourse. As Hoey (2005, p. 4) puts forward, the reason "why collocations should exist in the first place" is not adequately explained with frequent co-occurrence phenomenon. According to him, collocations should be acknowledged not only as textual but also a psycholinguistic phenomenon. The author suggests that the decision of which word to use following a certain word is determined by our experiences with those words. Thus, all our knowledge regarding a word including collocational knowledge is a product formed as a result of our encounters with that word. Since every human being has a unique experience with the language, it is quite inevitable that the language use of EFL learners sound non-native-like and unnatural to their readers or listeners. In other words, the priming of a particular word for an EFL learner may not be in harmony with that of a native speaker. This may indicate that much as EFL learners are able to produce grammatically perfect sentences, their performance is likely to be odd compared to native speaker standards.

Past research on psycholinguistic framework shows that there are a few studies looking into collocations and collocational competence by making use of priming theories (Durrant, 2008; Frenck-Mestre & Prince, 1997; Hodgson, 1991; McKoon & Ratcliff, 1992; Williams, 1996; Wolter & Gyllstad, 2011; Wolter & Yamashita, 2014).

Hodgson (1991) made use of a lexical decision task (LDT) in which subjects are displayed a word or non-word for them to make a decision in between, the methodology of which was described by Jiang (2012), to investigate priming in antonyms (e.g. *hatred-love*), synonyms (e.g. *company-business*), conceptual associates (e.g. *dove-peace*), phrasal associates (e.g. *foul-ball*), co-ordinates (e.g. *mist-rain*), and superordanites-subordanites

(e.g. *symbol-letter*). Unfortunately, the author does not provide any information as to how those prime-target pairs were constructed for his study, but he states that the pairs employed in the study were supposed to be unequivocal examples of the categories they belonged to. Regarding the participants, they were all native speakers of English. The results were that priming could be found in all types of prime-target pairs mentioned above.

Another early study in which LDT was employed to investigate priming between semantically related pairs was conducted by McKoon and Ratcliff (1992). The study aimed to find grounds for collocational priming. To this end, the authors made use of a small-scale corpus, compiled from the news items, and chose 40 target words from it. For each target word, there was a highly related free-association prime, a prime with a high t-score, and another prime with a low t-score (e.g. *baby: child, hospital, room*). There were also 309 filler words and 600 non-words in the study. The study included 52 participants responding to both the target and prime words in the LDT. The study revealed that the fastest response times were found within the highly related free-association prime, while the slowest response times occurred with the unrelated prime. Although the corpus used was questionable in terms of representativeness, it was tentatively suggested that statistical measures such as t-score calculated from larger corpora could predict priming effects.

Williams (1996) employed an LDT and pronunciation tasks in a series of experiments to measure priming within prime-target pairs composed of semantically similar sets (e.g. *suitcase-bag*), coordinates (e.g. *chair-stool*), collocates (e.g. *salt-pepper*), and associates (e.g. *hammer-nail*). The participants in the experiments were university learners. The findings revealed that the collocates rated to be highly familiar by the participants retained significant priming (*Experiment 1*). Unfortunately, Williams does not provide sufficient corpus and frequency data to draw conclusions as to the effects of co-occurrence on priming. In addition, the language backgrounds of the participants were not clearly provided by the author.

Another study carried out by Frenck-Mestre and Prince (1997 dealt with priming taking the second language acquisition into account. The authors employed a LDT to deal with the question how mental lexicon is constructed in the target language (*Experiment 1*). To serve the purposes of the study, antonyms (e.g. *dead-alive*), synonyms (e.g. *wide-broad*), and collocations (e.g. *cook-meal*) in particular were investigated as those pairs were considered to form the word meaning for a native speaker. The number of the participants taking part in the study was 60, and they were distributed into three different groups. Each group consisted of 20 participants who were native speakers of English, proficient non-native speakers, and non-proficient non-native speakers. The word pairs used were all frequently occurring ones, and they were presented in English in the LDT. There were 60 prime-target pairs evenly distributed into the groups of antonyms, synonyms, and collocations. The collocations employed in the study consisted of verb and noun pairs, and they were highly frequent in COBUILD Direct. The findings demonstrated that there was a restricted amount of collocational priming in non-native speakers

Another study handling collocational knowledge was conducted by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) in which the authors investigated the effect of native language on second language. The aimed was to find out whether congruent verb+noun collocations enabled faster recognition compared to incongruent verb+noun collocations. 33 of the collocations used were congruent, meaning that they had direct equivalents in the native language of the participants (e.g. *give an answer – ge ett svar*). There were also 33 incongruent collocations in the study. Finally, 33 unrelated verb+noun collocations were used to compare priming effect for the congruent and incongruent collocations. The participants

were native speakers of English. In addition, there were non-native speakers whose native language was Swedish. The results of the study demonstrated that not only the congruent but also the incongruent collocations were facilitated faster for the native speakers. There was a significant priming effect in the mental lexicon of the native speakers. As regards the non-native speakers, there was a significant priming effect for only the congruent verb+noun collocations. The conclusion drawn by the authors was that congruent collocations had processing advantages over incongruent ones.

Wolter and Yamashita (2014) investigated the potential influence of collocations found in Japanese on the representation of English collocations. The authors used an LDT to measure such effect and the items were formed taking the native language of the participants into consideration. It was found out that the native speakers processed both types of collocations faster than the non-native speakers. That is, Japanese EFL learners were not found to be processing collocations faster than native speakers, implying that collocations are not mentally represented in non-native speakers. Therefore, the conclusion drawn by the authors was that the lexicon in non-native speakers is not activated when incongruent collocations are being processed.

The description of studies above suggests that there is little research measuring to what extent verb+noun collocations are facilitated and represented in the mental representations of non-native speakers. Although Frenck-Mestre and Prince (1997) suggest that there is limited amount of priming in terms of verb+noun collocations among non-native speakers whose first language is French, it may be instrumental to see whether and to what extent verb+noun collocations are processed for Turkish learners. It is because Turkish verb+noun collocations are constituted differently from English and French. For instance, a verb+noun collocation like *make a call* is translated into French as *lancer un appel*, indicating that the word order is the same in both languages. However, the same collocation in Turkish is *görüşme yapmak*, in which the word order is in the opposite direction. Therefore, the study is instrumental in reinforcing what Frenck-Meste and Prince's study manifested by bringing another first language under the spotlight. Likewise, two similar studies conducted by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) and Wolter and Yamashita (2014) can be theoretically interesting when the potential yield of this study is taken into consideration. As far as those two studies suggested, incongruent verb+noun collocations, which are not found in the first language of the participants, appear to be partly primed in Swedish learners of English while incongruent verb+noun and adjective+noun collocations do not show such effect in Japanese learners of English. From this point of view, this study could contribute to the abovementioned studies with similar methodology and participants from a different L1 background.

In Turkish context, much research has been done with a focus on Turkish EFL learners by investigating their collocational knowledge. However, with the exception of Cangır et al. (2017) and Cangır (2018), none of those studies approach the issue from a psycholinguistic perspective. More specifically, there is not a single study investigating L2 collocations in L1 mental lexicon in the Turkish context. Regarding that, the two psycholinguistic studies mentioned above were not concerned with Turkish EFL learners. Therefore, taking the paucity of psycholinguistic research regarding English collocational knowledge of Turkish EFL learners into consideration, it is worth investigating whether collocations hold psychological reality for Turkish learners of English, and the influence of Turkish as L1 on L2 English mental lexicon.

The present study particularly addresses the questions listed below to investigate collocational knowledge of tertiary level Turkish EFL learners by examining their mental lexicon within a psycholinguistic framework.

1- Does collocational priming exist for academic verb-noun collocations in Turkish EFL learners?

2- To what extent does collocational (and word level) frequency play a role in collocational priming process, if any?

Methodology

In this study, a lexical decision task (LDT) was used to measure collocational priming. The task was employed in an experimental design to investigate whether verb-noun collocations are processed as single units in the mental representations of Turkish EFL learners. An LDT is a typical task where participants are required to categorize visual stimuli as words or non-words (Jiang, 2012). In LDTs, participants are shown a single word, which is the prime word (the first collocate in a collocation), via a computer screen (See Figure 1). At this stage, they are not required to show any overt reaction. Following the prime word, participants are shown an item which may be a real word or a non-word. The second item is called the target word (the second collocate in a collocation). Here, participants are required to classify the target as a word or a non-word. Eventually, if the target words belonging to the target words of collocations are reacted in significantly shorter time compared to the target words of non-collocations, it is concluded that priming exists between the word pairs. Collocations are primed for those who take part in the LDT when the reaction times in response to the target words of collocations are significantly faster than reaction times belonging to the target words of non-collocations. To illustrate, the first collocation in the study was *draw attention*. During the LDT, the participants were first shown the prime word *draw* for a very brief amount of time. Then, they were shown the target word *attention,* which they were supposed to classify as a word or a non-word in English by pressing the right and left control buttons on the keyboard. The right control button meant it was a word, whereas left control button meant it was a non-word. The same process took place for the non-collocation, which was *cause attention*. The participants were required to classify the target as a word or a non-word after having been shown the prime. In this fashion, the participants reacted to all the target words belonging to the collocations, non-collocations, fillers, and non-words by opting whether they are words or non-words in English. The software DMDX (Forster & Forster, 2003) used for the LDT recorded all the data regarding the reaction times given to the target words in each pair.

Table 1. A Sample of Prime and Target Words and Their Reaction Times

Prime Word	Target Word	Reaction Time
Shown for 67 milliseconds participants do not show any overt reaction	shown for 83 milliseconds participants react as word or non-word	how long it takes to make a decision
draw	ATTENTION (collocation)	X milliseconds
cause	ATTENTION (non-collocation)	Y milliseconds
knit	EMPHASIS (filler)	Z milliseconds
obey	STROUCHE (non-word)	T milliseconds

If there is a significant difference between X and Y, collocations are acknowledged to be primed for the participants.

To investigate collocational priming in terms of academic verb-noun collocations, the LDT in the study included collocations, non-collocations, fillers, and non-words. More

precisely, each verb-noun collocation in the study (e.g. draw attention) was accompanied with a non-collocation (e.g. cause attention), a filler (e.g. knit emphasis), and a non-word (e.g. obey strouche) (see Table 1). There were significant differences in terms of reaction times between the collocates and non-collocates, while reaction times in response to the fillers and non-words were ignored. The software DMDX was put into service to carry out the LDT. Before starting the LDT, the participants were thoroughly informed in preparation for the task, however, they were not briefed regarding the relationship between the word pairs to prevent them from using strategies. It has been asserted that automatic priming is more satisfactory in terms of reflecting mental lexicon compared to strategic priming (Frenck-Mestre & Prince, 1997; Lucas, 2000). Therefore, the participants were not aware of what relationship the word pairs exactly entertained during the task.

A set of software codes used in the present study aimed to trigger DMDX to run and present stimuli for the participants. During the task, the participants were required to classify the target words in the collocations (N=34), non-collocations (N=34), fillers (N=34), and non-words (N=34) as words or non-words via DMDX. In other words, the participants decided whether the target word in each pair was a word or non-word in milliseconds. Two breaks were available for the participants to ease their concentration on the task and prevent them getting tired. All the items were presented in a random order for each participant to avoid repetition effects which may have a negative influence on the priming process (Wolter & Yamashita, 2014). As can be seen in Table 1, after entering their name and completing the practice session, the participants were first shown an asterisk (*) for 250 milliseconds. After that, they were shown a mask (##########) for 500 milliseconds. Finally, they were shown the prime and target words of all the items in a randomized fashion for 67 and 83 milliseconds, respectively. The asterisk and mask were utilized to get the participants to focus on the task. The fact that the fixations points were shown for 250 milliseconds in this study was built on the study conducted by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011). The fixation points in their priming experiments were shown for 250 milliseconds with non-native speakers. Thus, it was considered that such duration could also work well with the non-native participants in this study. As to the length of masks, it is widely accepted that the number of hash marks should be equal to the longest word in LDT experiments. For instance, the longest word used in the present study included 10 letters, so the same quantity of hash marks was employed in the task. Regarding the use of masks, Forster and Davis (1984) assert that masks used in priming experiments prevent participants from using strategies. In other words, masks ensure that participants process prime words in LDTs in a subconscious fashion. As stated above, automatic priming has been acknowledged to be more satisfactory in terms of measuring priming. Therefore, it was vital in the study that the participants would not develop strategies while processing the prime words. As far as the duration of the masks in the study is concerned, 500 milliseconds were considered to be appropriate as masks are suggested to be shown much longer than prime words. In addition, Frenck-Mestre and Prince (1997) who also conducted priming experiments with non-native speakers opted to use masks shown for 500 milliseconds in their study. The stimulus onset asynchrony (SOA) was the main consideration in deciding on the duration of the prime words. SOA has been described as the duration "between the initial presentation of prime words and the presentation of target words" (Wolter & Gyllstad, 2011, p. 433). In this sense, Frenck-Mestre and Prince (1997) suggest that SOA must be as many as 150 milliseconds to accurately measure priming. Bearing this consideration in mind, the prime words in the study were opted to be presented for 67 milliseconds. It is because a long display such as 100 milliseconds risks making the prime words apparent for the participants, in such a way that they would develop strategies. A shorter display such as 25 milliseconds, however, prevent the

participants to process the prime words (Jiang, 2012). Therefore, in the light of the suggestions by Jiang as well as Frenck-Mestre and Prince, who presented the prime words for 67 milliseconds in their study, this study allowed the prime words to be shown for 67 milliseconds. Finally, since SOA, which is the duration between the onset of primes and onset of targets, was opted to be shown for 150 milliseconds to obtain a priming effect, the target words were displayed for 83 milliseconds in this study. As a result, the duration of the prime words (67 milliseconds) and the target words (83 milliseconds) constituted a 150-millisecond of SOA.

Table 2. A Sample of the DMDX Screen Displayed for Each Participant

The Fixation Point (*) 250 milliseconds	Masking (##########) 500 milliseconds	Prime Words 67 milliseconds	Target Words 83 milliseconds	Type of Items
*	##########	draw	ATTENTION	Collocation
*	##########	cause	ATTENTION	Non-Collocation
*	##########	knit	EMPHASIS	Filler
*	##########	obey	STROUCHE	Non-word

Participant Characteristics

The participants were 71 Turkish learners of English who study English Language and Literature (ELL) in a mid-size university in the eastern part of Turkey. All the participants took a placement test designed by Cambridge University Press (2010). Only those learners who were at B1 and B2 language proficiency levels as outlined Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) took part in the study (Council of Europe, 2001). None of the participants had been to an English- speaking country before. All the participants took an end of experiment questionnaire after the LDT, which included items addressing their physical states (e.g. vision, dexterity, short term memory) as well as the experiment itself. Those who were eligible to take part in the study took a consent form indicating that they were volunteers to contribute to the study.

Item Development

The collocations employed in the LDT were above 2.0 t-score and 3.0 MI score to ensure that the items have been encountered by the participants before. With respect to that, Fernández and Schmitt (2015) assert that t-score and MI score are among the widely used frequency measurements to identify collocations. From this point of view, t-score reveals frequently used collocations. MI score, on the other hand, does not necessarily identify highly frequent collocations, but it brings out strongly linked collocations.

To find out whether collocations are primed in Turkish EFL learners, the verb-noun collocations in Pearson International Corpus of Academic English (PICAE) described by Ackermann and Chen (2013) were utilized. Regarding that, verb-noun collocations were under the scope as they are the most frequent and important type of collocations and pose great difficulty for learners (Nesselhauf, 2005). They are also problematic considering Turkish EFL learners (Bıçkı, 2012).

To determine the items to be used in the LDT, only those collocations which enjoy a minimum 2.0 t-score and 3.0 MI score were chosen. Then, cognates (e.g. role, goal, method), also found in the native language of the participants, were eliminated from the list. The assumption behind the redundancy of the cognates was that they are considered to attain a stronger priming effect than non-cognates (De Groot & Nas, 1991). Since it was not the aim of the present study to investigate priming effect in cognates, they were not exploited in the study. Afterwards, recurrent elements in either of the collocates were also left out. For example, elements such as "achieve, become", and "consider" take place more than once in the list, so only one sample from those recurrent elements were included in the LDT. Then, taking the English proficiency levels of the participants into consideration, collocations under B1 and above B2 levels were also excluded from the list. The decision regarding the level of the collocations was made in accordance with the English Vocabulary Profile (2012) which frames the words learners know at each level of CEFR. Finally, there were 34 collocations to be used in the LDT. Each collocation was assigned with a non-collocation, a filler, and a non-word for the experiment (see Table 1).

Data Analysis

The questionnaire

The end of experiment questionnaire dealing with the vision, dexterity, and short-term memory of the participants revealed that all of the participants except two of them had not experienced any problems regarding their short-term memory in their lives. Regarding that, holding a sound short term memory is crucial in priming experiments as prime words are shown for a very brief amount of time for participants, and problematic short-term memory may have a negative impact on the priming process (Cangır, 2018). The two participants who stated that they had experienced short term memory problems were asked to complete a simple digit span test on a separate session. Mathy and Feldman (2012), working short term memory is acknowledged to be capable of recalling between four and seven items. During the digit span test, therefore, the two participants were asked if they could recall six digits they were shown. Ensuring that the participants were able to retain the six digits from their short- term memory on the test, it was concluded that their performance on the LDT was worth analysing.

As far as the vision of the participants is concerned, none of the participants except four of them stated problems regarding their eyesight. Among those four participants, only the performance of one participant was not taken into account during the analysis as she had stated that she was not able to see the prime and target words during the LDT. Table 3 shows all the relevant information regarding the participants' biographical information.

Table 3. The Participants' Biographical Information

Participants	Gender	Dexterity	Vision	Short-term Memory
Turkish EFL Learners (N=71)	58 Female 13 Male	63 Right-handed 4 Left-handed 4 Both-handed	1 had problems with their eyesight	None had problems with their short-term memory

The LDT

The number of the participants who were involved in the LDT was 71, but one of the participants with eyesight problems who claimed that he/she had not detected the target words was considered to be ineligible for the analysis. Therefore, the performance of 70 participants in the LDT was scrutinized for the analysis of the study. Furthermore, only the reaction times between 200 and 2500 milliseconds were taken into account for the analysis, and the erroneous reactions were ignored. That is to say, the reaction times slower than 2500 milliseconds and faster than 200 milliseconds were not found worthy of analysis in accordance with the guidelines of priming research suggested by Jiang (2012).

Results

Table 3 shows the results of the LDT in which mean reaction times in response to the target words of the collocations and non-collocations are presented. In addition, Table 4 displays how long it took the participants to react to the target words in collocations and non-collocations in each academic verb-noun collocation pair in terms of mean reaction times.

Table 4. Descriptive Findings of the LDT

Descriptives	Col. Status	Reaction Times
Missing	Non-coll.	0
	Coll.	0
Mean	Non-coll.	674
	Coll.	671
Standard Deviation	Non-coll.	275
	Coll.	277
Minimum	Non-coll.	223
	Coll.	203
Maximum	Non-coll.	1991
	Coll.	2142

Based on the mean reaction times shown in Table 4, it is evident that the reaction times in terms of the collocates and non-collocates are at close quarters. In fact, as can be seen in Table 5 below, the independent sample t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between the reaction times of the collocates and non-collocates in this study (p=0.744>0.05). In other words, the prime words did not facilitate a priming effect for the targets in both collocations and non-collocations, indicating that academic verb-noun collocations were not mentally represented in the learners' mental lexicon. Such finding

conforms to the researchers' assumption at the outset, in which it is postulated that academic verb-noun collocations may not be primed in tertiary level Turkish EFL learners.

Table 5. Independent Samples T-Test Results

Independent Samples T-Test							
		statistic	df	p	Mean difference	SE difference	Cohen's d
RT	Student's t	0.326	4584	0.744	2.66	8.15	0.00964

Mixed Effects Modelling Analysis Regarding Frequency and Proficiency

Having established that academic verb-noun collocations do not constitute a priming effect in Turkish EFL learners' mental lexicon (see Table 4), a mixed effects modelling analysis was implemented to answer the second research question. Mixed effects modelling analysis, providing robust analysis results in connection with second language acquisition data (Cunnings, 2012), was employed to determine what role the frequency of the academic verb-noun collocations play in the process.

The results of the mixed effects modelling demonstrated that proficiency (p=0.646>0.05), t-score (p=0.212>0.05), MI score (p=0.347>0.05), and target word frequency (p=0.416>0.05) did not exhibit a significant effect on the dependent variable. However, the results showed that prime word frequency (p<0.001) had a significant effect. Among the independent variables shown in Table 6 only the prime word frequency appeared to have a significant effect on the reaction times to the collocates and non-collocates.

Table 6. Fixed Effects Parameters Estimates

			95% Confidence Interval				
Effect	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	df	t	p
(Intercept)	671.3367	19.7013	632.7228	709.951	86.4	34.076	< .001
B2 - B1	-16.9488	36.7361	-88.9502	55.053	67.8	-0.461	0.646
t-score	0.0828	0.0656	-0.0459	0.211	62.6	1.261	0.212
MI_score	-1.0819	1.1409	-3.3180	1.154	62.9	-0.948	0.347
Prime Word Freq.	0.7263	0.2022	0.3299	1.123	62.9	3.591	< .001
Target Word Freq.	-0.6214	0.7590	-2.1089	0.866	62.7	-0.819	0.416

Discussion

The results of the LDT demonstrated that Turkish EFL learners did not react to the target words in the collocations significantly faster than the target words in the non-collocations. It was revealed that academic verb-noun collocations do not hold a significant priming effect for tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. To the researchers' knowledge, no research has been done to suggest how and to what extent collocations are primed for Turkish EFL learners. More precisely, the studies investigating English collocational knowledge of Turkish learners have failed to take the psychological reality of collocations into account. However, Cangır et al. (2017) and Cangır (2018), who approached the issue from a slightly different angle, focused on how Turkish collocations are mentally represented for Turkish speakers and Turkish-English bilinguals. The former study investigated collocational priming in Turkish speakers suggesting that Turkish adjective-noun and verb-noun collocations are primed in the mental lexicon of Turkish speakers. Similarly, the latter study demonstrated that collocational priming occurs in the mental lexicon of bilinguals. Such findings when compared to the findings of the study suggest that the learners fail to process academic verb-noun collocations in their mental lexicon. Therefore, it may be argued that they have not acquired formulaic language and collocational knowledge to conform to the native-like standards in their language use and meet the expectations of the academic world. The researchers' hypothesis at the outset of the present study claiming that the reasons behind ill-formed and non-native-like language use of the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners could be attributed to the fact that academic verb-noun collocations are not mentally represented and primed as a single unit in their mental lexicon.

Given that the present study uncovered the psychological reason behind unnatural language use of Turkish EFL learners, lack of priming in their mental lexicon may be the outcome of their prior English instruction. The participants who took part in the study may not have been introduced to the formulaic nature of language which has been long pointed out by eminent scholars (Ellis, 2003; Kjellmer, 1991; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Wray, 2002). Accordingly, in a study carried out by Durrant and Schmitt (2009), where native speakers were compared to non-native speakers in terms of their use of collocations, the authors reported that non-native speakers' lack of collocational knowledge could be pinned down to the suggestion implying that learners may be insufficiently exposed to the English language. In a similar vein, Wolter and Gyllstad (2013) also state that second language learners may not be as capable as native speakers in terms of processing frequently occurring collocations in language. This suggests that much as learners frequently seem to use formulaic language and collocations in their language production, and notwithstanding being grammatically acceptable, they do not conform to the native-like standards. As such, taking the findings of the study and relevant literature into account, it can be asserted that EFL learners fail to acquire language input they are exposed to in their classes, and as a result, they produce language in an unnatural and non-native-like fashion.

The mother tongue of the learners may have had an impact on the priming process. Regarding the influence of the first language on collocational priming, the study conducted by Wolter and Yamashita (2014), in which an LDT was conducted with a group of native speakers and two groups of non-native speakers, revealed that incongruent collocations not found in the mother tongue of the learners did not yield significant priming effects in both groups of non-native speakers. In a similar vein with the study, the collocations in their study did not have a significant priming effect in the mental lexicon of the learners. Conversely, in another study conducted by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011), the findings from the LDT demonstrated collocational priming exists in Swedish learners of English. That is,

the collocations in the study had a significant priming effect in the mental lexicon of the Swedish learners. Taking those inconsistent results of two studies into account, it appears the first language may have an influential role in the process. Specifically, the lack of priming effects in the study conducted by Wolter and Yamashita and in the study could be stemming from the first languages of the participants in both studies. Both mother tongues, Japanese and Turkish, are obviously different languages from English in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and word order, while Swedish, which was the mother tongue of the participants in Wolter and Gyllstad's study, belongs to the same language family as English. Moreover, Swedish learners and native speakers of English geographically and historically are related to one another, whereas Turkish and Japanese learners do not have as many opportunities as Swedish learners to be exposed to the English language. As a result, there appears strong reason to suggest that the influence of mother tongue of the learners in the present study resulted in lack of collocational priming.

The potential effects of the first language as described above can be approached from a different angle as well. It may be argued that the lack of priming effects in the learners' mental lexicon as well as the significant single word frequency in the process could also be attributed to the fact that the word order of the participants' first language and that of English are different. In other words, verb-noun collocations are constituted in a distinct manner in Turkish and English. For instance, the verb-noun collocation *görüşme yapmak* in Turkish is directly translated into English as *call make,* which is unacceptable in the English language. Namely, verb-noun collocations are echoed as noun-verb collocations in Turkish, in a fashion where nouns are followed by verbs. Based on such discrepancy between the two languages, the learners in the study may unsurprisingly have focused on the single elements of the collocations used in the study rather than processing them as a whole unit in their mental lexicon. As a result, the reason why a significant effect of collocational frequency was not observed could be the result of such different word orders in both languages.

The Role of Frequency

The fact that collocational frequency did not have a significant priming effect for the participants in the study could be attributed to Sinclair's (1991) distinction as to how language works, termed as the idiom principle and the open-choice principle. He suggests that language is predominantly composed of multi-word units rather than individual items claiming that "a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices." (ibid., p. 110). What he refers to is the idiom principle is that language users enjoy readily accessible elements at their disposal and retrieve them from their memory when the need arises. In fact, the idiom principle restrains free choice of linguistic items which is what makes language use natural. On the other hand, according to the author, the open-choice principle "is a way of seeing language text as the result of a very large number of complex choices." (ibid., p. 109). Bearing this in mind, the author suggests that language is composed of slots to be filled with any grammatically acceptable linguistic item. While any grammatically acceptable linguistic item to be used for a concept or idea can be applied in the open-choice principle, naturalness appears to be ignored. Therefore, the open-choice principle enables language users to make an infinite number of choices during language processing, resulting in unnatural language use even though it is accurate as far as language grammar is concerned. As a result, based on Sinclair's language framework and the findings of the present study, it can be suggested that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners do not apply the idiom principle in their language processing. More precisely, the learners appear to process language relying on the open-choice principle.

Such influence of single word frequency indicates that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners may ignore the holistic nature of academic verb-noun collocations. Bearing this in mind, the results of the study are also in line with Wray's (2002) postulations in that non-native speakers rely on individual elements in collocations contrary to native speakers who focus on collocations as single units. The possible implication behind such consistency between the study and Wray's arguments can be addressed to the suggestion that native speakers and non-native speakers differ in processing collocations. As Kjellmer (1991) and Wray (2002) report, learners do not recognize the most natural selection of collocations compared to native speakers in a given situation. Non-native speakers focus on individual words while processing the language every time they attempt to express their ideas. On the contrary, native speakers naturally retrieve the most formulaic expression in similar situations. As a result, linguistic production of learners turns out to be unnatural and non-native-like since "the classroom learner homes in on the individual words, and throws away all the really important information, namely, what they occurred with" (Wray, 2002, p. 206). From this point of view, since the learners in this study are solely influenced by single word frequency rather than collocational frequency, it can be argued that EFL learners may be less capable of processing frequently occurring collocations than native speakers. As mentioned earlier, since they appear to be less holistic compared to native speakers, they attempt to generate linguistic items from scratch rather than retrieving them from their mental lexicon as a whole unit. Correspondingly, their language production turns out to be non-standard in terms of native speaker norms due to the reliance on individual words.

Suggestions for Practice

The initial implication drawn from the present study is that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners may not have been introduced to the formulaic and holistic nature of collocations. As a result, their language production becomes unnatural and non-native-like. Therefore, it may be argued that they should be taught academic verb-noun collocations explicitly in EFL classrooms. As far as unnatural language use is concerned, Hoey (2005) states that when priming of language users do not match their potential readers and listeners, the outcome will be definitely unnatural. The author also claims that textbooks could yield unnatural priming in the mental lexicon. Linguistic experience encountered in textbooks or language input from the outside world can impair, or improve for that matter, priming phenomenon. Taking this into account, teaching academic verb-noun collocations explicitly could improve learners' priming in such a way that native speakers would find natural, which could hamper the non-native-like language use of the learners.

The study also demonstrated that the learners apply the open-choice principle when they process the language. Considering the distinction in-between, Turkish EFL learners could be argued to ignore the idiom principle model in their language use. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that learners should be conditioned to take note of the idiom principle in their approach to how language works in mind. Being aware of the holistic nature of the language and the idiom principle, learners can be rather meticulous in their attempts to speak or write, the outcome of which may be natural and native-like language use. As far as raising learners' awareness in terms of collocations and how they are primed in native speakers is concerned, Yamashita and Jiang (2010) report that when non-native EFL teachers who have the same first language as their learners foresee challenging nature of collocations, they can accordingly tune in their instruction, and help learners pay attention to collocational differences between L1 and L2.

Having established that Turkish EFL learners should be introduced to the holistic nature of the language and how language works in mind as the idiom principle postulates, it can

also be argued that teaching collocations with a large amount of exposure may not suffice to make learners acquire them unlike what Schmitt (2008) argues. This study demonstrated that the learners were not significantly affected by the frequency of collocations. Rather, the frequency of the prime word had a significant influence on them. Such significant effect of single word frequency implies that Turkish EFL learners remain analytic towards collocations when they encounter them. Therefore, they break up collocations rather than retrieving them as a whole from their memory. In this sense, since the learners appear to be analytic rather than holistic in their approach to the language, they may not cognitively and innately differentiate which words go together in their linguistic production. As a result, teaching collocations implicitly with extensive exposure may not be enough for the learners. Rather, teaching them explicitly and making learners gain awareness as regards the formulaic nature of collocations may yield native-like language since such knowledge was not readily found in their mental lexicon as far as the study attempted to put forward.

Conclusion

The study bringing the potential role of frequency under the spotlight investigated whether academic verb-noun collocations are primed in tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. As far as priming of collocations is concerned, it is defined as a psycholinguistic association between constituent parts of collocations rather than a manifestation of mere textual co-occurrence of words (Hoey, 2005). Based on this description of collocations, Hoey suggests that they should be defined in psycholinguistic terms since words do not haphazardly occur together in texts. That is, each word in language is primed to be used with certain other words depending on the context, which is spelled out as collocational priming. From this point of view, the choice of a word following another word is in the mental lexicon of native speakers as they happen to be loaded with such knowledge through linguistic encounters in their unique language experiences. In this sense, collocational priming ensures natural language use (ibid). Taking collocational priming into consideration, it was demonstrated in the study that Turkish EFL learners sound unnatural and non-native-like in their language production as academic verb-noun collocations were not found to be primed as a single unit in their mental lexicon.

Given the fact that priming experiments, namely LDTs are time-consuming and expensive to conduct, the study is limited to the findings of a single lexical decision task. Therefore, the findings of the study are not generalizable to all EFL learners, and the findings of this study are advised to be approached tentatively. As stated at the outset, this study was solely concerned with academic verb-noun collocations as they have been argued to be problematic and challenging for EFL learners in the relevant literature (Bıçkı, 2012; Nesselhauf, 2005), which was assumed to be the reason behind the learner's unnatural and non-native-like language use.

It is worth underlining the following points for further studies to conscientiously approach the matter at hand here. First of all, the role of the first language stood out as one of the key findings of the study. Specifically, contrary to the study carried out by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011), it was unearthed that verb-noun collocations did not hold a significant priming effect in the mental lexicon of the EFL learners in this study. In this sense, further research should be done including learners from varying first language backgrounds to reach sound conclusions. It has been discussed above that while the collocations in Wolter and Gyllstad's study had a significant effect on Swedish learners of English, they did not exhibit such effect in Japanese learners of English in Wolter and Yamashita (2014). This may stem from the fact that English and Swedish belong to the same language family while Japanese is both geographically and orthographically distant to English. Likewise, Turkish is different from English in terms of word order, vocabulary, grammar, etc.,

implying that the first language of the learners may have played a crucial role in the absence of priming in their mental representations. Therefore, future studies could include learners not only with syntactically and semantically similar first languages but also those speakers whose languages are geographically distant from English speaking countries to make further arguments on the issue. Furthermore, other collocation alternatives than verb-noun pairs such as adjective-noun and noun-verb pairs as categorized by Benson et al. (2009) can be taken into account.

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Research Article

Is there a Recognition of World Englishes and ELF in International Tests of English?

Ali Karakaş *

* Assoc. Prof. Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9790-8562, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, Department of English Language Teaching, akarakas@mehmetakif.edu.tr

Introduction

Nowadays, the dispersion of English and its global impacts are exceptional and there has been a remarkable shift in the roles of English from one kind of English to different Englishes (Brutt-Griffler 2002). The ever-growing diversity of English and speakers of English have recently led many language researchers to consider the implications of such a wide diffusion for language teaching pedagogy (Jenkins 2007, 2009; Leung 2005; McKay 2003). More specifically, as English has begun to be used by ethnolinguistically different people in multilingual and multicultural contexts, the question is about whether the international tests of English have adjusted their assessment methods and criteria in ways that reflect the diverse uses of English in the contemporary situation.

Recently, the number of those taking international English tests has increased dramatically. The majority of the test-takers are known to be non-native English speakers (NNESs) largely located in non-English dominant contexts. Due to the pressing and ever-increasing necessity of English proficiency for survival in the global environments of various domains, including primarily education, business, and service, thousands of people sit for standardized international tests of English administered by the international examination boards, such as TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC and PTE. The number of NNES students has one of the highest rates among the test takers as they are obliged to prove their English proficiency for admission to institutions not only in Anglophone countries but also in non-Anglophone countries, with scores taken from the recognized examination boards. This sociolinguistic position of English as the dominant language of the globe and the current profile of English users, the majority of whom are NNESs from the non-Anglophone countries (Kachru, 1986), is rather important to bear in mind while teaching English as well as assessing students' English proficiency.

As stated by Arik and Arik (2014), "[t]he legitimacy of using standardized tests, which take Inner Circle varieties of English as the norm for local institutions, has been highly criticized in recent years" (p. 8). Some scholars, such as Lowenberg (1993), raised their concerns with respect to the assumption "that the criteria for measuring proficiency in English round the world should be candidates' use of particular features of English which are used and accepted as norms by highly educated native speakers of English" (1993, p. 95). Opposing this assumption, Jenkins (2014) further argued that the standardized international tests of English assess students' English "proficiency in native British or American English" which is at odds with institutions' bold claim to being international with an alleged welcoming attitude towards the diversity of incoming students whose uses of English is rather different (p. 12). Another point of criticism centres on the argument that "the scores of large-scale standardized language tests such as IELTS and TOEFL are not necessarily reliable and sensitive predictors of future academic performance" (Leung, Lewkowicz & Jenkins, 2016, p. 57).

From a fairness and justice perspective, some researchers, such as Davies, Hamp-Lyons and Kemp (2003), perceive such tests to be 'discriminatory' as students are forced into using English in conformity with particular native English norms to avoid being penalized for likely divergent uses. That is, the state of whether these tests are good enough to measure language proficiency in accordance with real-world English use in diverse

contexts for various purposes has hotly been debated in scholarly circles. For that particular reason, this paper analyses various sources of the most popular standardized international English tests (e.g. the websites and language documents) regarding the Englishes overtly or covertly imposed on test-takers in the evaluation process.

Literature review

Global Englishes: World Englishes and ELF

Global Englishes has created a response to its previous points of reference, i.e. conventional SLA and EFL in conjunction with their inalienably tricky and obsolete ideas relating to language, e.g. native speaker, fossilization, interlanguage and language learners, who are, for example, labelled as eternal learners and failed native speakers (e.g., Jenkins, 2006; Mauranen, 2006). The approach to NNESs from a deficit perspective and the outdated understanding of English have severely been problematized by the Global Englishes scholars, who have not remained unresponsive to the English language's evolution through time and the pedagogical and theoretical ramifications of this evolution for classroom practices. In a broad sense, the Global Englishes paradigm sets out to address "linguistic and sociocultural dimensions of global uses and users of English (Global Englishes)" (Centre for Global Englishes, 2018, para. 1), challenging "the notions of geographic linguistic boundaries and distinct language varieties, and instead emphasizes the pluricentricity and fluidity of English" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xiv).

The notion of Global Englishes is intended as a superordinate concept, including the concepts of World Englishes (WE) and ELF. Researchers seem to have agreement on this conceptualization, for they see WE and ELF as an integral part of it (e.g., Jenkins, 2011; Jenkins et al., 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Widdowson, 2015). The former is concerned with "the identification and codification of national varieties of English" whereas the latter one, i.e. ELF, "examines English use within and across such borders, as well as focusing on the global consequences of English's use as a world language" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xii). Widdowson (2015) describes these two research fields as follows:

> WE clearly follows the sociolinguistic tradition of variety description with a primary concern for the relationship between language and *community*, the study of ELF is essentially an enquiry into the relationship between language and *communication*, how linguistic resources are variably used to achieve meaning (p. 363, italics in original).

Although these two research fields seem to be competing with one another at a first glance, they are not, because they deal with different aspects of the pluricentricity in English. As is also evident from the above quote and prior descriptions, they do have similarities and differences. To start with similarities, Galloway and Rose (2015) elucidated that both WE and ELF

• take a plurithic view of English, taking into account its wide spread across the world;

• primarily deal with non-native ways of doing English, with a special interest in the impact of language contact;

• liberate English from the ownership of NESs and their corresponding norms, supporting the global ownership of it by its all users;

• offer pedagogical and ideological implications for English language teaching.

The paradigm of WE is primarily concerned with the codification of national varieties that particularly fall into the Outer circle in Kachru's (1986, 1992) concentric circles of dispersal of the English language, a framework consisting of three-layer circles (i.e. the Inner, the Outer and the Expanding Circles). In this division, those countries, such as the UK, the USA, Canada, where English is spoken as a mother tongue constitute the Inner circle; the ones (e.g. India) where English serves as an L2 (second language) for intranational communication objectives constitute the Outer Circle countries. The Expanding circle countries are the ones, such as Thailand and Turkey, where English has no official status apart from being taught and learned as a school subject and used for international communication.

In contrast to WE, ELF addresses the use of English across these three circles with a special interest in English use/users in the Expanding Circle but does not make any attempts for codification, as its main emphasis is on "linguistic accommodation where language is appropriated by speakers in response to situational demands" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xii). That is, as Ishikawa (2016) aptly put, "ELF theories do not and cannot link legitimacy to geography", because "by definition, ELF transcends geographical boundaries" (p. 7). In brief, ELF deals with language use in situ where users can negotiate and change linguistic norms in response to changing circumstances and communicative needs of the speakers from different circles of English.

As WE deals with codification, it determines its own criteria for correctness by trying to determine stable forms and codes of any given WE variety, which will accordingly replace the forms and codes assumed to be 'correct' in standard native English. However, the notion of correctness is not a paramount concern in ELF communication in which language use is dynamic and fluid. This is why, as suggested by Jenkins et al. (2011), ELF "prioritizes successful communication over narrow notions of 'correctness' " (p. 284). For successful communication, ELF endorses the use of various intercultural communication strategies like accommodation by changing "their speech patterns to make themselves more understandable to their interlocutors" (Cogo, 2012, p. 99).

Following the discussion of the similarities and differences between the research fields of WE and ELF, one can infer that the following characteristics outline the Global Englishes paradigm:

• Most speakers of English are NNESs and they are not seen as 'eternal learners' or 'failed native speakers', but, rather, as 'successful communicators/users' in their own rights;

• Linguistic diversity and divergent language use are not considered a problem-causing element in communication;

• No particular emphasis is put on NESs as the target model for language use; the main emphasis is placed on gaining the skills of successful intercultural communicators;

• A global ownership of English is favoured over the NES ownership of English (Jenkins, 2011; Jenkins et al., 2011Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Czarnecki, 2014; Galloway & Rose, 2015).

These features of the Global Englishes necessitate instructional changes in ELT pedagogy since the current pedagogy is far from teaching and assessing English in line with these features. ELF users should be evaluated using tests with ELF awareness. With regards to assessment, it is assumed that typical standardized tests usually base their measurement criteria on monolingual English features, including phonological and syntactic forms. In the words of Davies et al. (2003), such standard tests adopt "[a]n International English (IE) view [which] insists that the only acceptable norms are those of native English speakers (NES)" (p. 571).

Taking issue with the notion of competence in assessment, Ma (2009) and Hymes (1972) point out that linguistic competence covers not only the knowledge of lexicogrammar and language awareness but also social uses. Therefore, English proficiency tests for ELF users should measure how communication in English is carried out in different communication situations. Basically, many scholars coherently agree that English learning evaluation for ELF users should measure strategic competence, i.e., the use of ELF in international settings and the accommodation skills (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Similarly, Kenkel and Tucker (1989) touched on the issue of 'errors' and suggested that what is regarded as "errors' in their [test-takers'] work should more accurately be called deviations from the native speaker norm[s]", especially if such deviations are habitually observed in their linguistic acts (as cited in Davies et al., 2003, p. 574).

Many ideas and reconceptualized measurement solutions have been proposed in response to the addressed problems. For example, Hu's (2012) input is to decide what linguistic norms are to be tested. The intended application and social preferences should guide the choice of an English variety. This input seems valid. While NESs could be the intended audience in some cases, there are also occasions where language users are engaged in conversations with interlocutors using other Anglophone and non-Anglophone English varieties. Therefore, a test recognizing both ELF and WE should comprise indicators for intercultural strategic competence.

Likewise, Canagarajah (2007) suggests that a test should measure one's ability to interpret the behaviours and expectations of other English users with diverse backgrounds and heterogeneous linguistic norms. Formal grammatical competence should no longer be the priority of tests. Instead, they should measure a language user through their "strategies of negotiation, situated performance, communicative repertoire and language awareness" (p. 936). A major ELF scholar, Jenkins' (2007) test priority is laid on accommodation skills. Test takers should not be penalized for their perceived mistakes that are proven common and intelligible among speakers using English as an additional language. Following Jenkins' (2007) argument, Khan (2009, p. 203) supports the idea that an English language evaluation should be customized to harmonize with international communication environments, global communities and people of diverse linguistic backgrounds.

Questioning the traditional view of communicative competence, Widdowson (2012) suggests that it should preferably be about language learning strategies than the quantity of

knowledge. He further adds that language learners tend to formulate personal language versions out of their classrooms and, later, become ELF users who use these new adaptations in real-life situations (Widdowson, 2012). Widdowson (2012) further stresses the importance of ELF studies as they help demonstrate how the language is employed in practices. Similarly, McNamara (2012) urges educators to redefine learning achievements and questions whether native English-speaker norms are still valid and relevant in ELF practices in respect of assessment.

Lastly, Harding (2012) proposes some measurement alternatives for English learning to replace the indicators for English language competence. Instead of determining how close one can demonstrate native-like English performance, the following competencies should be the focus of attention: (1) tolerance and awareness of various Englishes: discourse styles, syntactic forms and, accents; (2) negotiation of meaning; (3) use of phonology to achieve mutual understanding in intercultural communications; (4) awareness of pragmatics for intercultural suitability, e.g., politeness; (5) awareness of target listeners/hearers and prioritizing effective communication and; (6) strategic competence, i.e., awareness and approaches to overcome communication breakdowns.

Realistically, the process of change could be time-consuming before the paradigm shift becomes feasible since the current WE- and ELF-based English learning measurements are still insufficient. According to Matsuda (2012), most teachers are not prepared to deal with any existing Englishes in the world. Therefore, many students depend on limited resources to learn about English diversity. The problem is that most of the resources supposedly used worldwide are manufactured by only some American and British publishing businesses (Dewey, 2015; Jenkins, 2007; McKay, 2002; Methitham, 2009). As seen in several English learning measurements, the situation forces a false value and assumption upon WE and ELF users and educators. The assumption implicates that for one to be proficient in English, one must try hard to imitate native speakers and those who are incapable of performing such imitation are viewed as incompetent (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012).

Methodology

Research Design

For the analysis of the websites and the documentary papers of the popular international English tests, a qualitative study design was embraced in this study in order to gather a mixture of documents, i.e. publicly available materials, such as competency assessment sheets, sample test materials, and manuals for candidates' images as well as audio texts from their websites. In the approach adopted for the analysis, it had "a policy focus, examining materials relevant to a particular set of decisions" about English, its use and assessment (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, p. 186).

Materials and Data Collection

To collect such documentary data, firstly, the websites of the following international exam boards were visited by turns: TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC and PTE. For visual materials,

several screenshots were taken from the home pages and relevant pages of the websites where the testing companies display photos of potential test takers. If available, we also decided to include the video content in the data set featuring those who already took the tests for promotional purposes and auditory materials in which one can listen to sample listening files. In collecting data on visual materials, the objective is to determine whether and to what extent such visual materials give coverage to the linguistic diversity of English speakers who are likely to take one of those tests. As for the video and auditory content, the attention was given to the speaker profiles, i.e. speakers' ethnolinguistic background and whether they feature a particular kind of (native) English in their speech or maintain their own first language traits when speaking.

Moreover, to determine if the international testing companies orient to a particular kind of English in assessment and enforce a particular target speaker on the test takers for language use, various sections of the websites were inspected and the files on various assessment issues were downloaded, including test formats, score calculators, the guide for teachers, practice and sample test materials, score descriptors, and assessment rubrics. These documents were saved as portable document files (pdf) for further analysis.

Data Analysis

To analyse the visual materials, particularly how they are positioned on the websites, Knox's (2007) website analysis model consisting of three dimensions was used. This model helps researchers determine the level of prominence ascribed to the display of visual materials on web pages. To illustrate, on web pages, focal attention is given "to the left-top corner of the screen immediately below the browser window" since it is "the guaranteed viewing area on any computer screen and is, therefore, a strategic location" for viewers (Johnson, Milani & Upton, 2010, p. 231). This location is what Macro Theme-Rheme is concerned with. As for the head-tail dimension, it includes the process of navigating through an online page on a specific website via moving higher or lower across visuals or texts on the web pages. The reason for this is that "the hierarchy of information is typically indexed according to a continuum of 'diminishing salience'" (p. 230). Namely, one can simply view vital material in a comparatively short period since they are presented in easily accessible sections whereas secondary level material is scattered towards the underside of the web page, thereby accessible to viewers in a long time. The Primary-Secondary dimension deals with if material is situated in the middle of the page or the right- or left-hand margins of it. Important information is mostly given in the middle column whereas secondary information tends to be offered in the left- and right columns.

As for the analysis of the textual data garnered from various documents, two data analysis tools, namely content analysis (Schreier, 2012) and negative analysis (Pauwels, 2012) were used in combination. The analytic procedure was shaped by a four-stage course: "finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesising data contained in documents" (Bowen, 2009, p. 28). During the process, the focus was on "the deep structural meaning conveyed by the message" instead of the literal implication of the content (Berg, 2001, p. 242). Considering the latent content of the documentary data, we attempted to supplement our content analysis via "negative analysis" with special attention on

"meaningfully absent" references to several matters relating to the use of language and its assessment (Pauwels, 2012, p. 253). These items, as Pauwels (2012) notes, "exactly by their absence seem to become significant" (p. 256). Paying attention to such absent items is of particular importance in the documentary analysis as their absence may be due to ideological assumptions regarding language, its use, its users and assessment. Additionally, such assumptions may be not in keeping with the information or message the visual and auditory data convey to the viewers of the websites. Additionally, the analysis of the sample listening files was based on the descriptive study (e.g. frequency) of the existence of the speakers from diverse cultural and national backgrounds in the audio files. However, it should be noted that the websites and their content are prone to immediate changes and updates. Thus, what has been presented in the analysis only applies to the websites and their content at the time they were visited, yet to safeguard validity, visuals from web pages and detailed excerpts from connected policy declarations and papers are offered in the findings to demonstrate that the inquiry is "*solid*," "*comprehensive*" and "presented in a *transparent* way, allowing the reader, as far as possible, to test the claims [and conclusions] made" (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 173; italics in original).

Results and Discussion

Multimodal Website Analysis

In the website analysis, the first thing that was investigated is the visual data (mostly photographs of people) available on the home page of each international exam boards' website. In doing so, the objective was to specify which group or groups of speakers from Kachru's (1986) concentric circles are displayed on the home pages. The examination of the home pages indicated that the photographs of the speakers from the Outer and Expanding Circle countries were positioned on the strategic location, i.e. the area immediately below the browser, on each home page, thereby each being part of a Macro Theme-Rheme. That is, these photographs are the first items visitors see on the home pages without scrolling downward or sideways. None of the photographs included any speakers from the Inner Circle. The photographs mostly featured East Asian and South Asian people, probably with an eye to representing the largest body of their test-takers across the world.

The inclusion of NNESs on the photographs implies that the exam boards are aware of the current sociolinguistic profile of English speakers, the majority of whom are from the Outer and Expanding circle countries. In other respects, from a negative analysis point of view, the absence of any Inner Circle speakers can be indicative of the idea that such international tests are addressed to NNESs who are supposed to prove their English competence for whatever reason (e.g. academic studies, work, and migration) they are sitting any of these tests, yet once it comes to Inner Circle speakers (i.e., NESs), they do not have to sit such exams even if they are intent upon applications for similar purposes. Below are screenshots taken from the home pages of each international exam board, illustrating the exam boards' depiction of their future test takers:

Figure 1. A screenshot from the IELTS home page

Figure 3. A screenshot from the TOEIC home page

Figure 2. A screenshot from the TOEFL home page

Figure 4. A screenshot from the PTE home page

Then, the analysis moved on to a closer inspection of visual and textual items located in the areas of Head-Tail dimension and MacroTheme-Rheme dimension by scrolling down, left and right on each exam board's home page. When one scrolled down on the home page of IELTS, one can see immediately below the web banner photographs in Figure 1 that IELTS makes following description regarding itself: "IELTS is the high-stakes English test for study, migration or work" (What is IELTS, 2019, para. 1). This is followed by a promotional video, entitled 'Filip's IELTS story' on the left-hand column. It seems obvious from the MacroTheme-Rheme perspective that easy access to that promotional video is particularly prioritised. The video lasts 91 seconds, showing various sights from London and the UCL since Filip has been placed at university as a result of certifying his English proficiency through IELTS. What is remarkable in the video is that Filip retains his first language (Bulgarian) traits while speaking, disclosing his non-native speaker identity. That is, he speaks English in his own way without adjusting his pronunciation and accent to any conventions of standard (native) English.

Finally, towards the bottom of the home page, IELTS displays six photographs, of which five feature scenes from the Inner Circles countries (i.e., the UK, the USA, Canada) and one features a spotted world map to prove its worldwide acceptance by universities, governments and non-governmental organizations in response to a query shared on the left-hand side under the promotional video "Where can IELTS take you?" (see Figure 5 below). The photographs illustrating the Inner Circle countries are positioned on the right-, left-hand side and middle column while the photograph titled in bold red lettering 'Travel the world with IELTS' is positioned at the bottom right-hand-side column of the home page. More precisely, relative to the content of the other areas, the photograph of the world map located at the far right-hand column seems to be attached less importance since according to the

Primary-Secondary dimension, items of subordinate value tend to be located in the left- or right-hand columns and from a Head-Tail perceptive towards the bottom of the page far from the first screen.

The assumption of the testing company appears to be that test takers of IELTS will mainly choose an Inner Circle destination after taking the exam; however, recent research into the language entry requirements of higher education institutions provides proof that most people taking IELTS for academic purposes by and large use the scores to be able to enter an EMI university in their own country or in a European country where English is not spoken as an L1. The testing company seems to overlook this reality, deliberately promoting the company as a passport to Anglophone countries as the first consideration.

Figure 5. A screenshot of the IELTS home page

As for the TOEFL's home page, it was identified on the MacroTheme-Rheme dimension that TOEFL spared the left-hand side column to present information on itself employing some statistics about the number of institutions recognizing TOEFL scores. It follows a similar strategy to that of IELTS, mentioning the number of countries where the

test results are recognized, yet first explicitly stating the names of the Anglophone countries and then Asia and mainland Europe. In their promotional description on the left-hand column, it makes the following remark:

> "TOEFL scores are accepted by more than 10,000 universities and other institutions in over 150 countries, including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the U.K., the United States, and all across Europe and Asia" (The TOEFL Test, 2019, para. 1).

The above statement makes clear that there is an acknowledgement of the fact that the majority of the test takers make use of IELTS scores in non-Anglophone contexts, particularly European and Asian countries. However, out of the countries where the IELTS scores are accepted, the IELTS home page only refers to Inner Circle countries by their names while others are constrained to continent names. This strategy may be due to the desire of depicting TOEFL to the viewers of the website as an entryway to native-English-speaking countries. On the middle column stand some links that give access to some practical information about the test, e.g. how to register for it, test centres and alike. It also presents some information on a newly introduced test type.

When viewing the left-hand side column, one can see that the column is divided into three rows positioned on each other from top to bottom. At the top column is a photograph of a student named Samir with a hyperlink to his TOEFL story. When clicked, the hyperlink takes the viewer to a promotional video on the centre of the new page, showing some scenes and parts from Samir's childhood and adulthood, with a TOEFL preparation book in his hand when he was a teenager and then saying 'Thank You' while graduating from an Anglophone university. Although he did not speak much in the video, when he did, he sounded like an Indian speaker of English.

Beneath 'Samir's story', viewers see the 'TOEFL MOOC' section that presents a hyper video that can be viewed upon clicking. The video introduces 'The Insider's Guide to the TOEFL Test course', first featuring some photographs of NNESs, followed by a briefing on the course given by a native English speaker, also one of the members of having created the exam.

Figure 6. A screenshot of the TOEFL home page

The underlying idea behind such showcasing of the profile of test-takers and test makers may be the assumption that speakers from Outer and Expanding Circles, i.e. language learners, need to be tested by language 'experts', i.e. authentic users of the language, from the Inner Circle countries. This conclusion also finds support from the TOEFL test preparation webpage, at the bottom of which viewers can see the course instructors, all but one are NESs. Only the listening instructor is a non-native speaker (Chinese) as is understood from the profile of the instructor at the bottom of the TOEFL test preparation page. Further to this, the sample listening files accessible to the visitors of the website are also voiced by NESs.

Similar to the home pages of IELTS and TOEFL, the TOEIC home page provides information about its administration across the world and the number of organizations that accept the TOEIC tests while making decisions on people's language proficiency under its home page header image. In the middle of the page, there are three columns positioned from the left-hand side to the right-hand side column. The ones on the right-hand-side column and middle column provide links to further information on testing the passive skills, i.e. listening and reading and productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing, in TOEIC via 'LEARN MORE' buttons, while the column at the far left-hand side takes viewers to a page where a different type of TOEIC (i.e. TOEIC Bridge Test) test is introduced to visitors. Under this area is a promotional blurb about TOEIC program teaching and preparation resources, which facilitates navigation to different pages for Test Takers and Organizations. When the 'For Test Takers' button is clicked, a new page featuring an Asian female opens whereas if one

clicks on the 'For Organizations' button, a white European man is displayed as the header image. To warrant that organizations can trust their tests, TOEIC makes the following account:

> The TOEIC tests offer you a complete, accurate picture of proficiency in all four language skills. And with scores mapped to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages, the comprehensive and comparable data you receive helps you make better informed decisions within your organization (Organizations, 2019, para. 3).

At the centre of the home page is a written promotional testimonial in which a statement by a former test taker, a Brazilian, extolling the TOEIC test for the "trust and transparency in its results" (TOEIC Success Story, 2019, para. 5).

Figure 7. A screenshot of the TOEIC home page

Finally, the far left-hand side column of the page features a graphic video to inform the test takers about the key features of the TOEIC, lasting exactly 10 minutes.

Unsurprisingly, the informative graphic video is delivered in two (male and female) native English speaker voiceovers. As with the other home pages of major exam boards, the TOEIC makes use of NNESs in header images, and testimonials but when it comes to introductory videos and course introductions, the voiceover immediately turns out to be that of a native English speaker.

Similar to the home page of the IELTS, the PTE home page (see Figure 8 below) includes less textual materials but the text-based information is located at the bottom of the page. It can be inferred thus that particular attention is given to the visuals in areas where they will see earlier than the textual materials. Under the header image, there is a section called 'Why PTE Academic?' in which PTE portrays itself as a key to moving and studying abroad, again ignoring the fact that most test-takers now sit this exam for international purposes, such as academic studies, employee promotion, and financial incentives in the workplace.

In the middle column, there are links to the steps of the test process accompanied with photographs of NNESs studying in the study areas of most likely an Anglophone university. Under these photographs, there is another photograph of an Asian female student studying on her laptop and taking notes on the left-hand side column. What is notable is the statement on the left-hand side column beside the Asian student's photograph, which writes 'Helping You Succeed', getting over an underlying message to the test takers. This message is that if they also take the PTE test, they will be also successful and have the opportunity to be placed in a program at an Anglophone university. Beneath that photograph are written testimonials by several former test takers, exalting the test for its various aspects, including the kindness of the staff in the test centre, fast administration, quick release of the results, and objective scoring. All testimonials belong to NNESs based in not only Outer (e.g. Philippines, India, Singapore and Nigeria) and Expanding Circles (e.g. Brazil, Saudi Arabia, China) but also in the Inner Circle countries (e.g. New Zealand, Canada).

It is obvious that such testimonials by different speakers of English are part of promotional strategies pursued by the testing company. What is striking in the testimonials is that some test takers praise the test for its emphasis on improving their standard English use. For example, two of the test takers made the following remarks in their testimonials:

> PTE Academic accurately reflects an individual's ability to communicate in standard English. I would prefer this exam to other available tests as it removes the elements of human bias in scoring. Unlike other proficiency exams, PTE Academic is less time consuming when it comes to exam preparation and scorecard report fulfilment (Selva Mariappan; our italics).

> PTE Academic oriented me to write correct English every day. I loved the test and even more after achieving my desired score (Shallu; our italics).

Figure 8. A screenshot of the PTE home page

We can conclude from the above remarks that the PTE is standard (native) English oriented, paying attention to its takers' adjustment to the conventions of standard English in written and verbal communication. We also understand that the scores are produced through automated scoring via specialized computer programs. This might well serve the purpose of testing standard English norms, yet non-native ways of doing English, in other words, creative and deviant language use, may be penalized. Additionally, the first quote by Shallu does not specify whose English should be taken as correct and whose as incorrect. Evidently, such remarks are rooted in the belief that correct English is used by NESs and incorrect English by NNESs. That is, there is a covert reference to NESs as norm providers. We will inspect this issue in more detail in the following documentary analysis section.

Documentary Data Analysis

In the document analysis, the primary purpose was to identify the exam boards' orientation towards a particular variety of English as the benchmark against which test takers' English proficiency is judged. Secondly, part of the attempt was to find out whether there is any consideration of the implications of the well-attested findings of WE and ELF research as discussed above (see, for example, Jenkins, 2007; Harding, 2012; Hu, 2012; McNamara, 2012; Widdowson, 2012) in relation to assessment in their scoring rubrics. Thirdly, the acknowledgement of the speakers of WE and ELF along with their diverse and non-standard ways of English use has made way into these international tests. To this end, we especially paid our attention to the documents on listening, writing and speaking.

The first thing that is investigated in the analysis is the documentary data on speaking, more specifically how the exam boards mark and assess speaking, and if there is

an implicit or explicit expectation of a certain kind of English from the test-takers. To find answers to these questions, content analysis has been conducted on such documents as speaking rubrics, sample speaking test format, the content of the speaking test, and examinee handbooks. It has been noticed that overall, exam boards base their assessment on some components of speaking, such as lexical resource, pronunciation, fluency and coherence and grammatical range and accuracy.

Marking and Assessing Speaking

As a beginning, it is seen in the 'IELTS Speaking – How it's marked' section that it expects the candidates "to talk with normal levels of continuity, rate and effort and to link ideas and language together to form coherent, connected speech", specifying "[t]he key indicators of fluency" as "speech rate and speech continuity" ("IELTS test format", 2019, para. 3). In respect of grammatical range and accuracy, it seems that IELTS covets the test takers' range of grammar to consist of "the length and complexity of the spoken sentences, the appropriate use of subordinate clauses, and the range of sentence structures, especially to move elements around for information focus" and further adds that "[t]he key indicators of grammatical accuracy are the number of grammatical errors in a given amount of speech and the communicative effect of error" ("IELTS test format", 2019, para. 5). Lastly, with respect to pronunciation, the test takers' speaking will be judged in terms of "the amount of strain caused to the listener, the amount of the speech which is unintelligible and the noticeability of L1 influence" ("IELTS test format", 2019, para. 6). It is obvious that there are several absent references in the speaking assessment criteria as to who 'talks with normal levels of continuity and whose English should be branded as correct, and why L1 influence in speech is a sign of deficiency.

Turning to the TOEFL 'Independent Speaking Rubrics', it emerged that speaking is assessed in terms of topic development, delivery, general description and language use. For the test takers to get the highest score (i.e. 4) from the speaking part, their English should meet the following criteria:

> **Language use:** The response demonstrates effective use of grammar and vocabulary. It exhibits a fairly high degree of automaticity with good control of basic and complex structures (as appropriate). Some minor (or systematic) errors are noticeable but do not obscure meaning.

> **Delivery**: Generally well-paced flow (fluid expression). Speech is clear. It may include minor lapses, or minor difficulties with pronunciation or intonation patterns, which do not affect overall intelligibility.

On one hand, the TOEFL seems to give much weight to the issue of intelligibility and to be not much concerned with minor errors provided that they do not hinder the communication of meaning; however, one the other hand, it expects the test takers to display 'a fairly high degree of automaticity' and 'effective use of grammar'. Additionally, some subjective descriptors stand out in the descriptions. For example, TOEFL requires clear speech from the test takers but the notion of clear speech might be interpreted differently depending on who the listeners are. That is, a non-native speech may be clear to another NNES while a NES can find it unclear. This shows that there is a lack of consideration of the role of the previous familiarity for effective communication and the linguistic repertoire of speakers. Moreover, only minor lapses are not penalized, yet in real-life English use, ELF

speakers often resort to not only short but also long pauses as a communication strategy, not because of a deficit in their English.

It appears that the burden is placed on speakers solely in the TOEFL speaking exam. Some evidence for this conclusion exists in the descriptions of the delivery aspect of speakers getting 1. A speaker who gets 1 out of 4 in the speaking section is required not to demonstrate "[c]onsistent pronunciation stress and intonation difficulties" and "cause considerable listener effort" (TOEFL Speaking Rubrics, 2014, p. 1). What is implied here is that the speaker deviating from the standard ways of applying stress and intonation drives listeners to put more effort into communication. In fact, since communication is a mutual act, listeners also are as responsible as speakers for effective communication. From an ELF perspective, there should be an equal share of the communicative burden between speakers and listeners.

To determine the expectations of TOEIC from its test-takers about speaking, we analysed its 'Examinee Handbook: Speaking & Writing'. While fulfilling the tasks included in the speaking exam, the test takers are expected to fulfil some criteria to be regarded as a very high-level speaker. The first criterion is as follows:

> "1. The test taker can generate language intelligible to native and proficient nonnative English
> speakers" (Examinee Handbook, 2019, p. 2).

It is obvious from the above accounts that the test takers are assumed to use English in an ENL (English as a native language) context, thereby being held responsible to make their speaking comprehensible to NESs. However, there is no information as to who can be counted as proficient NNESs. Probably, what is meant by 'proficient' speakers here is near-native like speakers. When this expectation is linked to the description of the TOEIC speaking test, which goes as follows

> "The TOEIC Speaking Test is designed to measure a person's ability to communicate in spoken
> English in the context of daily life and the global workplace" (Examinee Handbook, 2019, p. 2).

It becomes clear that moving from an EFL approach to English use, TOEIC takes it for granted that much of daily life and workplace English use will occur between NESs and NNESs. Nevertheless, this is not exactly the current linguistic scenario anymore as much communication now occurs among NNESs and outside the Inner Circle countries. As TOEIC is also administered by ETS, it adopts the same assessment criteria as to the assessment of language use and delivery, with a particular emphasis on clear speech, well-paced flow, good control of language forms, and suprasegmental features (e.g. pronunciation, intonation and stress being intelligible all the time to the listener) as well as good use of basic and complex grammar. The idea seems that if the test takers can fulfil these criteria, only then can they make themselves intelligible to the listeners in the exam.

Looking at the Score Guide of PTE, it becomes clear that PTE also attaches special importance to test takers' oral fluency and pronunciation. Test takers' oral fluency and pronunciation are graded with six descriptors, which are, (0) Disfluent, (1) Limited, (2) Intermediate, (3) Good, (4) Advanced and (5) Native-like in the order of scores attached to each descriptor from the lowest to the highest (PTE Score Guide, 2018). According to the scoring criteria, a test taker needs to fulfil the following scoring criteria to be in the 'Native-like' category:

All vowels and consonants are produced in a manner that is easily understood by regular speakers of the language. The speaker uses assimilation and deletions appropriate to continuous speech. Stress is placed correctly in all words and sentence-level stress is fully appropriate (PTE Score Guide, 2018, p. 24).

It does not take much to infer that the target model is set as NESs for test-takers to hit the highest score. Therefore, PTE implicitly sends out the message that the more test takers can imitate the ways NESs use English, the higher scores they will get, covertly obliging them to adopt certain ways of speaking and to discredit their own divergent speech. Another point of interest is the lack of description about 'regular speakers of the language'. On one hand, test takers are advised to sound intelligible to the regular speakers; on the other hand, the exam board does not give any account about the characteristics of those speakers. To the researcher, by saying regular speakers of the language, they allude to NESs. This conclusion was reached drawing on their scoring criteria where native-like English is of the highest importance.

Marking and Assessing Writing

Scrutinizing the 'IELTS test format' page in order to discover marking and assessment criteria for test takers' writing performance, it was found that test-takers' responses to the tasks on a short descriptive essay of a chart/ graph and an extended essay on a predetermined subject of academic or semi-formal style are judged against the succeeding criteria: grammatical range and accuracy, task response/achievement, lexical resource and coherence and cohesion. The performance descriptors on lexical scores relate to "the range of vocabulary used and its accuracy and appropriacy in terms of the specific task" ("IELTS test format", 2019, para. 3) and the descriptors on the range of grammar and accuracy is concerned with "the range and accurate use of grammar as manifested in their sentence writing" (para. 4). It is somewhat surprising that while the test pays attention to "the overall clarity and fluency of the message" in terms of coherence and cohesion" (para. 6), it requires the test takers to meet this criterion by conforming to the norms of standard English, with an emphasis on grammatical correctness and accuracy. That is, following the writing conventions of standard English in academic writing is set as a priori to get high scores for coherence and cohesion as well as lexical resources. For this, evidence is also available in the IELTS guide for teachers where the description of a test taker in Band 9 (Expert User) is made as follows: "Uses a wide range of structures with full flexibility and accuracy; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'" (IELTS guide for teachers, 2017, p. 23). It is evident that errors happening as blunders only are tolerated and the non-standard uses of English in writing by WE and ELF speakers are less likely to be welcomed when marking.

Regarding the TOEFL writing test, the document we first analysed was the 'Independent Writing Rubrics' where one can see the scores for each task description according to the bands (0 to 5) test-takers can be placed. The marking criteria in the task descriptions provide sufficient evidence that grammatical correctness and accuracy, as well as native-like lexical usage have a significant role in determining whether test takers get a high or low score. For instance, for a test taker to get the highest score (5) from the writing test, s/he is required to display "consistent facility in the use of language, demonstrating syntactic variety, appropriate word choice and *idiomaticity*, though it may have minor lexical

or *grammatical errors*" (TOEFL Writing Rubrics, 2014, p. 1; our italics). This criterion is revealing in that the test not only requires the test takers to use standard English but also hints that the standard should be that of NESs. This is because idiomaticity is something acquired by NESs while it is unpredictable for NNESs to get idiomatic usage right and often they use it creatively by innovating the existing idioms, which, however, is labelled as incorrect usage.

On the assessment of writing, the TOEIC Examinee Handbook sets the following evaluation criteria according to the tasks the test takers have to fulfil: relevance of the sentences to the pictures, grammar, vocabulary and organization and quality and variety of sentences. More specifically, a test taker whose score falls into the range of 4, the highest score, in response to questions 6-7 is described as follows in terms of his/her response to the tasks:

> • The writer uses organizational logic or appropriate connecting words or both to create coherence among sentences.
> • The tone and register of the response is appropriate for the intended audience.
> • A few isolated errors in grammar or usage may be present, but they do not obscure the writer's meaning (Examinee Handbook, 2019, p. 21).

Similar to the TOEFL marking criteria, in response to question 8 on the test, TOEIC wishes that the test taker's writing "displays consistent facility in the use of language, demonstrating syntactic variety, appropriate word choice, idiomaticity, though it may have minor lexical or grammatical errors" (Examinee Handbook, 2019, p. 23). It is evident that test takers are guided in implicit manners towards using standard (native) English to be able to get high scores from the written exam, with a minimized number of grammar mistakes, and inclusion of native-like usages, such as idiomatic phrases in their writing. And the considerable overlap between the assessment criteria of TOEFL and TOEIC may be explained by the fact that they are both administered by the same testing company, ETS (English Testing Service).

Finally, as to the PTE writing exam, it becomes clear from the Score Guide that the main concern is with test takers' grammar, spelling and written discourse. These are considered as part of 'enabling skills' and described as is seen below:

> **Spelling**: Writing of words according to the spelling rules of the language. All national variations are considered correct, but one spelling convention should be used consistently in a given response.
>
> **Grammar**: Correct use of language with respect to word form and word order at the sentence level.
>
> **Written discourse**: Correct and communicatively efficient production of written language at the textual level. Written discourse skills are represented in the structure of a written text, its internal coherence, logical development and the range of linguistic resources used to express meaning precisely (PTE Score Guide, 2018, p. 6; our italics).

The kind of English PTE expects from the test-takers in their written exam seems to be that standard English as could be inferred from the italicized parts in the above descriptions. The principal focus of attention is placed on 'correctness' and 'communicative efficiency' yet without any explicit mention of the yardstick for correct use and efficient communication. However, we can infer from the descriptions of spelling that the yardstick

is taken as national varieties of English, i.e. the Inner Circle countries. Again, they do not name any of these national varieties explicitly, leaving it to the reader to infer the acceptable kind of academic English. It may be also attributed to the exam board's assumption that the kind of English test takers should follow is either British English or American English, thereby seeing no need to explicitly state these varieties as they are already beyond question.

Speaker Profiles in Listening Exams

While analysing the documents on listening, our primary concern was with the profile of speakers the test takers are required to listen to. The assessment criteria for listening were thus subordinate in our analysis. To that end, we particularly attempted to find any relevant piece of information as regards whose voiceovers will be in the listening tracks. We first examined the relevant pages where vital information is shared with the candidates. Drawing on the inspection, the following remarks on the TOEFL iBT Test Content Page were reached regarding the speaking and listening sections:

> Native-speaker English Accents
>
> The Listening and Speaking sections of the TOEFL iBT test include other native-speaker English accents in addition to accents from North America. You may hear accents from the U.K., New Zealand or Australia. ETS added these accents to better reflect the variety of native English accents you may encounter while studying abroad ("TOEFL iBt: Test Content", 2019, para: 6-7).

The above descriptions reinforce the conclusion that TOEFL's understanding of varieties of English is limited to the Inner Circle Englishes, overlooking the speakers of Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. One can also speculate that test takers are deemed to speak English with NESs in ENL countries, which is at odds with the existing sociolinguistic truth of English largely shaped by NNESs in non-Anglophone contexts.

Likewise, IELTS states on its 'Test Format-Listening' section that test-takers "will listen to four recordings of NESs" ("IELTS Test format", 2019, para. 5). It further adds in the 'Paper format' section that "[t]he recordings are heard only once. They include a range of accents, including British, Australian, New Zealand, American and Canadian" (para. 3). These descriptions demonstrate the lack of ELF awareness in the exam in two respects. First, the test-takers listen to the recordings only once, yet in real-life English communication, speakers apply various communication strategies such as repetition, self-repair and other-initiated repair. Therefore, the criterion does not represent the actual nature of listening in real-world English use. Second, although each recording represents different contexts of language use, such as monologic and dialogic everyday social contexts, group discussions in an educational context or "a monologue on an academic subject, e.g. a university lecture" ("Test Format", 2019, para. 2), it is reckoned that the target speakers will be NESs in each communication context.

As for the TOEIC listening exam, we closely analysed its can-do statements as regards what a test taker needs to do to get a score between 51-70. One of the criteria that immediately catches the reader's eyes is that someone whose score is between the range of 51-70 "understands the main points of standard speech on familiar matters when people speak slowly and clearly" (TOEIC Can-Do Guide, 2013, p. 12; bold in original). Regarding

the listening skills in TOEIC, over a decade ago, Trew (2007) made the following observation as to the listening section:

> **Familiarity with the different native speaking accents** – The Listening Section of the TOEIC test includes US, Canadian, British, and Australian speakers. Many students develop a bias for a given variety of English and have difficulty understanding speakers with other accents. To overcome this it is important that students be exposed to *a variety of English accents* (p. 7; the writer's own italics).

Confirming Trew's (2007) observation, Case (2011) discussed the widely mentioned True-False statements about the TOEIC listening and in relation to the assumption that "[s]tudents mainly need American English for the exam", he gave the following response: "This is mostly true. Although the new TOEIC has some British and Australian accents, most of the voices are still American and Canadian". Additionally, relating to the "students who have mainly studied American English usually" he argues that they may

> lose confidence in the exam the first time they can't understand people with other ways of speaking, so people taking the new exam should spend some time listening to other accents, for example by watching Australian films or British comedy programmes (para. 2).

The above remarks make it clear that TOEIC is orientated towards a particular kind of native English, i.e. American English, as the kind of expected academic English from the test takers. Besides, the understanding of other accents in the descriptions is limited to the accents of Inner Circle speakers merely, probably due to the assumption that the test takers take the test to use English with NESs in ENL contexts, disregarding the fact that much English use occurs in the Outer and Expanding Circle Countries in which the presence of NESs is almost none or very restricted.

Finally, with regards to the **PTE** listening exam, it emerged from our analysis of the Score Guide that the subskills test includes "comprehending variations in tone, speed and accent" (PTE Score Guide, 2018, p. 13). It is also stated on the 'About the Test' page that

> PTE Academic assesses real-life, academic English, so you will hear excerpts from lectures and view graphs and charts. You will hear a range of accents in the test, *from British and American to non-native speakers*, so you will be exposed to the type of accents you will encounter in everyday life ("PTE Academic Test Format", 2019, para. 3; our italics).

It is clearly inferred from the above statements that, unlike other exam boards, PTE seems to have at least some awareness of the current linguistic reality of English, such as who speaks it, where it is spoken and with whom it is mostly spoken. There is also a recognition that test-takers may encounter not only NESs but also NNESs depending on the purposes people take the test, e.g. for academic studies in a non-Anglophone country, for immigration in an ENL country. However, considering the PTE's marking and assessment criteria in relation to speaking and writing, the inclusion of NNESs in listening recordings does not mean that it considers non-native ways of doing English that do not follow the standards of native English legitimate and acceptable. Evidence for this comes from their orientation to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). Not only PTE but also other international tests rely on CEFR band descriptors and can-do statements with respect to each major skill. However, Jenkins and Leung (2013, p. 1608) claim that the CEFR "corresponds to native-like proficiency in the respective language"

(Jenkins & Leung, 2013, p. 1608). Therefore, the CEFR is in no way appropriate in the assessment of speakers' proficiency from WE and ELF perspectives.

Conclusion

The use of English is now inevitably widespread and its diffusion as a global lingua franca has given rise to new English varieties under the WE research field. During the past decades, NNESs have constituted the majority of candidates in language proficiency examinations, e.g., IELTS, TOEFL, TOEIC, and PTE due to the growing needs to meet requisites in education, business, and service. As time progresses, a controversy over the legitimacy of the tests has become more intense whether it is discriminatory to test NNESs, who are now speaking various types of Englishes, against the norms of NESs. To mirror the representativeness of how widely English is used today, a proficiency test of English should take into account more pluricentric approaches, performance-based measurements and diversity awareness.

As discovered in this study, international test takers are treated with a favourable approach in the marketing strategies of the testing boards; however, the ground reality showcases that this is not the case when it comes to the expectations regarding test takers' language use because much of the exam content is built on NES conventions or, in other words, 'standard English'. Evidently, their homepages aim to communicate with the Outer and Expanding Circle audience since most of the images utilize non-native models as if the tests are designed to measure the performances of non-native speakers. The phenomenon indicates that these tests are aware of the non-Anglophone linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the candidates. Nonetheless, the tests' elements and measurement criteria tell otherwise. Their foci are on NES grammatical rules, vocabulary items, and idioms, disregarding intercultural communication performances. Similarly, many advertised testimonials and success stories are made by NNESs whereas the introductory videos and audios are formed by NES-made contents: British and American. Such visual portrayals indicate the recognition of English diversity with the intention of embracing multi-ethnic candidates. Nevertheless, practise-wise, such principles do not seem to translate into their testing practices in that the tests and measurement criteria are still based on NES norms.

From the visuals displayed on the websites of testing companies, it is evident that they desire to appeal to NNES candidates on their websites with the hidden message that they are the target group who are expected to sit for these tests. Likewise, NES voiceovers are largely preferred n speaking exercises and sound files. Albeit their allegation that the voices in the audio files represent diverse accents, they mostly include NES accents, particularly those of Americans and the British by failing to miss the point that the varieties spoken in the Outer and Expanding settings are far richer than those in the Inner Circle settings. As a result, these standardized tests make wrongful claims to cover wider English varieties while deliberately limit their test contents only to the Inner-Circle Englishes.

In conclusion, based on the findings, it may be suggested that the international tests partly recognize WE and ELF at a theoretical level, yet at the level of practice, they lag behind the current pedagogy suggested by ELF and WE scholars as their benchmark in assessment is skewed towards native competence and their standard norms. It seems like

these tests do a rough job in trying to impress non-native speakers and showing that they value English varieties. Realistically, scoring matrixes of the tests are still determining how close a non-native speaker can perform to imitate a native one. Last but not least, as aptly argued long time ago, "[t]he question of which English(es) should be privileged on tests is particularly problematic and interesting in academic contexts where traditionally `standard' forms of English are the only ones accepted" (Lyons & Zhang, 2001, as quoted in Davies et al., 2013, p. 524). Furthermore, it seems evident that this question will continue to be problematic in the upcoming decades, too.

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Cross-Linguistic Influence: The Case of Adjective and Preposition Collocations

Süleyman Alperen ALTUĞ[*]   **Ahmet ÖNAL**[**]

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ABSTRACT

The impact of previously learned knowledge on newly learned knowledge has long been recognized and named interference. Interference in a language is the influence of a previously learned language on any target language. So-called language transfer, this notion may render the learning process harder for the learners and result in fossilization in some cases. Thus, researchers and language teachers should consider this influence and find ways to repair the damages it might cause. In order to provide the field with a study that analyses the effect of cross-linguistic influence in Turkish EFL learners, this study attempts to pinpoint English adjective-preposition collocation that may induce language transfer by utilizing a test that uses a test assesses the type mentioned above of collocation knowledge of 291 Turkish EFL learners. The findings have revealed that some collocations result from language transfer, and a list containing transfer-inducing collocations has been presented.

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[*] Research Assistant, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3881-8070, Mardin Artuklu University, Department of English Translation and Interpreting, alperenaltug@artuklu.edu.tr
[**] Assistant Professor, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5325-4958, Süleyman Demirel University, Department of Foreign Language Education, ahmetonal@sdu.edu.tr

Introduction

It has long been recognized that the mother tongue (L1) has tremendous effects on learning another language. These effects were initially named *language transfer* and started to be studied in the late 40s. This long-studied notion is defined as the interference of the past knowledge with the new learning (Gass & Selinker, 1992; Odlin, 1989). Therefore, interference in language is the impact of a previously learned language on any target language. Kellerman (1979, 1983) suggests two ways that actively take part in language transfer; the influence of the learner's perception of the target language and the markedness of L1 on the learner. Thus, a term named *psychotypology* emerges from his works, which he defines as the proximity between the mother tongue and target language sensed by the L2 learners. According to Gass and Selinker (1992), this proximity or distance can exhibit differences from one individual to another. They report that this distance can shrink as the learner becomes more aware of L2. According to Smith and Kellerman (1986), additional languages in multilingual learners can also affect the target language, which is still in the learning process, and this notion can be described as cross-linguistic influence. Furthermore, this notion of cross-linguistic influence encompasses such terms as; *transfer*, *borrowing*, *avoidance*, and *interference* related to the influence of L1 or additional languages on the target language (Odlin, 1989; Gutierrez-Mangado et al., 2019).

According to Odlin (1989), language transfer is the impact caused by the similarities and differences between the target language and any language that has been acquired beforehand. In this vein, language transfer has always been a hot topic for linguists and language teachers. He then adds the questionability of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and suggests that a careful look must be given during the analysis of an error that might result from different notions such as overgeneralization. In addition, Lado (1957) states that language learners are inclined to transfer not only their native language but also their culture to the target language while learning or communicating in that language.

Consequently, the importance of cross-linguistic influence has been well accepted among scholars and teachers; therefore, if probable misunderstandings and possible problems related to cross-linguistic influence between two languages are realized by the teacher, a more efficient and easier learning environment may be created. For instance, a teacher aware of Turkish-based transfer errors might easily solve the problems occurring due to language transfer. This study aims to specify the adjective preposition collocations that are inclined to be transferred from L1 to L2. Doing this will provide a solution to the English language teaching field in Turkey. In the following sections of the study, cross-linguistic influence, its types and causes, and previous research on the subject, methodology adopted within the study; finally, the study's findings will be discussed.

Literature Review

Types of Cross-Linguistic Influence

The most well-known classification of cross-linguistic influence was made by Odlin (1989); thus, in this part, the taxonomy related to language transfer presented by him will be presented. Odlin (1989) suggests that this influence can either be facilitating or inhibiting and

classifies cross-linguistic influence into two main categories, namely, (a) *positive transfer* and (b) n*egative transfer*. He then divides negative transfer into four main transfer types (1) *underproduction*, (2) *overproduction*, (3) *production errors*, and (4) *misinterpretation* (see Table 1).

Table 1. Types of Cross-Linguistic Influence (Odlin, 1989)

1. Positive Transfer	2. Negative Transfer
	1. Underproduction
	2. Overproduction
	3. Production Errors
	4. Misinterpretation

1. Positive Transfer

As stated above, Odlin (1989) refers to the influence occurring in two ways, facilitating or inhibiting. Positive transfer, therefore, can be seen as the facilitating influence, which might be interpreted as enhancing and assisting the process of language learning. However, this notion can only be plausible if two languages have common structures (Odlin, 1989, Jichoshvili & Gutierrez-Mangado, 2019). As stated by Odlin (1989), positive transfer can take place in four distinct ways: *a)* vocabulary similarities between native and target languages can shrink the time needed to learn certain vocabulary items and enhance reading comprehension; *b)* vowel system similarities or phonetic resemblances can help to enhance the detection of vowel sounds; *c)* similarities in writing or ordering systems can pave the way for learners to improve themselves in terms of reading and writing; *d)* the resemblances between grammar structures of two languages, such as relative clauses, prepositions, word order can enable learners to grasp target language structures easily and in a more efficient way.

Even though these similarities can be seen as helpful and supportive in language learning, the situation might not be as it seems and can yield opposite results. The similarities can lead learners to make errors, and often these errors can result in fossilization (Selinker & Lakshmanan, 1992). There has been quite a debate on fossilization and its causes; however, it is well acknowledged that transfer may lead to fossilization. To sum up, cross-linguistic influence can affect the learning in two ways facilitating, as stated and described above, and inhibiting, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

2. Negative Transfer

As opposed to positive transfer, negative transfer can inhibit the influence of similarities between native and target languages. Odlin (1989) suggests that negative transfer causes divergences from the rules and norms of the target language; therefore, it should be recognized and prevented beforehand. He classifies negative transfer in 4 main subsections, namely, (a) *underproduction*, (b) *overproduction*, (c) *production errors*, and (d) *misinterpretation*.

a. Underproduction

Known as an omission in the field, this type of negative transfer is described by Odlin (1989) with the help of a notion named *avoidance*. According to him, learners might avoid using specific terms or structures or tend to use them less if their native language does not possess similar structures. An example given in Odlin's (1989) study is that Japanese and

Chinese ESL students tend to use fewer relative clause structures than students whose native language possesses relative clauses or similar structures. In the study analyzing the avoidance in Turkish EFL learners by Akbulut (2018), it is pointed out that Turkish learners tend to use one-word verbs instead of multiple-word verbs even though the case expects them to choose the multiple-word verb. It is also highlighted in the research that as the proficiency levels of the speakers decrease, the usage frequency of one-word verbs increases, leading to the conclusion that language awareness and better vocabulary knowledge result in less frequent avoidance. A possible example can be given as an ESL student who has Turkish as his/her mother tongue, uttering *I studying* instead of *I am studying* since the Turkish language does not possess such auxiliary verbs to produce that particular grammar type.

b. Overproduction

This notion can be defined as the redundant use of words or structures that results from the influence of the native language. According to Odlin (1989), this notion can sometimes be the result of underproduction, and an example given by him is that while students try to avoid certain grammar types, they might overuse other structures to convey their ideas better. This notion can be seen especially in prepositions in that students tend to add unnecessary prepositions to verbs. A study conducted by Gvarishvili (2012) demonstrates the incorrect use of prepositions by Turkish students in which approximately 12% of students' errors result from additive usage of prepositions such as "he plays on the piano; he is going to home; he entered in the room" (p. 1567). In the same vein, since the Turkish language does not use articles as independent words, it is possible to see students using *them* even when it is not needed.

c. Production Errors

Odlin (1989) describes production errors as the transfers that are made during the production process and divides them into three types (1) *substitutions*, (2) *calques*, and (3) *alterations*. Substitutions are defined as the usage of the native language during the target language production. Odlin (1989) gives an example by Ringbom (1986), namely, the use of the Swedish word 'bort' (away) in an English sentence: "Now I live home with my parents. But sometimes I must go bort" (p. 37). Therefore, careful observations should be made during the identification of this error type. Calques, on the other hand, are defined by Odlin (1989) as "the errors reflecting a very close native language structure" (p. 37). In the study by Mede et al. (2014), Turkish EFL students tend to misplace action verbs such as *lie tell* and *slowly speak* due to verb positioning rules in Turkish. Lastly, Odlin (1989) defines hypercorrections as changing the correct use of a structure with an incorrect one out of a desire to be correct. He gives an example from the study made by Ibrahim (1978) in which Arabic students trying to correct their inappropriate b/p substitutions (playing) tended to make hypercorrections and made these corrections in places that were not needed, such as *hapit*. In this regard, Odlin (1989) states that not all errors are caused by L1 rules but also overgeneralizations of L2 rules by criticizing Krashen's statement that transfer is a falling back on some L1 rules (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

d. Misinterpretation

Native language structures can strongly influence students' ability to interpret target language messages. According to Odlin (1989), this influence can sometimes affect the inferences that learners get from messages, thus, leading to a complete misunderstanding. Differences between the native and target languages' phonology, syntax, and even word order can affect this notion. In the same vein, cultural and sociological assumptions also play a role in the interpretation process of messages.

All in all, the influence of languages on one another is present in the language learning process, and this influence can both help and aggravate the process of language learning. As can be inferred from the cross-linguistic influence types by Odlin (1989) and the examples provided, these influences can occur at any language property level, such as phonetic, morphologic, and syntactic levels. Resulting from perceived similarities between native and target languages, this influence would inhibit the learning process, resulting in fossilization. Therefore, the importance of this notion should be recognized in the second language acquisition/learning process. Furthermore, it can be argued that recognition of this notion in language testing will also increase the validity and reliability of assessment.

The concept of validity in language testing can be defined as "the extent to which inferences made from assessment results are appropriate, meaningful, and useful in terms of purpose of the assessment" (Gronlund, 1998, p. 226). Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) suggest that one of the most important elements of an effective test is its validity. They maintain that a valid test: *(1)* measures what it proposes to measure, *(2)* does not measure irrelevant or 'contaminating' variables, *(3)* relies as much as possible on empirical evidence (performance), *(4)* involves performance that samples the test's criterion (objective), *(5)* offers useful, meaningful information about a test-taker's ability, *(6)* is supported by a theoretical rationale or argument (p. 32). Consequently, if a test contains items or questions that might result in interference, the validity of the test might be harmed because it fails to assess what is intended to be assessed. In order to minimize this condition, the general interference causing notions should be specified by the researchers and language teachers.

At this point, the importance of error analysis should be pointed out. Error analysis is described as "the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 201). Solely knowing students' errors is not enough for teaching to be more effective; instead, errors should be analyzed and handled. According to Erdoğan (2005), error analysis identifies the strategies that language learners use, seeks the answer to the question 'why do learners make errors?' and determines the common difficulties in learning by helping teachers to develop materials for remedial teaching. Therefore, it has been argued that error analysis is crucial in enhancing language learning classes and feedback. Lastly, teachers need to be aware of the possible errors that may result from the impact of L1 on the language learning process (Paradowski, 2008). As a result, with the help of error analysis, it would be easier to specify the concepts or structures that can cause interference in second/foreign language learning. In the next section, previous studies regarding the concept of interference will be dealt with.

Previous Studies

As mentioned above, interference is important in language learning and teaching. Moreover, researchers and language teachers should be aware of interference and specify the concepts and structures prone to interference. However, the analysis of previous studies conducted demonstrates that the number of studies regarding the influence of the Turkish language on English learning is far from satisfactory compared to other problems in the Turkish context. Studies conducted so far, both in Turkey and abroad, related to the concept of interference have been presented in this section.

When the studies in the Turkish context are considered, it might be seen that, instead of directly focusing on interference, nearly all of the studies emerge as an error analysis at first which consequently evolves into a study that points out the importance of interference in language learning. One example of the type mentioned above is Erkaya's (2012) study, which examines the errors of 17 Turkish EFL learners' essays. The study points out that participants' lack of awareness of the difference between English and Turkish grammar and possible interference of Turkish in participants' English learning led to incomprehensible outputs. Furthermore, it is concluded in the study that participants tended to make mistakes on singular/plural noun agreement, such as omitting the plural marker in their essays which might be a result of the influence of Turkish on their learning. In a similar error analysis study, Elkilic (2012) examines more than a thousand English composition papers written by 68 intermediate and upper-intermediate Turkish tertiary level students. According to the findings of the study, participants omitted the articles in their composition papers which might be correlated with the interference of Turkish. In line with Erkaya (2012), Elkilic (2012) also points out the errors emerging in structures such as subject-verb and quantifier-noun agreement. Lastly, another interesting conclusion made in the study is that upper-intermediate students tended to make fewer mistakes resulting from interference which can be described with the help of Kellerman's (1979, 1983) definition of proximity; as the student got more aware of the target language, the influence of native language decreased.

In addition to the examples mentioned above of interference that happen at the morphologic level, interference of syntactic structures is also apparent. For example, a research conducted by Mede et al. (2014) investigated the effects of native language transfer in comparing Turkish-English word order (verb placement) among 19 EFL adult learners. Since these two languages have different syntactic structures, it was claimed that Turkish learners might have difficulties in verb placement, and consequently, they may end up transferring from L1 and making errors. It was found out that the errors mostly stemmed from negative transfer and it was especially encountered in the use of action verbs such as "lie tell", "slowly speak". Nevertheless, it should not be overlooked that the study participants were at only beginner levels. As mentioned above, as the learners' competencies increase, the possibility of interference will shrink.

When the subject in question is the use of prepositions and collocations, it is possible to see the influence of L1. For instance, the study conducted by Taşçı and Ataç (2018) revealed that in a written context, most of the Turkish adult learners' errors were classified as preposition errors (30.8 %). This problematic error type resulted from overusing, misusing, and omitting prepositions in their essays. As concluded in the study, negative transfer of students' native

language was one of the main reasons for their errors. Another example from the Turkish context can be given with the help of the study by Erarslan and Hol (2014), in which they examined Turkish EFL learners' English production to reveal the effects of their native language. The language areas that the researchers focused on while investigating the L1 transfer were vocabulary, prepositions, and the use of Simple Present Tense. Based on their findings, it was concluded that in the process of English learning, preposition use is identified as the area which is the most problematic. The study also revealed that elementary level students performed more language transfer in preposition use than pre-intermediate and intermediate students.

Out of the Turkish context, several studies deal with the use of prepositions and collocations. One example study is by Bilal et al. (2013), in which they focused on finding out the prepositional errors of Pakistani secondary school students learning English as a second language. In the analysis part of the study, students' written compositions were examined by conducting error analysis, and it was concluded that % 89 of the written compositions included prepositional errors. When it comes to the description of errors, it was found that substitution had the highest percentage (% 61). Thus, it was concluded that students had difficulties and got confused while choosing the proper preposition due to the differences between their native language (Urdu) and the target language. In another study focusing on prepositions by Gvarishvili (2013), L1 interference over the target language (English) in the use of prepositions was investigated. In order to do that, types of errors based on Georgian ESL learners' writings were analyzed by conducting an error analysis. Similar to the studies mentioned above, the highest percentage of error type was substitution error (% 69) owing to L1 negative interference such as "I am interested with it", "It is typical for him" or "He is good/ bad in English". It was also concluded that the difference between L1 and L2 causes mismatching prepositions of both languages, and therefore, learners end up misusing these prepositions.

When it comes to the use of collocations, in the study analyzing the effect of L1 on collocation comprehensions of German and Polish EFL students carried out by Biskup (1992), it was stated that the impact of L1 is evident in the collocation learning processes of students and should be taken into account. The study also provides remarks on possible causes of cross-linguistic transfer; for instance, it was stated that the wider an item's semantic field, the more likely L1 transfers occur. Moreover, if a word has fewer synonyms or synonym-like structures, students are more likely to use L1 equivalents of the words to be used. Furthermore, Fan (2009) analyzed the collocation uses of both non-native and native students. In the study, 60 Hong Kong and 60 British students' essays were analyzed in terms of collocation use, and the researcher concluded that some of the errors could be interpreted as the evidence of students' L1 on the product.

An example of this was given in the study as Chinese students' usage of 'left/right face' instead of using the word 'cheek'. In a similar vein, Phoocharoensil (2013) conducted a study at Bangkok Thammasat University and investigated the role of L1 on students' collocation learning. It was stated that L1 transfer was common among English Thai learners; furthermore, high-proficiency students were found to be using much of their L1 knowledge when they could not find the English equivalents of the words they intended to use in the production of English language collocations.

To summarize, language transfer has been a rather hot topic over the years; however, even though some major studies regarding word order, sentence structure, and vocabulary have been conducted, not much has been done in Turkey to detect specific linguistic structures, concepts or areas in English that are likely to induce language transfer in Turkish EFL learners. Considering the studies conducted in the Turkish context, it is possible to maintain that some mistakes of Turkish EFL learners are generated as a result of language transfer. This study, therefore, has attempted to reveal the adjective-preposition collocations that are likely to be transferred by Turkish EFL learners. Even though every individual shows different learning behaviors (Selinker, 1972), preparing a list that contains the aforementioned structures, concepts or areas would pave the way for teachers, researchers, and stakeholders (coursebook designers, test makers, high-stake test designers, curriculum designers, etc.) to be more efficient and aware in testing processes. Consequently, this study aims to provide answers to the questions below:

1-   Is there a statistically significant difference between the general mean scores of Neutral Test Takers (NTT) and Transfer Test Takers (TTT)?

2-   How often have the interference inducing distractors been chosen by the participants?

3-   Which adjective-preposition collocations cause interference among Turkish learners of English?

Methodology

The study aims to investigate if there is an effect of Turkish students' L1 on their recognition of English adjective-preposition collocations. Since the study attempts to describe a phenomenon by using statistics and tendency measures, it can be stated that the study has a quantitative nature. Furthermore, since the study explains the possible reasons lying behind this phenomenon, it can be put in the explanatory research category. It should also be noted that research ethics have been considered during all stages of the study. Furthermore, before conducting the study, necessary ethics approval was taken from the Süleyman Demirel University Ethics Committee, dated 23.07.2020, numbered E-87432956-99-93152.

Participants

In order to conduct the study, a total of 291 students enrolled in the study. Participants of the study were EFL teacher candidates from the English Language Departments of 2 state universities in Turkey. With a number of 183, the majority of participants consisted of females. Lastly, the participants were randomly divided into two as Neutral Test Takers (NTT) and Transfer Test Takers (TTT).

Table 2. Demographic data of the participants

	NTT	TTT	University A	University B	Total
Female	88 (60%)	96 (66%)	151 (62%)	33 (66%)	184 (63%)
Male	58 (40%)	49 (34%)	90 (38%)	17 (34%)	107 (37%)
Total	146	145	241	50	291

As can be seen in Table 2, females outnumber males in both groups. In fact, in TTT, females are approximately twice the number of males. In addition, the number of participants in University B is one in a fifth of the number seen in University A. Ultimately, the study adopts

convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) since there has not been any randomness included in the selection of the participants.

Instruments

In order to test participants' general knowledge of English adjective-preposition collocations, a test containing 50 multiple-choice questions, each of which has five options, was prepared. During the preparation process of the test questions and items, in order not to be mistaken about the correct adjective-preposition collocations, the researchers made use of the BBI dictionary of English word combinations (Benson et al., 2010), Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English (McIntosh et al., 2009), Turkish National Corpus (TNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). All in all, an adjective-preposition collocation test with 50 multiple-choice questions was prepared, and a distractor from each question of this test was altered with a distractor that may induce interference from Turkish; thus, two separate tests containing the same questions but differing in only one distractor were created. These tests were named Neutral Test (NT), which does not include any distractors in the questions that may induce interference, and Transfer Test (TT), which contains a distractor in each question that may induce interference. Although the first versions of the two tests included 50 questions, after the pilot study with ELT students who would not then be involved in the actual study, 20 questions were eliminated because of not causing enough impact on interference. Therefore, the final versions of both NT (see Appendix A) and TT (see Appendix B) include 30 questions. The aforementioned impact of the questions was calculated in terms of question difficulty and item discrimination through the use of a test analysis programme (TAP) designed by Ohio State University. Additionally, the reliability levels of both tests were calculated and found to be more than .8, which is widely accepted to be appropriate to be used (Bland & Altman, 1997; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Data collection procedures

Because of Covid-19, which forced schools to stop face-to-face education and adopt distance education, the study had to be conducted online. Therefore, initially, tests were uploaded to Google Docs. The links to the tests were shared with the participants by their instructors, and only those who volunteered took part in the study. A form asked participants to give information about their demographic data. Then, they were asked to answer 30 questions that tried to assess students' general knowledge of adjective-preposition collocations in English.

Data Analysis

Firstly, in order to assess the initial test with 50 multiple-choice questions in terms of question difficulty and item discrimination, a test analysis programme was utilized. Furthermore, in an attempt to compare the mean scores of the participants gathered through NTT and TTT, independent samples t-test was applied, and the effect size of this result was calculated via Cohen's d.

Findings and Discussion

In this section of the study, the results have been presented and discussed.

1st Research Question: Is there a statistically significant difference between the two test taker groups' general mean scores?

The tests utilized in the study aimed to test participants' recognition of adjective-preposition collocations. As has been stated above, in order to understand the difference between two tests, the scores participants obtained in the tests were analysed. In order to render the assessment process more manageable, each question was scored as 5. Therefore, if a student gets all the right answers, his/her mean score will be 5. Nonetheless, the scores based on a 100-point scale are given in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Total Means of Participants

	Neutral-Test Takers	Transfer-Test Takers
Number of Items	30	30
Mean	3,6347	3,1103
Mean (out of 100)	72,6	62,2
Median	3,8333	3,1667
Std. Deviation	,85396	,83547
Minimum	,83	,50
Maximum	5,00	4,67

As can be seen in Table 3, NTT's general mean score has been revealed to be higher with a score of 3,63 and TTT's general mean score is 3,11. Additionally, when the mean scores are examined out of 100 points, it can be stated that there emerges a difference of more than 10 points between two means. In this sense, it can be clearly stated that students achieved better scores in the test not involving interference-inducing distractors. As has been explained above, there is statistical difference between two mean scores; however, in order to prove if this difference is statistically significant, independent samples t-test was implemented and the results of the t-test have been given in Table 4 below.

Table 4. t-Test results of general mean scores of both groups

NTT's mean score	TTT's mean score	*p* score	Mean Difference
72,6	62,2	,000	10,3872

It can be seen in Table 4 that there is a statistically meaningful difference between the two mean scores (p<,001). Even though the mean scores tell us that the neutral test scores are higher than interference test, this might result from other causes such as the groups involving different members. In order to avoid this problem, we should also look at how often students chose interference inducing distractors. In the next section, findings for the second research question have been presented and discussed.

2nd Research Question: How often have the interference inducing distractors been chosen by the participants?

In order provide an answer for this research question and explain the phenomenon discovered in first research question, the frequencies of interference inducing distractors in the results of the TTT have been analysed. As mentioned before, there were 145 participants in

TTT. Since every participant was expected to answer 30 questions, it can be stated that there were 4350 answers at the end of the test. So as to assess the frequencies, these answers were categorized into three as correct answer, transfer inducing distractor and other distractors. The categories regarding the frequencies of answers can be seen in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Frequencies of answers of TTT

Total answers	Correct answers	Selection of transfer inducing distractor	Selection of other three distractors
4350	2697 (62%)	914 (21%)	739 (17%)

According to Table 5, 62% of 4350 answers are correct. When the other frequencies are analysed, it can be seen that the selection of the transfer inducing distractor makes up more than one in fifth of the total answers. Thus, it would not be unjustified to state that transfer inducing distractors have managed to get selected more frequently than the other three distractors combined. This result, then, can be interpreted as there are some adjective-collocation combinations which have led students to give incorrect answers to the questions. Now that the second research question has been explained, in the final part of findings and discussion section, the third and last research question has been discussed and analysed. Additionally, a more detailed explanation and analysis onto which collocations caused interference has been presented and discussed.

3rd Research Question: Which adjective-preposition collocations cause interference?

In the light of the data given above, it can be stated that the interference inducing distractors of TT did have an impact on students and they tended to select those options. In this part of the findings and discussion section, answers have been sought as to which collocations cause more interference and which produced less effect on students' results. In order to understand the possible reasons for interference, approximate explanations and descriptions of prepositions in Turkish will be given. The table from the study done by Özışık (2014) well explains the prepositions' meanings and usage in Turkish as well as their equivalents in English.

Table 6. Turkish and English cases (Özışık, 2014, p. 62)

Cases	Turkish	English
Genitive	(n)ın, (n)in, (n)un, (n)ün	duvar-ın of the wall
Accusative	(y)ı, (y)i, (y)u, (y)ü	duvar-ı the wall (as an object)
Dative	(y)e, (y)a	duvar-a to the wall
Locative	de, da	duvar-da on the wall
Ablative	den, dan	duvar-dan from the wall
Instrumental	(y)le, (y)la, ile	duvar-la / ile with the wall

Now that the definitions and usages of Turkish prepositions are given, interference inducing distractors and neutral options and how many students tended to pick those will be given and results will be analysed. As can be seen in Table 7, 10 questions which created nearly or more than 25% difference in the frequencies are given. The reason why the remaining 20 questions are not given is that, when analysed through a test analysis programme, they were not proved to possess sufficient question difficulty and item discrimination. Further explanations and comparisons of the results can be seen below.

Table 7. Questions, correct answers, interference inducing distractors and frequencies

Question	Expected correct answer	Interference Inducing Distractor	Correct Answers of TT	Interference Inducing Distractor Frequency	Percentage of Interference Inducing Distractors
1. We didn't think she was married ……… him, it turned out she was.	To	With	82	63	43,4%
8- Cecilia started bungee jumping last summer because she was bored ……… her other hobbies.	With	From	78	50	34,5%
12- After a two-year trial period, the jury found the criminal guilty .... the murder.	Of	From	75	37	25,6
14- Last summer, Caner was happy .... saving the right amount of money for his vacation.	About	From	65	50	44,8%
16- As the secretary has been working in this company for only one month, she is not eligible .... maternity leave.	For	To	89	35	24,1%
21- The revolutions weren't only limited ………… the diplomacy, they were also present in art, science and social life.	To	With	64	38	26,2%
22- You should be patient ………… Carl, because he is trying to make an improvement.	With	To	81	54	37,4%
25- Experts were suspicious ………… the authenticity of the vases found in the catacombs.	Of	From	78	46	31,7%
28- Since his mother's funeral, he has been obsessed .... death.	With	To	77	49	33,7%
30- The jeweller's wife was surprised .... his calm reaction to the recent increase in the price of diamonds	At	To	89	35	24,1

As can be seen in Table 7, questions, their interference inducing distractors and percentages of frequencies of interference inducing distractors have been given. Before moving on to analysis section, it should be stated that the errors that are not classified as interference errors can be named intralingual errors and do not pose a threat to the validity of the questions. In the following part of this section, correct answers belonging to each question will be described and preposition which caused interference on students and possible causes will be given and analysed.

The correct answer to the 1st question should be 'to' which is a dative preposition. Interference inducing distractors in the two tests were namely; 'under' in the NT and 'with' in the TT. Moreover, as can be seen in Table 7, the number of participants who gave correct answers to 1st question in TT is 82. Lastly the number of students who chose interference inducing distractors is 63. This result can be assumed as a great impact because nearly the half of the participants chose the preposition 'with' to be used with the adjective 'married'. This situation might result from the fact that the Turkish equivalent of the sentence 'being married to someone' is 'being married with someone' (-ile evli), and when the 'with' instrumental preposition is given as an alternative option in the question, participants tended to choose it more frequently, thus leading us to the belief that 'married with' adjective-preposition collocation is a direct translation from Turkish and L1 is of great influence in this specific adjective-preposition collocation. This result coincides with the results in the study of Özışık (2009) in which Turkish students tended to use the preposition 'with' the word 'marry'.

The correct answer for the 8th question is 'with', because of the common preposition usage with the adjective 'bored'. However, Turkish collocation describing the same situation is 'bored from' (-den sıkılmak). Looking at Table 7, it can be seen that 78 participants chose the correct option. With a critical number of 50, participants in TT chose the altered option. This result might be an indicator of the possible existence of interference in the collocation of 'bored with' since more than a third of participants chose ablative preposition 'from'; yet, when the interference inducing distractor is eliminated from options, students tended to choose correct option more frequently which may result in a more effective question in terms of validity.

When the 12th question's results were analysed, it can be seen in Table 7 that 75 participants gave correct answers. Furthermore, 37 participants chose interference inducing distractor. The correct answer for the 12th question is 'of' and the altered option is 'from'. Since the Turkish equivalent usage of the collocation 'guilty of' is 'guilty from' (-den suçlu), participants were apt to use 'from' dative preposition with the adjective 'guilty'.

The correct answer for the 14th question should be 'about'. And according to Table 7, it can be inferred that 65 participants chose the correct option. Furthermore, 63 participants chose the interference-inducing distractor. Since the Turkish equivalent of 'happy about' collocation is 'happy from' (-den mutlu), nearly half of the learners chose the option which may be interpreted as causing interference.

When it comes to the 16th question, it can be said that the correct answer is 'for' to be used with the adjective 'eligible'. And when Table 7 is analyzed, it is seen that 89 participants gave correct answers to the question, and the number of participants who chose interference-inducing distractors is 35. This reason may be caused by the fact that the Turkish equivalent of the collocation is 'eligible to' (-e uygun). Because when the interference-inducing distractor 'to' was not given as an option to the question, participants tended to choose the altered option less.

The correct collocation of the adjective 'limited' should be 'to' in the 21st question, and the number of participants who gave correct answers to the question is 88. Turkish equivalent of the collocation is 'limited with' (-ile sınırlı). For this reason, when the interference-inducing

distractor is placed, 38 participants chose it. This result might be interpreted as it causes interference in this context, and in order to enhance the question's validity it should be avoided.

The correct answer to the 22nd question should be 'with', and 81 participants chose the correct option. Turkish equivalent of the collocation 'patient with' is 'patient to' (-e sabırlı), therefore, when 'to' is given as an option to the question learners might tend to choose it. As can be seen in Table 7, 38 participants chose the interference inducing distractor.

When 25th question is analysed, it can be inferred that the correct collation to be used with the adjective 'suspicious' is 'of'; nevertheless, the Turkish equivalent of the collocation is 'suspicious from' (-den şüpheli), which then caused interference in the answers of students reached a number of 46 which is nearly the 1/3 of the number of participants in TT.

Correct answer to the 28th and question to be analysed is 'with', and 77 participants gave correct answers to the question. Additionally, when how frequently interference inducing distractor are chosen is analysed, it can be seen in Table 7 that 49 participants selected interference inducing distractor. The reason laying behind this fact might be that Turkish equivalent of 'obsessed with' collocation is 'obsessed to' (-e takıntılı).

Last but not least, the correct answer of the 30th question should be 'at' which is the common collocation used; yet, when the preposition 'to' is given as a distractor in the options, students tended to choose it more frequently, which might be resulted from the fact that Turkish equivalent of the collocation 'surprised at' is 'surprised to' (-e şaşırmak). All in all, it would be justified to state that the placement of 'to' caused interference in the results. Under the light of the results, Table 8 presents the adjective-preposition collocations that cause interference.

Table 8. Adjective-preposition collocations that cause interference

Adjective	Commonly used preposition	Interference inducing preposition	Type of the interference inducing preposition
Married	to	with	Instrumental
Bored	of	from	Ablative
Guilty	of	from	Ablative
Happy	about	from	Ablative
Eligible	for	to	Dative
Limited	to	with	Instrumental
Patient	with	to	Dative
Suspicious	of	from	Ablative
Obsessed	with	to	Dative
Surprised	at	to	Dative

As can be seen in Table 8, there are various types of collocations that cause interference. However, it would not be incorrect to state that some cases are more frequent than the others. The most frequent case is dative (5), followed by ablative (4). Lastly instrumental (2) cases are also present in the interference inducing prepositions. However, due to the scarcity of more collocation samples, it would not be valid to classify dative cases as the one that is generally more prone to interference.

As mentioned, there are not many studies which focus on the interference of Turkish in English learning. Furthermore, this study can be seen as a pioneer that handles the subject influence of Turkish as L1 on English adjective-preposition collocations. However, some studies attempt to specify certain other concepts and structures that are prone to be transferred from Turkish to English and these can be presented to support the founding of the study. For

instance, a study conducted by Taşçı and Ataç (2018), revealed that most of the Turkish adult learners' errors were preposition errors (30.8 %). In addition, it is stated in the same study that these errors are the result of interference of learners' L1. Therefore, it can be said that this study poses a parallel stance with the one in question. Similarly, the study by Yuvayapan and Yükselir (2021) in which it is argued that learners believed their collocation errors resulted from L1 interference also supports the importance of L1 in the learning of adjective-preposition collocations.

One of the studies dealing with other languages is by Anjayani and Suprapto, in which they found out that nearly 12% of participants' errors result from prepositions and more than 65% of these are caused by the interference of Persian in English learning. Similarly, Bloom (2007) concludes the fact that Swedish learners tend to use incorrect form of prepositions and forms a list of prepositions that are frequently observed as *to, in, at, of, for, about, on, by*. Comparing the findings of two studies, it can be inferred that some errors that Swedish EFL students make are also apparent in Turkish EFL learners. The research also shares some similarities with the study by Tahaineh (2010) in which he thoroughly defines the differences between English and Arabic by providing examples from both languages at once. He states that in cases where the preposition by is not needed Arabic learners tend to use it; he then develops over his statement by giving the example of learners using *by* with the adjective *famous*. He explains the reason behind the statements as interference because of the usage of the preposition *by* with the adjective *famous* in Arabic. The same example was in the test implemented to conduct this study and learners did choose the preposition *with* in combination with the adjective *famous*. However, since it did not prove any statistically significant differences it was not included in the study.

Conclusion

As it was mentioned before, it is important to specify notions and structures that may induce interference between two languages for the sake of a more effective teaching and valid assessment to take place. Therefore, the study has attempted to reveal the effect of Turkish students' mother tongue on their recognition of English language adjective-preposition collocations. Consequently, it was found that the impact of Turkish on English adjective-preposition collocation learning exists. In addition, the study tried to create a list that included the collocations that might induce interference. As a result, a list that contains certain collocations that induce interference of Turkish on English has been prepared. This list may have some pedagogical implementations. For instance, it can be referred to while teaching adjective-preposition collocations to Turkish learners with a specific focus on interference inducing ones. In addition, this list might prove useful while designing adjective-preposition collocations test. It should also be noted that in order for a test to be more valid, the test has to assess what it attempts to assess; thus, interference of L1 might damage the validity of an aforementioned type of test. As well as its pros, the study has several limitations. One of these limitations that worth to mention is the sampling, the study expands with a limited number of participants. The list provided in the findings section; therefore, might change and more adjective-preposition collocations might be added.

All in all, it can be concluded that teachers, instructors, stakeholders and researchers should be aware of interference of L1 in foreign language learning and find ways to overcome problems resulting from it. There are several ways to specify the concepts or structures that may induce interference. However, the most important and prominent of these is corpora. With the help of corpora, studies that analyse and pinpoint interference causing structures, concepts or areas might be conducted more frequently, which might, in turn, enhance foreign language learning and assessment. Furthermore, as mentioned before, there is a gap in the subject of Turkish interference in the field. In that, nearly all research on interference stem from error analysis which is too broad to deal with. Consequently, further studies can be done within the scope of other structures, concepts or areas that might induce interference.

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Appendix

Appendix A – Neutral Test

1- We all didn't think she was married ……… him, it turned out she was.

    A.   from
    B.   in
    C.   under
    D.   on
    E.   to

2- He had been prepared ……… many scenarios, but this was beyond anything imagined.

    A.   for
    B.   of
    C.   in
    D.   about
    E.   on

3- He seemed careless ……… his own safety.

    A.   of
    B.   with
    C.   on
    D.   from
    E.   for

4- He was wholeheartedly pleased .... his results.

    A.   on
    B.   to
    C.   with
    D.   for
    E.   in

5- I have already admitted being wrong .... the accident.

    A.   of
    B.   to
    C.   in
    D.   about
    E.   through

6- I must admit to you that yesterday I got extremely angry .... you.

    A.   for
    B.   at
    C.   of
    D.   from
    E.   on

7- I really wonder when you will understand that owning an old car is nothing to be ashamed ……….

    A.   for
    B.   on
    C.   with
    D.   of
    E.   towards

8- Cecilia started bungee jumping last summer because she was bored ……… her other hobbies.

    A.   at
    B.   in
    C.   with
    D.   on
    E.   to

9- Although he knows that it irritates me, my father is really fond .... correcting my grammar mistakes when I am speaking English.

    A.   for
    B.   on
    C.   of
    D.   from
    E.   with

10- Sinop is famous .... its sandy beaches and crystal-clear waters.

    A.   of
    B.   in
    C.   over
    D.   for
    E.   on

11- The Prime Minister of Taiwan has declared that they are really grateful .... the Turkish government for its immediate offer of help.

    A.   with
    B.   on
    C.   at
    D.   in
    E.   for

12- After a two-year trial period, the jury found the criminal guilty .... murder.

    A.   to
    B.   on
    C.   with
    D.   of
    E.   over

13- The country hasn't been succesful .... importing goods over the last decade.

    A.   over
    B.   in
    C.   to
    D.   under
    E.   through

14- Last summer, Caner was happy .... saving the right amount of money for his vacation.

    A.   in
    B.   for
    C.   to
    D.   about
    E.   over

15- My best friend's parents were totally disappointed .... him when he showed them his test results.

    A.   with
    B.   on
    C.   to
    D.   of
    E.   over

16- As the secretary has been working in this company for only one month, she is not eligible .... maternity leave.

    A.   from
    B.   in
    C.   on
    D.   for
    E.   of

17- I think you should stop being envious ... him and start working on improvements.

    A.   in
    B.   on
    C.   of
    D.   for
    E.   to

18- This article can be said to be full .... various important distinctions.

    A.   of
    B.   to
    C.   under
    D.   from
    E.   for

19- The Turkish workers in Germany felt inferior .... the others until their team's international success gave them some pride.

    A.   of
    B.   in
    C.   for
    D.   over
    E.   to

20- I thought I was going to be late ... the meeting. Therefore, I took a taxi.

    A.   at
    B.   in
    C.   from
    D.   with
    E.   for

21- The revolutions weren't only limited .... the diplomacy, they were also present in art, science and social life.

    A.   on
    B.   of
    C.   for
    D.   to
    E.   from

22- You should be patient .... Carl, because he is trying to make an improvement.

    A.   with
    B.   over
    C.   on
    D.   in
    E.   from

23- Jolene was so pessimistic ………… her exam score that she didn't even apply for the job.

    A.   under
    B.   in
    C.   from
    D.   about
    E.   with

24- Experts were suspicious ..... the authenticity of the vases found in the catacombs.

    A.   in
    B.   on
    C.   of
    D.   along
    E.   within

25- If you are serious ……… winning the race, you have to practice at all times.

    A.   to
    B.   with
    C.   into
    D.   about
    E.   of

26- He was so upset .... the incident that he called the police immediately.

    A.   from
    B.   with
    C.   in
    D.   about
    E.   for

27- Since his mother's funeral, he has been obsessed .... death.

    A.   over
    B.   in
    C.   about
    D.   with
    E.   for

28- Nathan wasn't aware of how his coach was impressed .... his performance in the last match.

    A.   for
    B.   at
    C.   of
    D.   in
    E.   with

29- The jeweller's wife was surprised …… his calm reaction to the recent increase in the price of the diamonds.

    A.   at
    B.   of
    C.   under
    D.   in
    E.   from

30- Vincent sat next to Maria in silence, as he was terrified …… saying something stupid to her.

    A.   for
    B.   to
    C.   of
    D.   in
    E.   with

Appendix B – Transfer Test

1- We all didn't think she was married ……… him, it turned out she was.

 A. from
 B. in
 C. with
 D. on
 E. to

2- He had been prepared ……… many scenarios, but this was beyond anything imagined.

 A. for
 B. to
 C. in
 D. about
 E. on

3- He seemed careless ……… his own safety.

 A. of
 B. to
 C. on
 D. from
 E. for

4- He was wholeheartedly pleased .... his results.

 A. from
 B. to
 C. with
 D. for
 E. in

5- I have already admitted being wrong .... the accident.

 A. at
 B. to
 C. in
 D. about
 E. through

6- I must admit to you that yesterday I got extremely angry .... you.

 A. with
 B. at
 C. to
 D. from
 E. on

7- I really wonder when you will understand that owning an old car is nothing to be ashamed ……….

 A. for
 B. from
 C. with
 D. of
 E. towards

8- Cecilia started bungee jumping last summer because she was bored ……… her other hobbies.

 A. from
 B. in
 C. with
 D. on
 E. to

9- Although he knows that it irritates me, my father is really fond .... correcting my grammar mistakes when I am speaking English.

 A. for
 B. on
 C. of
 D. from
 E. to

10- Sinop is famous .... its sandy beaches and crystal-clear waters.

 A. with
 B. in
 C. over
 D. for
 E. on

11- The Prime Minister of Taiwan has declared that they are really grateful .... the Turkish government for its immediate offer of help.

 A. from
 B. on
 C. to
 D. in
 E. for

12- After a two-year trial period, the jury found the criminal guilty .... murder.

 A. to
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 C. with
 D. of
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13- The country hasn't been succesful .... importing goods over the last decade.

 A. over
 B. in
 C. to
 D. for
 E. through

14- Last summer, Caner was happy .... saving the right amount of money for his vacation.

 A. in
 B. for
 C. to
 D. about
 E. over

15- My best friend's parents were totally disappointed .... him when he showed them his test results.

    A. with
    B. on
    C. to
    D. from
    E. over

16- As the secretary has been working in this company for only one month, she is not eligible .... maternity leave.

    A. from
    B. in
    C. on
    D. for
    E. to

17- I think you should stop being envious ... him and start working on improvements.

    A. in
    B. on
    C. of
    D. for
    E. to

18- This article can be said to be full .... various important distinctions.

    A. of
    B. to
    C. with
    D. from
    E. for

19- The Turkish workers in Germany felt inferior .... the others until their team's international success gave them some pride.

    A. of
    B. in
    C. for
    D. from
    E. to

20- I thought I was going to be late ... the meeting. Therefore, I took a taxi.

    A. to
    B. in
    C. from
    D. with
    E. for

21- The revolutions weren't only limited .... the diplomacy, they were also present in art, science and social life.

    A. on
    B. of
    C. for
    D. to
    E. with

22- You should be patient .... Carl, because he is trying to make an improvement.

    A. with
    B. to
    C. on
    D. in
    E. from

23- Jolene was so pessimistic ………… her exam score that she didn't even apply for the job.

    A. in
    B. for
    C. from
    D. about
    E. with

24- Experts were suspicious ..... the authenticity of the vases found in the catacombs.

    A. from
    B. for
    C. of
    D. along
    E. within

25- If you are serious ……… winning the race, you have to practice at all times.

    A. to
    B. with
    C. into
    D. about
    E. at

26- He was so upset .... the incident that he called the police immediately.

    A. to
    B. with
    C. in
    D. about
    E. for

27- Since his mother's funeral, he has been obsessed .... death.

    A. to
    B. in
    C. about
    D. with
    E. for

28- Nathan wasn't aware of how his coach was impressed .... his performance in the last match.

    A. for
    B. at
    C. from
    D. in
    E. with

29- The jeweller's wife was surprised …… his calm reaction to the recent increase in the price of the diamonds.

    A.   from
    B.   of
    C.   under
    D.   in
    E.   from

30- Vincent sat next to Maria in silence, as he was terrified …… saying something stupid to her.

    F.   for
    G.   from
    H.   of
    I.   in
    J.   with

The Interlanguage Speech Intelligibility Benefit for Turkish Speakers of English

Tarık Uzun *

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This study is aimed at investigating the Interlanguage Speech Intelligibility Benefit (ISIB) via native English and Turkish listeners' transcriptions of Turkish talkers' words with pronunciation errors in English. Speech samples collected from talkers with a Turkish L1 background (N=16) were presented to 33 L1 English and 33 L1 Turkish listeners via an instrument to be filled with the transcriptions of erroneous target words. Results supported matched ISIB for listeners as Turkish talkers were more intelligible to Turkish listeners in a considerably higher number of target words. Similarly, a higher number of target words were more intelligible to Turkish listeners with statistically significant differences. Most of these words had been labelled erroneous due to L1 transfer caused by orthographic interference, mispronunciations of English sounds that do not exist in Turkish, and loanwords found in similar forms in Turkish. Turkish listeners appeared to rely on such cues in Turkish talkers' speech.
Acknowledgments	
Statement of Publication Ethics	This study was conducted in accordance with scientific publication ethics. The research procedures and data collection tool were ethically approved by Iowa State University Institutional Review Board with the document dated 07/11/2017 and numbered 17-558.
Authors' Contribution Rate	This is a single-authored paper.
Conflict of Interest	The author does not report any conflict of interest.

* Instructor Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9243-963X, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, School of Foreign Languages, uzuntarik@yahoo.com

Introduction

Nonnative speakers (NNSs) speak in a second language (L2) with non-standard speech features that are generally associated with a foreign accent. According to Major (2013), "a foreign accent is a pronunciation deviating from what a native speaker (NS) expects another NS to sound like" (p. 1). Nonnative linguistic forms, in this regard, highlight the existence of an in-between system known as *interlanguage* that contains aspects from the speakers' L1s and L2s (Yule, 2010). These nonnative speech features are due to the transfer of L1 elements to L2, which is also known as negative transfer or interference (Major, 2001). Gass and Selinker (2008) underline that this very own structure of L2 learners is not a deficit system, yet a language filled with random errors composed of various elements of the native language and the target language. Therefore, an interlanguage is made up of phonetic and phonological features that come out as the product of the interaction between a talker's L1 and L2. As Munro (2008) also indicates, one can easily recognize someone from a different speech community with the help of the speech of the talkers even without any phonetic training.

NSs and NNSs interact with one another in various communicative settings. Therefore, NNSs' success in oral communication can be measured by their intelligibility in L2. In terms of research endeavors regarding intelligibility, most of the studies concern nonnative and native interactions where NNSs take on the role of the *talkers* and NSs the *listeners* (Levis, 2018). However, the intelligibility of speech between NNSs (nonnative talkers, NNTs[1], from here onwards) and nonnative listeners (NNLs) is still open for further investigations. Such enquiries are generally handled within the more specific area of investigations referred to as *the interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit* (ISIB).

Despite an increasing interest in ISIB research, there is still a clear research gap in the field and additional studies are needed to provide further insights into the nature of the ISIB. There is also a critical scarcity regarding the ISIB research with L2 talkers and listeners with a Turkish L1 background. Aimed at contributing to filling this gap, this study explored the intelligibility of Turkish talkers for native English listeners and listeners with a shared Turkish L1 background. To this end, the research design was built around the small-scale speech database, the data collection instrument, and partly the research data of the larger doctoral research of Uzun (2019) which originally investigated the salient pronunciation errors of Turkish talkers in English depending on expert listeners' judgments, and the relative importance of these errors on the talkers' intelligibility. This study was later published as a research article (Uzun, 2022).

Literature review

Intelligibility, a common goal for most L2 learners today, was defined by Munro and Derwing (1995) as "the extent to which an utterance is actually understood" (p. 291). A foreign accent is a factor whose potential influence over intelligibility was studied via

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[1] Participants who provide speech samples in ISIB research are generally named as *talkers* so that they are not confused with more general speaker profiles (i.e., native and nonnative speakers). To this end, the term *talker* was preferred over *speaker* in this study as well to keep the discussions in line with the existing ISIB literature while the word *speaker* was used in the initial discussions regarding foreign accent.

empirical studies which generally found that foreign accent was not necessarily an impediment for intelligibility (e.g., Munro & Derwing, 1995; Derwing & Munro, 1997; 1999). The question of whether having a shared L1 brings an advantage for intelligibility in nonnative interactions attracted researchers' interests. Bent and Bradlow (2003) proposed ISIB to describe this advantage and defined it as "the benefit afforded by a shared interlanguage between a nonnative talker and listener" (p. 1600). The researchers also proposed matched and mismatched ISIB, which differ in terms of NNLs' L1 backgrounds. Matched ISIB refers to the equal or greater intelligibility of an NNL for another NNL from the same L1 background while mismatched ISIB involves the equal or greater intelligibility of NNLs from different L1 backgrounds (Bent & Bradlow, 2003). Stibbard and Lee (2006) held a different view from Bent and Bradlow (2003) concerning what benefit entails as they only considered instances of higher intelligibility an advantage, excluding equal intelligibility. Adopting this perspective in their study, Hayes-Harb et al. (2008) proposed two other types of ISIB, ISIB for listeners (ISIB-L) and ISIB for talkers (ISIB-T). They defined ISIB-L as the cases where nonnative speech is more intelligible to NNLs than to NLs while ISIB-T occurs when nonnative speech is more intelligible to NNLs than a speech by native talkers (NTs).

Numerous studies have found evidence in favor of the ISIB for talkers and listeners for different L1 backgrounds. For instance, Xie and Fowler (2013) investigated the intelligibility of native and Mandarin-accented speech in English for native Mandarin and native English listeners and found evidence for ISIB-L for Mandarin listeners. The study provided limited support for ISIB-T as it was only Mandarin-speaking Chinese listeners who identified Mandarin accented Chinese speech more accurately. In Bent and Bradlow's (2003) study, high proficiency (HP) nonnative talkers' (NNT) speech was equally intelligible to listeners from the same L1 background compared to a native English talker's speech. As also discussed above, Bent and Bradlow (2003) considered this sort of an equal intelligibility situation as a benefit while several other researchers did not follow this perspective, but instead looked for a considerable difference between NNLs and NLs (Algethami et al., 2011; Hayes-Harb et al., 2008; Stibbard & Lee, 2006).

Several other studies analyzed specific phonological phenomena in terms of ISIB. For example, Hayes-Harb et al. (2008) examined the intelligibility of native and Mandarin-accented English speech for native English and native Mandarin listeners with a particular focus on word-final voicing contrasts. The study found evidence for ISIB-L where the low proficiency (LP) Mandarin listeners identified LP Mandarin talkers' words more accurately. In another study, Song (2011) investigated the intelligibility of Korean talkers' English lexical stress for Korean and native English listeners. According to the results of the study, there was evidence for ISIB for HP Korean listeners as they were highly accurate in judging stress patterns. In an attempt to examine Chinese-accented English liquids for Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and native English listeners, Lee and Xue (2013) found evidence for matched ISIB-L for final /l/, initial /r/, and final /r/. The results of the study also supported mismatched ISIB-L for LP talkers. Along with these studies, some others also provided empirical evidence in favor of NNLs' advantage over NLs' in

understanding other NNTs' speech (Chu & Taft, 2010; Hansen Edwards et al., 2019; Li & Mok, 2015; Podlipský et al., 2016; Shu et al., 2016; van Wijngaarden, 2002).

On the other hand, various studies found either limited support or no support at all for ISIB. Stibbard and Lee (2006) reported evidence against mismatched ISIB indicating that NNLs with a different L1 background than the talkers found it difficult to understand LP NNLs. The researchers found limited support for matched ISIB between NNLs and NNTs with the same L1 background. Similarly, Munro et al. (2006) reported weak evidence in favor of a speech intelligibility benefit in that familiarity or speaking with a particular accent did not result in significantly improved intelligibility. In this study, only Japanese listeners had a slight advantage when they heard Japanese-accented English while Cantonese listeners did not appear to have such an advantage. In another study, Algethami et al., 2011 examined the ISIB with Saudi talkers and native Australian English and native Saudi listeners. According to the findings, NNLs received higher intelligibility scores than NLs; however, the differences were rather small without statistical significance. Similarly, in several other studies, NNTs were found to be more intelligible to NNLs with a shared L1, yet the NNLs did not outperform NLs (Han et al., 2011; Hansen Edwards et al., 2018; Jułkowska & Cebrian, 2015; Lee et al., 2005). Despite these research efforts in various contexts, there is a clear research gap in terms of ISIB studies conducted with Turkish talkers and listeners.

Based on the above-mentioned discussions, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Do the Turkish talkers' pronunciation errors influence their intelligibility to Turkish and native English listeners differently? Is there an ISIB for matched L1 Turkish listeners?

2. What linguistic features do Turkish listeners rely on in understanding the talkers of English with a Turkish L1 background?

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

The data collection procedures were carried out in Turkey and the United States. English speech samples collected from Turkish talkers in Turkey were presented to different listener groups at different times. In the first step, expert listeners (N=3) listened to the recordings and detected pronunciation errors in them via think aloud. This step was followed by the native listener sessions in which native English listeners in the United States completed an intelligibility task comprised of items with salient pronunciation errors as detected by expert listeners. These three phases were conducted as part of Uzun (2019).

In this follow up study, the same intelligibility task was presented to a group of listeners with a Turkish L1 background. The intelligibility scores of each target word were compared between native and nonnative listener groups with an aim to explore whether either listener group outperformed the other in understanding Turkish talkers' erroneous words. Table 1 presents an overview of the research procedures and tasks utilized in the collection of speech samples and the listening sessions. This study draws on the findings of

native and nonnative listener sessions, which are highlighted on the table below. It is important to underline at this point that the analyses are handled comparatively in this particular study different from Uzun (2019). Participant profiles, tasks, and other details about data collection procedures will be presented in greater detail in the following subsections.

Table 1. An Overview of the Research Procedures

Research Phase	Participant Profiles	N	Tasks	Source
Collecting Speech Samples	Turkish talkers (N=16); English native talkers as distractors (N=4)	20	Read aloud and picture description	Uzun (2019)
Expert Listener Sessions	Expert listeners	3	Error detection via read aloud	Uzun (2019)
Native Listener Sessions	American English native listeners	33	Transcription	Uzun (2019)
Nonnative Listener Sessions	Turkish listeners	33	Transcription	The ISIB Research

The author does not report any competing interests for this study. Listening procedures and the instrument were ethically approved by Iowa State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) with the ID 17-558. All participants attended the study on a voluntary basis and gave their informed consents.

Context

This study was conducted in the United States and Turkey with different talker and listener groups. The following sections provide related contextual details.

Participants

Talkers

Talkers were Turkish students (N=16) (see Tables 1 and 2) enrolled in the English Language Teaching (ELT) programs of two state universities in Turkey. They had an average age of 21 (SD= .63). 13 talkers (81.25%) were female and three were male (18.75%). The talkers did not have any previous experience of living abroad. They did not report any speech disorders. All the talkers were native speakers of Turkish and learned English as a foreign language in Turkey. ELT students in Turkey have a long history with English as they receive extensive English classes starting from their high school years. Upon graduation, they are officially certified as English teachers who are eligible to apply for teaching positions at state and private schools. They also receive 100% English-medium instruction in their programs. In addition to Turkish talkers of English, two American and two British English NTs were also recruited as distractors to provide speech samples representing the two most common native speech models of English. Three NTs were female and one of them was male. Their average age was 32 (SD= 2.16). American talkers were Fulbright English teaching assistants when they participated in the study, and

British talkers were government officers in Turkey. Demographics of the talkers are presented in Table 2:

Table 2. Talkers

Talkers	N	Gender	Average Age
Turkish Talkers	16	13 Female, 3 Male	21
Distractors (Native Talkers*)	4	3 Female, 1 Male	32

* Two talkers with American English and the other two with British English L1 background

Talkers were asked to respond to read aloud and picture description tasks. The read-aloud tasks were paragraph-length, 45-50-word short passages selected from Language Leader B2-C1 coursebook (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2008). The coursebook was selected randomly and B2-C1 level was considered suitable for preservice English teachers enrolled in ELT programs. The passages were on different topics such as immigration, the internet, and globalization which were considered potentially interesting for talkers. Read aloud as a task type was used to control the length of speech samples produced by each talker. Picture description tasks, on the other hand, allowed for a less-controlled speech on a variety of topics like shopping, travel, and volunteering. The pictures used were collected through Google search and printed in color on thick paper before the piloting phase. The task cards were piloted with three native English teachers and a group of 10 university students in a teacher training program. Minor revisions were made on some tasks and application procedures based on pilot phase participants' feedback.

Talker sessions were conducted in quiet rooms in related universities and each session was conducted one-on-one. Talkers were asked to fill out consent and demographic forms first and they were screened in terms of eligibility to participate before the session was initiated. If found eligible, they were given the necessary instructions both orally and using the instruction cards. Once the procedures were over, talkers were asked to pick a topic for each task type, prepare, and respond to it when ready. Their responses were recorded with a Sony IC Recorder ICD-SX850. This procedure was repeated with distractors as well. As a result, a small database comprised of a total of 40 recordings was brought together.

Listeners

In this study, data were collected from two listener groups, American English NLs (N=33) and nonnative Turkish listeners (N=33) (see Table 3). American English NLs were all naive listeners. In other words, none of them had received phonetics, phonology, pronunciation, or linguistics classes, or had any language teaching experience at the time of data collection. 20 listeners (60.6%) were female and 13 of them (39.4 %) were male, and the average age was 21 (SD= 2.51). These listeners had varying degrees of educational backgrounds as 26 of them (78.7%) were undergraduate students, one was a Ph.D. student, and another was holding a Ph.D. They had no previous experience of living or studying in Turkey or learning Turkish.

Turkish listeners were first-year students at the English language and literature, and American culture and literature programs of a state university in Turkey. They were all

proficient English users as students enrolled in language-related programs at higher education have a relatively longer background in English language studies than most learners of English. They get accepted to these programs based on their scores in a nation-wide language examination and receive a 100% English-medium instruction in their programs. As for additional demographics, 23 Turkish listeners were female, and 10 were male with an average age of 18.3 (SD= .97). They did not have any professional teaching experience. They never lived or studied abroad. None of the listeners, Turkish or native English, reported any hearing impairment. A brief overview of the two listener groups is provided in Table 3:

Table 3. Listeners

Listeners	N	Gender	Average Age
American Native Listeners	33	20 Female, 13 Male	21
Nonnative Turkish Listeners	33	23 Female, 10 Male	18.3

Data collection and analysis

Data collection

The intelligibility task

The intelligibility task is a 71-item instrument (See Appendix) comprised of a total of 87 erroneous target words that belonged to Turkish talkers and six others (two in the words section and four in longer utterances) sampled from the speech samples of native British and American talkers who were recruited as distractors. This instrument was developed as part of Uzun's (2019) larger doctoral research in which target erroneous words were detected by at least two expert listeners out of three via think-aloud. All the items that belonged to Turkish talkers contained at least one target word with an agreed pronunciation error.

The items in the instrument were fill-in-the-blanks type and the erroneous words were left blank for listeners to transcribe on paper. In the selection process of erroneous words to be placed into the instrument, representativeness of detected error types as well as the overall size of the instrument, were taken into consideration for a reliable implementation. The instrument was piloted with a native English listener and three upper-intermediate level Turkish listeners. Their task completion times were recorded, and their feedback was requested. No matter what their L1 backgrounds were, the participants completed the task in 30-35 minutes and found the level of the recordings suitable for them without reporting any issues in understanding or completing the tasks.

Listening Sessions

Slightly different procedures were followed in listening sessions. Sessions with native English listeners were conducted face to face at a state university in the United States. They were held in quiet rooms on a personal computer using Sony MDR-P180 model headsets. All the sessions were done on paper and monitored by the researcher. Turkish listeners did their session all at once at a computer lab located in the listeners' university campus in Turkey. They accessed the audio recordings on personal computers

using Creative HS-350 headsets and completed the task on paper. All the computers, headsets, and recordings were checked by the researcher before the session in case of technical issues. This listening session in the computer lab was also monitored by the researcher.

Listeners in all sessions were reached via personal contacts and their eligibility was screened via the items placed in the demographic forms. They were first requested to fill out consent and demographic forms and additional instructions were given orally to avoid possible confusions. They were then asked to start listening with two training items to practice the activity and check the equipment. Listeners were allowed to listen to each recording up to two times. No technical issues occurred, and all the listeners in both sessions completed the task in 30 to 40 minutes.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in three subsequent steps which involved the comparisons of Turkish and native English listeners' intelligibility scores, analyses into the error types in the target words and the analyses of no-match transcriptions of the two listener groups (see Figure 1):

Figure 1. Data Analysis Procedure
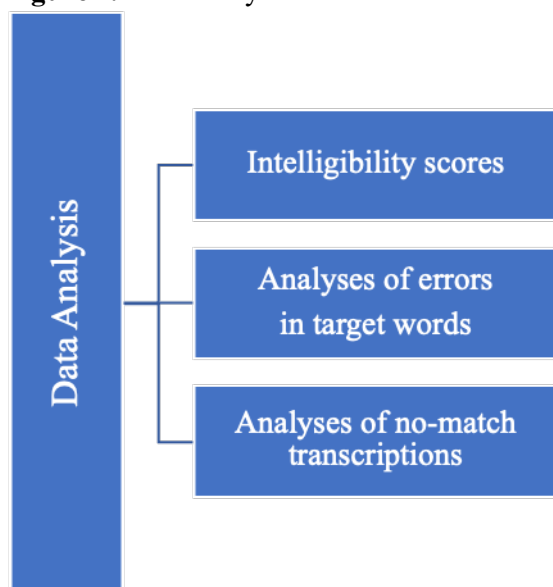
The first analysis was conducted via descriptive (percentages) and inferential statistics (chi-square tests). Intelligibility scores, in other words, the rates of listeners' 'match' transcriptions with the talkers' intended words, were calculated via percentages for each target word. Then, chi-square tests were employed to explore the statistical significance of the differences in the intelligibility scores between the two listener groups.

Secondly, target words that were significantly more intelligible to Turkish and native English listeners were listed separately and possible linguistic factors contributing to the intelligibility of Turkish talkers were explored. To this end, expert listeners' error descriptions (i.e., vowel, consonant, and word stress errors) reported in Uzun's (2019)

work were utilized to reach certain patterns. This analysis also revealed what specific linguistic features Turkish listeners relied on in understanding Turkish talkers' speech.

Finally, no-match transcriptions of the two listener groups were analyzed comparatively to gain a deeper understanding into the nature of differences in how NNLs and NLs perceive Turkish talkers' erroneous target words comparatively. Such transcriptions were first listed for each target word separately, and the numbers of no-match alternatives proposed were counted and compared between the listener groups. Then, the alternatives produced for each word were examined in further detail to investigate if there is further evidence for an ISIB for Turkish listeners.

Results

Overall, the results indicated that Turkish talkers' erroneous words influenced their intelligibility to native English and Turkish listeners differently. Also, Turkish talkers were generally more intelligible to Turkish talkers, which demonstrated evidence for a matched ISIB-L.

Comparisons of the Intelligibility Scores

Turkish listeners were able to figure out Turkish talkers' words more successfully despite their pronunciation errors. This result provided supporting evidence for a matched ISIB-L for Turkish listeners. It was found that Turkish listeners' intelligibility scores were higher in 44 target words (50.6%) out of a total of 87 that belonged to Turkish talkers. On the other hand, native English listeners' intelligibility scores were higher in 18 target words only (20.7%). The two listener groups received equal intelligibility scores in 25 target words (28.7) (see Table 4):

Table 4. Distribution of Higher Intelligibility Target Words across Listener Groups

Listener Group	Number of Words	%
Turkish	44	50.6
Native English	18	20.7
Equally Intelligible	25	28.7
Total	87	100

Despite this initial finding, further analyses were needed to investigate whether differences were statistically significant. According to the results of the chi-square tests conducted on each target word, differences in intelligibility scores were found statistically significant in favor of either listener group in a total of 34 target words. 25 words (%73.5) were significantly more intelligible to Turkish listeners while only 9 (%26.5) were significantly more intelligible to native English listeners ($p<0.05$) including one word that belonged to a NT distractor (see Table 5).

Table 5. Distribution of Higher Intelligibility Target Words with a Significant Difference

Listener Group	Number of Words	%
Turkish	25	73.5
Native English	9	26.5
Total	34	100

This result demonstrates that Turkish listeners were considerably more intelligible to Turkish listeners despite their pronunciation errors.

Pronunciation errors in target words significantly more intelligible to Turkish listeners

The results indicate that target words that were significantly more intelligible to Turkish listeners mostly contained segmental errors. Out of 25 target words, 12 of them had been labelled erroneous due to mispronounced vowels which were followed by six words with consonant errors, three words with word stress errors, and four multiple-error words (three words being in *vowel + vowel* and one *consonant + vowel* pattern). Target words with segmental errors were mainly motivated by different sources of L1 influence which were orthographic interference, mispronunciations of English sounds that do not exist in Turkish, and loanwords. It can be assumed that Turkish listeners intuitively used these cues in making sense of Turkish talkers' speech.

The role of orthographic interference

Orthography was one of the leading factors in Turkish talkers' pronunciation errors. Out of a total of 25 target words that were significantly more intelligible to Turkish listeners, at least nine of them were erroneous due to orthographic interference. Naturally, this influence was clear in words with segmental errors, particularly vowel errors. Vowel errors in the words 'war' (/wɔr/ - [wʌr]) and 'focus' (/ˈfoʊkəs/ - /ˈfokəs/) are examples of orthographic interference and Turkish listeners outperformed native English listeners in these mispronounced words. The only consonant error of this sort was seen in the word 'laughing' where the talker pronounced the /f/ sound in the second syllable as [k]. It can be assumed that the talker was under the influence of the <g> grapheme which would be pronounced in Standard Turkish as [g] and it is a close alternative to [k] in terms of both manner and place of articulation. Also, missing consonants in words like 'persuading' (/w/ not pronounced in the second syllable) and 'queue' (/j/ not pronounced) were likely due to orthography as well and Turkish listeners compensated for these sounds more successfully. As an example for multiple error target words, a talker pronounced the word 'download' as /danlod/ instead of /ˈdaʊnˌloʊd/ with two diphthong errors. However, Turkish listeners did better in figuring out the word possibly making use of the first vowels in diphthongs as clues.

Mispronunciations of English sounds that do not exist in Turkish

Target words with mispronounced English sounds which do not exist in Turkish were better understood by Turkish listeners in general. Two of the Turkish talkers' pronunciation errors in the words section stemmed from /w/ which is a non-existent sound in Turkish. In one of these target words, Turkish listeners seemed to decode the word more successfully than native English listeners despite the mispronounced [w] in the initial syllable of the word 'woman'. In the longer utterances section, Turkish talkers tended to approximate sounds in the words 'sheeps', 'achievements', 'hat', 'caps', and 'this is' to different consonant and vowels that are used in standard Turkish. The tense vowel /i/ was pronounced lax as [ɪ] in 'sheeps' and the second syllable of 'achievements'. Similarly, for 'hat' and 'caps', the non-existent vowel /æ/ in standard Turkish was pronounced as an [ɛ] by Turkish talkers. The consonant /ð/ is also non-existent in Turkish and it was approximated to [z]. Yet, all these erroneous target words were more intelligible to Turkish listeners with a statistically significant difference.

Loanwords

The third evidence of L1 influence comes from loanwords that are used in similar forms in the two languages. The word 'balance' is a loanword in Turkish which is spelled as 'balans' and pronounced as [bɑlɑns]. The English word 'balance' was pronounced by a Turkish talker the same way as its Turkish equivalent, which facilitated the understanding for Turkish listeners. This example relates to orthography as well because <a> grapheme is pronounced as [ɑ] in standard Turkish. A similar example is 'contrast' which contained two vowel errors, yet more Turkish listeners transcribed it correctly with a statistically significant difference. This word is spelled as 'kontrast' and pronounced as [kʰɔntrɑst] by the Turkish talker, the same way as its Turkish equivalent. 'cinema' was a multiple error word with a vowel and a word stress error. Beyond that, the word is spelled as 'sinema' and pronounced as [sɪˈnɛmɑ] in Turkish as a loanword. This word was unintelligible to all the native English listeners while 24 Turkish listeners transcribed it correctly.

Suprasegmental errors and intelligibility

The findings indicate that Turkish listeners make up for the segmental errors of Turkish talkers more effectively than native English listeners. In terms of suprasegmentals, three target words with word stress errors were more intelligible to Turkish listeners with statistically significant differences. In all these words, stress was incorrectly shifted to a syllable on the right. It is also worth noting that no word with a word stress error was more intelligible to native English listeners.

Errors in target words significantly more intelligible to native English listeners

Even though the findings provided evidence for a matched ISIB-L for Turkish listeners, a total of eight words were more intelligible to native English listeners with statistically significant differences. One of these words was found in the words section, and the remaining seven were identified in longer utterances. The target words that were significantly more intelligible to native English listeners did not reveal a clear pattern making it hard to offer sound explanations. All the target words in this category contained segmental errors only, and more specifically, there were slightly more consonant errors. Besides this, the target word 'doctorates' that belonged to an American native distractor was significantly more intelligible to native English listeners.

Interpreting no-match transcriptions

The third analysis was into the no-match transcriptions which demonstrated that native English listeners offered a considerably higher number of options when they could not find the talkers' intended words. Native English talkers proposed more options in 47 target words (75.8%) out of a total of 62 in which the intelligibility scores were not equal between the listener groups. Turkish listeners offered more words in only 15 target words (24.2%) in their no-match transcriptions. To illustrate, the word 'support' in the words section was transcribed as 'sport' (19 times), 'part' and 'sparked' (three times each), 'porch' (twice), 'parked', 'sprout', 'spared' and 'start' (once each) by native English listeners. Turkish listeners, on the other hand, transcribed the word only as 'sport' as a no-

match transcription alternative. Two examples from item 29 lend additional evidence for the same argument:

Item 29. It also leads to the ***destruction*** of *natural **resources***

      Target words in this utterance were 'destruction' and 'resources', and the italicized parts were left blank for listeners to transcribe (the word 'natural' was not a target word but still included in the blank in order not to give the listeners an additional clue). The word 'destruction' was pronounced as [dɪˈstrækʃən], which led to transcriptions by native English listeners as 'distraction' (17 times), 'deflection', 'extraction', and 'fraction' (once each). The only alternative for Turkish listeners, on the other hand, was 'distraction' (18 times). 'Resources' was pronounced as [rɪˈsɔrdʒəz] instead of /rɪˈsɔrsɪz/ and this error resulted in no-match transcriptions for native English listeners as follows: 'soldiers' and 'surges' (3 times each), 'charges' (twice), 'orders', 'searches', and 'research' (once each). Again, the no-match word alternatives were far more varied compared to Turkish listeners who only transcribed the word as 'sources' (9 times) and 'researches' (once). This word also underlines the role of a shared L1 orthography between Turkish talkers and listeners because the <c> grapheme is pronounced as [dʒ] in Turkish. It appears that Turkish listeners did not consider words that specifically contained a [dʒ] sound in their transcriptions while native English listeners did.

      A final example of this could be the word 'migrate' which was pronounced as [ˈmɪgreɪt] by a Turkish talker instead of /ˈmaɪgreɪt/. This word was transcribed correctly by 11 native English and 22 Turkish listeners. Despite this difference, an interesting finding was the variety of alternatives in native English listeners' no-match transcriptions. The alternative words provided were 'integrate' (5 times), 'negate', 'negrate' (three times each), 'emigrate', 'degrade', immigrate', 'neglect' and 'make great' (twice each) most of which contained an [ɪ] sound in the initial syllable. It might be assumed that more Turkish listeners were able to figure that out this word probably because they were not confused upon hearing an [ɪ] sound corresponding to the <i> grapheme.

Discussion

      This study investigated matched ISIB-L by drawing on the intelligibility scores of Turkish talkers' erroneous target words to native English listeners and Turkish listeners comparatively. The most important result was that Turkish listeners seemed to benefit from a shared L1 in understanding other Turkish talkers' spoken productions despite the pronunciation errors involved, which was consistent with studies that found evidence in favor of an ISIB-L for HP listeners (Li & Mok, 2015; Song, 2011; Xie & Fowler, 2013). It should also be underlined that this result was not in line with several other studies that related such an advantage to other factors like speech properties (Jułkowska & Cebrian, 2015; Munro et al., 2006), exposure to accented speech (Li & Mok, 2015), or others which indicated that such an advantage has limited significance (Algethami et al., 2011; Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Stibbard & Lee, 2006). In this study, target words which were more intelligible to Turkish listeners with a statistical significance pointed to L1-related factors which were orthographic interference, mispronunciations of English sounds that do not exist in Turkish, and loanwords pronounced in similar ways as their Turkish equivalents.

Turkish talkers tended to make several pronunciation errors due to differences in orthography between English and Turkish (Uzun, 2019). Due to its highly transparent orthography, Turkish employs a high degree of sound-letter correspondence which interferes with English pronunciation (Bayraktaroğlu, 2008). Turkish talkers seemed to have difficulty with English vowels, which possibly relates to the more indirect nature of sound-spelling correspondence and orthography in English, in Levis and Barriuso's (2012) terms. Yet, this turned into an advantage when the listeners and talkers shared the same L1 as seen in this study. The findings also suggested that target words with word stress errors were significantly more intelligible to Turkish listeners. According to Field (2005) and Richards (2016), stress errors shifted incorrectly to a syllable on the right in a word have a more detrimental effect on intelligibility; however, Turkish listeners were not affected by the misplacement of word stress by Turkish talkers, which could likely be due to the syllable-timed nature of Turkish.

The analyses into the no-match transcriptions of Turkish and native English listeners showed that native English listeners offered considerably higher numbers of words in their no-match transcriptions, and many of them were higher-level lexical items. The alternatives seen in Turkish listeners' no-match transcriptions were rather limited, but their intelligibility scores were higher in more cases. Native English listeners' more comprehensive L1 lexical knowledge might likely have played a role in approximating mispronounced words to different possible alternatives; however, not surprisingly, native English listeners did not make use of such large vocabulary knowledge. Some of the words proposed by native English listeners might have even been unknown to some Turkish listeners. This finding provides a more indirect support for the ISIB. Due to the shared L1 phonological background with the talkers, Turkish listeners might have intuitively narrowed down the possibilities that could be an option for a target word more easily. This was much harder for native English listeners since they could not limit the possible options based on possible phonological clues like a shared L1 or familiarity with the accent. This finding also highlights the complex nature of intelligibility which, as Levis (2020) also put, cannot simply be restricted to pronunciation, but also relates to the lexicon, grammar, and other linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the matched ISIB-L for Turkish listeners in experimental settings. The results showed that a shared L1 might facilitate communication between L2 speakers despite talkers' pronunciation errors. However, NNTs' pronunciation errors might naturally impair their intelligibility in their interactions with NTs or NNTs with different L1 backgrounds to varying degrees as well. An implication of this study is the necessity for an increased focus on intelligibility in language teaching settings. One way of achieving this could be to pay attention to the common pronunciation errors of L2 talkers or learners stemming from L1 interference. Errors that commonly lead to unintelligibility issues might be handled in classes more carefully. As Levis (2018) also puts, an intelligibility-based instruction should recognize learners as individuals or members of a group with certain difficulties in common that need to be addressed. To this

end, further empirical studies are of critical importance with understudied groups with certain L1 backgrounds, such as Turkish, to have a better understanding of learners' difficulties and needs.

As for limitations, Turkish talkers and listeners were all considered HP based on the programs they were enrolled in, and LP talkers or listeners were not included in the research. Besides this, no specific linguistic feature was analyzed in terms of its possible role for the ISIB. Further studies could reexamine the roles of vowels, consonants, word stress, or other phonological aspects to provide insights into the ISIB with more controlled stimulus and experimental research designs. Another limitation was related to the type of the ISIB that was explored in this study which was matched ISIB-L. With experimental research designs and the participation of Turkish talkers and listeners, further studies can analyze other proposed versions of the ISIB as well.

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Appendix

THE INTELLIGIBILITY TEST
WITH ANSWERS

In this test, you will be presented a total of 71 recordings. Listen to the recordings in the given order and fill in the blanks with one or more words. You can listen to each recording twice.

The task has two sections: 'Words' and 'Longer Utterances'. Read the instructions carefully and ask the researcher if you have any questions. Do the examples at the beginning of each part before moving on to the actual test. Please write your name and surname before starting the session. Your identifying information will be kept secret and not shared with third parties.

Name and Surname: …………………………………………………

SECTION A: WORDS

Write the words you hear in each item. Start with the examples first.

Example 1: ….*teenagers*….
Example 2: ……*street*…...

You may start if you are ready.

1. *produced*
2. *three*
3. *support*
4. *opportunities* (NS)
5. *evolution*
6. *woman*
7. *are*
8. *conditions*
9. *cinema*
10. *traditional*
11. *bazaar* (NS)
12. *persuading*

SECTION B: LONGER UTTERANCES
Fill in the blanks with the word(s) you hear (one or more words for each blank). Start with the examples first.

Example 3: They are ….*professional*…. people at the top of their chosen career.
Example 4: The e-book has many other ….*advantages*….

You may start if you are ready.
13. *Between **individuals*** in the same sports
14. The magic ***ingredient*** was electronic paper
15. After using them for any ***length*** of time
16. There is a lot of ***inequality*** involved in globalization
17. And we see some ***sheeps*** walking alongside the people
18. There is so much ***poverty*** in the world
19. *Peer **pressure*** can lead people to do ***things***
20. ***Polar ice*** has been shrinking
21. The man and woman are having dinner in a *restaurant* **(NS)**
22. Sports ***stars*** are ***worth*** the money they earn
23. The other is a *white **hat*** and a *black **bag***
24. Like any well-known actor or *pop **star***
25. Display technology used for ***computer*** *screens*
26. I ***think*** they are ***refugees***
27. And there are some ***passengers*** in ***queue***, in line
28. Sports stars do not *save **lives***
29. It also leads to the ***destruction*** of *natural **resources***
30. People who are low on confidence and ***unsure*** *of* themselves
31. ***download*** everything they need to their ***e-book***
32. Volunteers pick up the garbage and ***this is*** the charity organization
33. It has become very common, *especially* in America **(NS)**
34. This couple ***focus*** *on* just one … one kind of a television
35. The child achieves ***above-average*** results at school
36. There is a ***girl*** who is ***talking*** on the phone
37. ***Amount*** of money earned by top ***sportsmen*** and ***women***
38. The most ***common*** form of *social **influence***
39. Or really ***contribute*** much to the ***society***
40. It means a ***faster*** *rate* of development

41. *On balance*, it can be said that
42. And students *cheating* with his friend
43. And which will change lives *the most*
44. They have to *migrate* their *countries*
45. Electronics *companies* had been working on the e-book
46. And also their *caps* and uniforms are purple
47. Environmentalists have not achieved any *significant* results
48. And there are *check-in* tables
49. Globalisation also *connects* people by means of communication. **(NS)**
50. *In contrast*, some people argue
51. There is a *classroom atmosphere*
52. And maybe they have a *war* in their country
53. She is talking and *laughing* … in the mobile phone
54. It is *obvious* that there are differences
55. As *well* as text, the e-book can *display* pictures and diagrams.
56. Probably getting their masters, maybe their *doctorates* **(NS)**
57. Globalization *benefits* the rich nations, who *control prices*
58. *Companies* that will be *supplying* medical and scientific e-book files
59. A US invention that is *completely* different
60. More *likely* to seek their *peers' approval*
61. They go to somewhere, *maybe Europe* or somewhere else
62. *Nearly* 75 *thousand square kilometers*
63. Teacher *deals with* another things
64. *It is wrong* to pay sports stars
65. They found the perfect combination of *materials* and *technology*
66. Many people with *poor eyesight* will be able to read
67. In *recent* years
68. To enhance people's *lives* by their *achievements*
69. Usually *defined* as the tendency to think
70. Often *feature* in lists of world's richest people
71. The *professor* gives the diploma to the student

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Research Article

"Academic Turkish Is Like…": International Students' Perceptions About Academic Turkish Concept *

Gürkan MORALI **   **Leyla ÇİMEN***

ABSTRACT

Metaphors are a tool that can be used in academic life and wherever there is discourse to draw attention to the current situation and its reasons. This study reveals international students' perceptions of Academic Turkish through metaphors. The study participants international students who studied Academic Turkish at Erciyes University Continuing Education Center. The research data were obtained by filling the gaps in the expression "Academic Turkish, in my opinion, is like… Because…"by international students. This research was carried out using a phenomenological research design and the data obtained were analyzed by content analysis. The study's findings show more positive and valid metaphors formed by international students towards the concept of Academic Turkish. The participants' metaphors are classified as background, guidance, need, improvement in the positive category, and a waste of time under the negative category. It is seen that metaphors are mainly clustered in the background sub-category of positive metaphors. It is seen that Academic Turkish mainly creates positive perceptions. Still, this course should be further enriched in terms of the course book, the level of education, and the department of students.

Introduction

The metaphor is one of the linguistic elements individuals use in their daily language. The word comes from the Greek metapherein: 'meta' 'beyond' and 'phrein' 'to bring' (Koro-Ljungberg, 2001; Levine, 2005). Metaphors have a long history going back to Plato and Aristotle. In ancient Greece, metaphors were seen as an element of discourse, part of rhetoric. The metaphor, which is limited to discourse in an oral culture, became a subject discussion in many areas such as linguistics, cognitive linguistics, psychology, and education in the 20th century. Thus, metaphor is no longer just a part of rhetoric; it is considered a representation of perception and thought. Jensen (2006) states that metaphor is a common way of expressing complex concepts in this direction. For this reason, people have frequently benefited from metaphors in both making senses of and transferring their experiences in their daily lives (Punch, 2005).

Metaphor transforms meaning from a symbol into another symbol with equivalence (İmer, Kocaman, & Özsoy, 2011; Morey, 2011). In other words, metaphors become meaningful when a symbol is associated with another symbol (Koro-Ljungberg, 2001). As Lakoff and Johnson (2015, p. 30) stated, "the essence of metaphor is to understand and experience one kind of thing according to another kind of thing". Low (1988) points out that metaphor is a reclassification; According to him, the metaphor is "to treat X as if it were Y in some way" (p. 126). For example, considering the words "language" and "world." Language is like the world: various world features are transferred to language in its expression. In this way, language is explained with multiple features of the world. Creating a new mental scheme by establishing a relationship between two different phenomena makes the metaphor powerful (Saban, 2008).

Metaphors are among the elements that enrich the use of language. However, metaphors cannot be limited to embellishing the language in daily life (Saban, 2008). Therefore, it is insufficient to evaluate the importance of metaphors only in language. Metaphors are also remarkable in that they reflect the unique thinking models of individuals that form the background of linguistic appearance. Metaphors are evaluated as "way of thinking" and "way of seeing" (Yazar, Özekinci, & Lala, 2017). The matching of the two concepts "highlights a common quality and thus a perceptual abstraction occurs without giving up the contexts in which the highlighted quality comes to life" (Arnheim, 2007, p. 79). Metaphors can shape both our thoughts and actions (Saban, 2010; Sfard, 2009; Lakoff & Johnson, 2015). For this reason, it is stated that metaphor is a powerful mental tool that helps an individual understand and explain a high-level abstract, complex, or theoretical phenomenon (Güneş & Tezcan, 2017).

Metaphors are not limited to daily life, language and literature, but are discussed in different fields, and interdisciplinary studies have become widespread. The Conceptual Metaphor Theory, which is based on the studies of cognitive linguists such as Lakoff and Johnson (2015) and Kövecses (2011), has become so widespread because metaphor is not only seen as an essential element of literature and oratory (Gomez, 2015). Besides, unlike traditional metaphor studies, this theory considers the mapping process between the source domain and the target domain, the cognitive abilities, background information, and cultural differences of the producer and the receiver (Deignan, 2003). On the other hand,

metaphors as means of investigation act as a bridge for examining personal experiences, habits, and perceptions in education. As mentioned above, it is stated that although the place of metaphors in daily life draws attention from many aspects, they also play an essentail role in the field of education (Botha, 2009). Therefore, metaphors have been studied in different contexts as the subject of many scientific studies on education. In this direction, the effects of learning metaphors on cognitive abilities such as memory, attention, and remembering were discussed in education (Whitney, Budd, & Mio, 1996; Cameron, 2003). Metaphors in linguistics are generally the subject of semantics, pragmatic and discourse studies. For some time, metaphor has been used both as a data collection tool and as a method in educational research (Cameron & Maslen, 2010). This study discussed metaphorical perceptions in Academic Turkish in teaching Turkish as a second language. As stated by Akkaya (2013), individuals' perceptions of language in the learning process are essential; as a matter of fact, "positive metaphorical perceptions affect foreign language learning positively, while negative metaphorical perceptions can also give the opposite result" (Gömleksiz, 2013, p.652).

Literature review

Studies on metaphors in teaching Turkish as a second language are limited. The studies on this subject were carried out by Akkaya (2013), Ariogul and Uzun (2011), Boylu and Işık (2017), Göçen (2019) and Kalenderoğlu and Armut (2019). In the study conducted by Ariogul and Uzun (2011), metaphors reflected the positive aspects of Arabic students' Turkish learning experiences. Akkaya (2013), in his research examining the perceptions of Syrian refugees towards Turkish, states that the most of the participants have developed positive metaphors and have positive perceptions. Boylu and Işık (2017) determined the perceptions of 81 students who learn Turkish as a foreign language towards Turkish through metaphor; 31 students see Turkish as a need, 21 students find it difficult, and 9 of them associate it with their own language or another language they know. Finally, 30 students have a positive feeling for Turkish. Similarly, Kalenderoğlu and Armut (2019) also researched the metaphor of Turkish learners in Turkey about Turkish Teachers, Turkish, TOMER, and Turkey; They found that participants primarily compared Turkish to their mother tongue or other languages. Göçen (2019), uses metaphors to determine the grammatical perceptions of Turkish learners as a foreign language. As can be seen, studies in the literature focus on metaphorical perceptions of Turkish; studies on Academic Turkish are minimal.

Academic Turkish education is a new phenomenon for international students due to its unique characteristics. Academic Turkish education focuses on developing communicative skills necessary for academic studies in the target language. As a sub-branch of special-purpose language teaching, foreign language teaching for academic purposes is about teaching and developing communicative and academic skills that will help in the academic context. (Kocaman, Gürata & Durmuş, 2020). In this respect, the Academic Turkish course is not limited to academic writing. It includes making presentations, using note-taking techniques for listening skills, preparing handouts, and

topics such as official e-mail, abstract, and essay writing. In short, Academic Turkish education aims to gain academic discourse's grammar and word structure features along with reading, listening, speaking, and writing language skills. When students who are used to general Turkish education systematics from A1 to C1 encounter Academic Turkish, a new dimension related to Turkish is formed in their minds. Each individual attributes meanings to this dimension. As a result of their experience, a unique academic Turkish scheme is formed in their mental world. Describing perceptions by revealing these schemas is a prerequisite for answering how Academic Turkish is interpreted. However, no study examines the Academic Turkish perceptions of international students in teaching Turkish as a second language. The study aims to reveal and interpret international students' perceptions of Academic Turkish through metaphors. For this purpose, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. With which metaphors do international students reveal their perceptions of academic Turkish?

2. Under which conceptual categories are the created metaphors gathered in terms of their common features?

Methodology

Research design and publication ethics

This research is a phenomenological study conducted within the framework of the qualitative research approach. The main reason for choosing this model is that perceptions are also considered as a phenomenon (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). Although international students take the same Academic Turkish course and have common experiences, they attribute their own meanings to the concept of academic Turkish in line with variables such as needs, interests, goals, etc. Each has a different academic Turkish perception. In this context, the phenomenon examined within the scope of the research is how the academic Turkish perceptions of international students in the world of thought are transformed into a concept through metaphors. Because, examining metaphors in qualitative research allows the phenomenon to be reflected in an original way (Carpenter, 2008). The ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Erciyes University Social and Human Sciences Research and Publication Ethics Board, in its document numbered 124 and dated March 30, 2021.

Participants

The study participants consisted of 70 international students studying Academic Turkish at a state university. Forty-three of the students were men and 27 of them were women. The students came to Turkey from different countries to get undergraduate, and graduate degrees, complete C1 Turkish language education, take compulsory Turkish academic education, and obtain a "Turkish Scholarship". The present researcher was one of the teachers who taught this group. The fact that the participants consisted of students in science and social groups reflects the maximum diversity of the research. For this reason, the participants were determined according to the easy-reachable

and maximum diversity sampling methods (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). The purpose of choosing the easy-reachable sampling method is that the researcher can directly reach the participants, take their lessons and be effective in process management.

Data collection and analysis

To determine international students'perceptions of academic Turkish concept, students were asked to fill in the form containing personal information and expression "In my opinion, academic Turkish is like… Because…". In metaphor studies, the expression "like" is used to reflect the connection between the subject of the metaphor and its source, and the conjunction "because" is used to justify the created metaphor (Saban, 2009). This written expression pattern is preferred because it is used very often in the literature and is suitable for the nature of the research. The form is in Turkish, and students were asked to fill it in Turkish. Since this article is written in English, the authors have translated the collected data into English.

Research forms were handed out to the participants by the researcher. The participants were informed verbally that the research form was divided into three parts. The first part is the instruction part that includes introductory information about the research. In this section, besides some information introducing the research, there are ethical explanations that the personal information of the participants will not be shared. This section ends with the participants' options to declare whether they voluntarily participated in the study or not. In the second part, personal information includes variables such as country, faculty, and department to be studied, education level, and gender. In the last part, an expression pattern will form the metaphor. Besides, a metaphor example has been added to this section despite the possibility that students will do a metaphor study for the first time. In this way, the students can understand what to do more quickly.

Procedure

The data were analyzed using the content analysis technique. Content analysis was carried out by following the (1) labeling and sorting stage, (2) sample metaphor image compilation stage, (3) categorization stage, (4) inter-rater reliability rate that Saban, Koçbeker & Saban (2006) included and implemented in their study.

1. Labeling and sorting stage: This first stage examined whether international students could convey their Academic Turkish perceptions by forming a metaphor. First, all forms available are numbered by gender and department EKF1, EKF2; EKS1, EKS2… for men; KKF1, KKF2; KKS1; KKS2... for women. Then, the metaphors in the forms and the reasons were examined. If the metaphor was not specified or if the justification for the metaphor was not presented despite the specified metaphor, or if only an explanation were made instead of the metaphor, such forms were excluded from the research. Forms belonging to five participants (four men and one woman) were sorted out within the scope of the research for the reasons stated.

2. Sample metaphor image compilation stage: In this step, the metaphor expressions and explanations in the remaining valid forms are numbered alphabetically by gender-based ordering. In this way, a list indicating valid metaphors of 65 participants and

their justifications was obtained. This list makes it easy to reach categories from metaphors and positively affects the data analysis process (Saban, 2008; 2009). The list consists of three columns. The first column contains numbers based on gender, the second column contains metaphors, and the third column contains the reasons for creating metaphors. The participants' reasons were reflected no expression was shortened. The researcher corrected the language errors in the written expressions of the participants

3. The categorization stage: At this stage, as Saban, Koçbeker and Saban (2006) also applied, firstly, metaphors are categorized to reflect positive and negative perceptions. Later, it was classified under various conceptual categories in common features. The positive category includes four sub-categories: background, guidance, need, improvement; the negative category includes two sub-categories as a waste of time and useless. The subjects, sources, and relationships between the metaphors whose reasons were specified in the part "because ..." were considered (Saban, 2008).

4. Establishing the inter-rater reliability rate: This stage includes the control-coding applied to ensure reliability. Control coding refers to the consensus of coders on the size of the data block, code generation, and use for definitional clarity and reliability control (Miles & Huberman, 2019). The list formed by the coders includes five conceptual categories under two upper categories, positive and negative. Then, the list was presented to an expert who has previously conducted metaphorical perception research. The coding agreement between the coding made by the expert and the researchers' coding was calculated using the reliability=agreement/(agreement+disagreement) formula of Miles and Huberman (2019). As a result, it was found that the coding agreement between experts and researchers was 91%.

Results

The findings obtained within the scope of this research are presented below under various headings.

Findings Regarding Conceptual Categories

International students who participated in the study were able to create various metaphors regarding the concept of Academic Turkish. These metaphors revealed both positive and negative perceptions of students about the concept of Academic Turkish. Descriptive information about these metaphors and the categories derived from them are presented in the table below.

Table 1. Distribution of Participants' Metaphors Regarding the Concept of Academic Turkish by Categories

Categories	Conceptual Category	f	Metaphors [Participant Code]	n
positive	background	18	Encyclopedia (ansiklopedi) [KKS10], key (anahtar) [EKF3, EKF15, EKS1, EKS11, EKS17], tool (araç) [EKF10], research article (araştırma makalesi) [KKS1], sea (deniz) [EKS10, KKS12], introduction of the truth of the world (dünyanın gerçeğinin tanıtımı) [KKF9], benefit (fayda) [EKF16], long-term school (geniş dönemli okul) [KKF6], life (hayat) [EKF18, KKS2, KKS3], eye (göz)	26

			[EKF14], clue (ipucu) [EKS3], reference (kaynak) [EKF6], fruit (meyve) [EKS4], music (müzik) [EKS2] guide (rehber) [EKS9], basic (temel) [EKF12, EKF20], database (very Tabanı) [EKF1], writing course (yazma kursu) [EKF17]		
	guidance	14	Family support (aile desteği) [KKS5], key (anahtar) [KKS12], tool (araç) [KKS8], father's advice (baba tavsiyesi) [KKS6], light (ışık) [EKF2, EKF7, KKF10], future (gelecek) [EKF13], ship (gemi) [KKS13], sun (güneş) [KKF1], navigation (navigasyon) [EKF22], guide (rehber) [EKS8, EKS16, KKF13], dictionary (sözlük) [KKF2], way (yol) [KKF3], manager (yönetici) [EKF11], summary (özet) [KKS9]	18
	need	5	Flag (bayrak) [EKS14], paper (kağıt) [KKS7], breathing (nefes almak) [EKS13], salt (tuz) [KKF4], water (su) [EKF9, KKF11]	6
	improvement	3	doctor (doctor) [EKS12], light (ışık) [EKS5], medicine (ilaç) [EKF19, KKS4, KKF12]	5
negative	A waste of time	9	Punishment (ceza) [EKS6, EKS7], social media(sosyal medya) [EKF4], temporal time (geçici zaman)[KKF8], heaven (cennet) [KKF7], trouble (dert) [EKF21], extra clothes (fazla kıyafetler) [KKF5], burnt out lamp (yanmış lamba) [EKF8], Jordan's parliament (Ürdün'ün parlamentosu) [EKF5], documentary movies (belgesel filmler) [EKS11]	10

Sixty-five international students participating in the study produced 49 valid metaphors. Forty of these metaphors are under the positive category, and nine are under the negative category. Considered as a percentage, 81.6% of the data is positive, and 18.4% is negative. Considering the categories in terms of students, 84.4% of 65 students produced positive metaphors, while 15.4% formed negative metaphors. Positive metaphors are more numerous than negative ones; this reveals that international students have positive perceptions of Academic Turkish.

Academic Turkish in Terms of Background

International students stated that they have the perception that Academic Turkish provides a background by using these metaphors; encyclopedia [KKS10], key [EKF3, EKF15, EKS1, EKS11, EKS17], tool [EKF10], research article [KKS1], sea [EKS10, KKS12], introduction of the truth of the world [KKF9], benefit [EKF16], long-term school [KKF6], life [EKF18, KKS2, KKS3], eye [EKF14], clue [EKS3], reference [EKF6], fruit [EKS4], music [EKS2] guide [EKS9], basic [EKF12, EKF20], database [EKF1], writing course [EKF17]. To objectify this perception, some of the participants' reasons were presented as an example: EKF1 "… is very important for graduate students. There is a lot of information in the Academic Turkish course to do research, to write an abstract and handout. Students can understand quickly and in a short time", EKF20 "… exposes me to some of the words used in my course and also teaches me how to present and write academic articles in Turkish", KKF6 "… I learned fundamental academic concepts during this semester, I am sure it will be useful for me in my department." In this conceptual category, key (n = 5), life (n = 3), sea (n = 2) and basic (n = 2) metaphors draw attention as

the same metaphors created by different students. In addition, the conceptual background category stands out with the highest frequency among other categories in terms of the number of students. Most of the participants stated that they gained various prior knowledge by gaining various knowledge and skills in Academic Turkish. They stated that thanks to this knowledge and skills, they formed a background for their department and had various advantages when they started in their departments. Besides, metaphors created by the participants such as basic, reference, key, database, and writing course are considered strong metaphors in terms of their potential to highlight mental associations regarding creating a background.

Academic Turkish in Terms of Guidance

International students stated that they have the perception of guiding Academic Turkish by using these metaphors; family support [KKS5], key [KKS12], tool [KKS8], father's advice [KKS6], light [EKF2, EKF7, KKF10], future [EKF13], ship [KKS13], sun [KKF1], navigation [EKF22], guide [EKS8, EKS16, KKF13], dictionary [KKF2], way [KKF3], manager [EKF11], summary [KKS9]. To reflect this perception, some of the participants' reasons were presented as an example: EKS8 "…gives clues about the research and investigations I will do in my department and describes the way I will go", EKF22 "… provides a guide, information and leads the way on how to conduct research for graduate and doctoral students Guide (n = 3) and light (n = 3) metaphors were identified as the same metaphors created by different students in this conceptual category. Besides, metaphors created by the participants such as guide, light, and way came to the fore as powerful metaphors in terms of their potential to highlight mental associations regarding guidance. When the created metaphors and their reasons were examined, 27.7% of the participants stated that Academic Turkish shed light on their own departments. Academic Turkish provided students with pre-experiences about what situations they will encounter in their departments by creating awareness about their departments and predictions about what they should do in the future due to these experiences. Academic Turkish, with its guidance function, also enabled students to learn how to follow a path.

Academic Turkish in terms of Needs

International students highlighted the need dimension of Academic Turkish by using the metaphors of flag [EKS14], paper [KKS7], breathing [EKS13], salt [KKF4] and water [EKF9, KKF11]. When the metaphors and their reasons are examined, 9.2% of the participants perceive that Academic Turkish is an indispensable need for their education at the university. For example, to reflect this perception, some of the participants' reasons were presented as follows: EKF9 "… water is necessary and beneficial for us, we will not live without water. At the same time, Academic Turkish is a science that we need ...", EKS13 "… just as breathing is indispensable in my life, academic Turkish is indispensable for being successful in university" and EKS14 "… just as a flag is indispensable for a state, academic Turkish is so for a university". In this conceptual category, it was seen that the metaphors of water (n = 2) and light (n = 3) were preferred by different students. At the same time, when the reasons for the metaphors of salt, water, flag, paper, and breathing as an action were examined, it was determined that they were stated as essential needs in the

context of their use. Among these metaphors, especially the water and breathing metaphors attract attention as powerful metaphors in terms of their potential to highlight mental associations of need.

Academic Turkish in Terms of Improvement

International students drew attention to the improvement dimension of Academic Turkish by using the metaphors of doctor [EKS12], light [EKS5] and medicine [EKF19, KKS4, KKF12]. To reflect this perception, some of the participants' reasons were presented as an example: "… as medicine heals patients, it corrects my mistakes and enables me to write my articles in a better way" [KKS4], "… Academic Turkish education improves the deficiencies in our lives" [EKS12] "… becomes very useful as time goes on" [EKF19] and "I understand better in Turkish lessons, when reading texts in the classroom." [KKF12]. 7.7% of the participants produced metaphors in this conceptual category; It was determined that different students created and repeated the medicine metaphor (n = 3). In addition, the doctor and medicine metaphors created by the participants came to the fore as powerful metaphors in terms of their potential to highlight mental associations for improvement. When the created metaphors and their reasons were examined, it was found that students corrected their mistakes and made up for their deficiencies thanks to academic Turkish. Students highlighted the healing aspect of Academic Turkish in terms of current problems such as writing and reading.

Academic Turkish as a Waste of Time

15.4% of international students expressed their negative perceptions of Academic Turkish using these metaphors; punishment [EKS6, EKS7], social media [EKF4], temporary time [KKF8], heaven [KKF7], trouble [EKF21], extra clothes [KKF5], burned out lamp [EKF8], Jordan's Parliament [EKF5] and documentary movies [EKS11]. These metaphors have been determined that Academic Turkish is perceived as a waste of time. In order to reflect this perception, some of the participants' reasons were presented as an example: "… It was unnecessary. Academic Turkish lessons take long…" [EKS6], "… We have to do dozens of homework but we don't understand at all. It takes our time like social media on the phone." [EKF4] and "… it's really hard to come every day. They seem useless when you've been doing the same things for a long time. When you finally arrive, you will be as happy as in heaven." [KKF7]. In this conceptual category, the metaphor of punishment (n = 2) was identified as a repetitive metaphor created by different students. The metaphors of punishment, temporary time, and trouble created by the participants came to the fore as powerful metaphors in terms of their potential to highlight mental associations about wasting time. Also, the word heaven, which has a positive connotation, has been used to reflect a negative perception. When the created metaphors and their reasons were examined, it was found that Academic Turkish did not benefit students even though it took their time.

Discussion

In this study, international students' perceptions of the concept of Academic Turkish were determined through metaphors. Sixty-five of the participants were able to

produce valid metaphors for the concept of Academic Turkish, while five of the participants failed to express this concept with metaphor. It was observed that almost all the participants reflected their perceptions of Academic Turkish through valid metaphors. This finding is considered to be meaningful because it is thought that students who receive Academic Turkish education should be qualified to form a metaphor. Studies in the literature show similar results that support this finding. In studies conducted by Ariogul and Uzun (2011), Akkaya (2013), Boylu and Işık (2017), most of the participants who learned Turkish as a foreign language produced valid metaphors for Turkish. However, in Göçen's (2019) study, it was also determined that one-fourth of the participants could not produce valid metaphors.

A total of 49 valid and different metaphors were identified in the study. The high number of metaphors is thought to be beacuse each participant uploads his own meaning to the metaphor. As Akkaya (2011) stated, metaphors are an individual phenomenon, and there can be many metaphors and explanations as to the number of participants. Therefore, it seems meaningful and normal that the number of metaphors is high and the creation is different. The data obtained in this study were collected from 65 different participants. However, 49 of them are different from each other.

This study, it was concluded that most of the participants had positive perceptions about the studied concept. Fifty-five participants had positive perceptions, and 10 participants had negative perceptions about Academic Turkish. Some results from the studies in the literature have been shared to support this finding. Boylu and Işık (2017) stated that the perceptions of those who learn Turkish as a foreign language are generally positive toward Turkish. Uçak (2017) revealed that students who learn Turkish as a foreign language in Iraq also create positive perceptions of Turkish. Aylin (2018), in her study with international students at the Turkish Teaching Research and Application Center, concluded that students' perceptions of Turkish are generally positive. Akkaya (2013) also found that most Syrian refugees express their perceptions of Turkish with positive metaphors. Studies in the literature show that students or foreign nationals positively perceive Turkish during their general Turkish learning. According to the results obtained in this study, it is possible to say that this positive perception continues at the Turkish academic level.

It was determined that Academic Turkish predominantly formed a background for students. The metaphors show that Academic Turkish provides students preliminary information about their departments. In this way, the students have gained outcomes in various technical subjects such as term knowledge of their departments, writing reports, making presentations, and taking notes. This basic structure provided to students allows them to have some advantages in their department courses. The study conducted by Demir (2017) revealed that international students consider academic reading, taking notes during the lesson, asking questions about the lesson, and listening to the lesson as the most critical activities. However, Yahşi Cevher and Güngör (2015) revealed that international students have difficulty understanding basic concepts and terms in their department courses and their background is inadequate because they did not take an Academic Turkish course. Dilek (2016), beacuse of his interviews with international students, stated that the general

Turkish given in preparatory courses was insufficient in taking the notes required by academic education, reading, and understanding the textbook, giving written answers in exams, listening, and understanding the course.

In the justification of the metaphors we have obtained, students "write a handout" [EKF1], "write academically" [EKF10], "I learned how to write an academic writing" [EKF17], "teaches me how to present and write academic articles" [EKF20], "I know how to start writing my thesis" [KKF9]," I learned the aspects of Turkish academic writing "[EKS3]," It is helpful for me to write academic texts "[EKS4]," writing a reference, "[EKS9]," I can write both theses, article, and summary well "[KKS10] confirms that Academic Turkish contributes to writing skills. Demir (2017) states in his study that international students have the most difficulty in writing, therefore, they mostly need Academic Turkish in this field. The metaphors and reasons stated by the students show that they perceive the contribution of Academic Turkish to writing skills positively. On the other hand, in the literature (Yahşi Cevher & Güngör, 2015; Dilek, 2016; Demir, 2017; Hasırcı Aksoy, 2021), it is known that students have difficulties in listening and understanding during reading due to a lack of basic concepts and terms in their department courses. The following explanations about metaphors: "I understand my department and also know the basic terms" [EKS15], "Academic terms are scarce in general Turkish lessons. Therefore, as academic Turkish is a ship, it will take from basic Turkish to university Turkish" [KKS13], "we learned new concepts" [EKF16]," I learned academic concepts "[KKF6] and" we learn the concepts in our department "[EKS17], that Academic Turkish provides background in acquiring terms; Therefore, it reveals that it creates a positive perception. In addition, participants with codes EKS9, KKF12, EKS17 and KKS1 show that Academic Turkish contributes positively to reading articles, books, and notes.

This study, it was revealed that students perceive Academic Turkish as a requirement in the conceptual category of need. Studies in the literature support the findings of this study. For example, Boylu and Işık (2017) determined that those who learn Turkish as a foreign language need academic Turkish especially for university education; Demir (2017) revealed the Academic Turkish needs of international students in his thesis. According to this study, reading and writing skills should be concentrated, and teaching academic terms and department-specific vocabulary should be emphasized (Demir, 2017). Biçer and Alan (2017) also found a similar result in their needs analysis study and stated that Syrian students need Turkish to receive an education. Another study conducted by Çalışkan and Çangal (2013), it was stated that foreign nationals need Turkish to receive an education.

In this study, the reasons for the negative perceptions of 10 participants were that the academic Turkish lessons were too long (EKS11, EKS6), their motivation was low (EKS7, EKS6), they were not graduate students (KKF8, EKF21), the lessons were difficult (KKF7), Academic Turkish lessons are not related to the courses of their departments (KKF5) and it does not contribute them (EKF4, EKF5, EKF8). Demir (2017) suggests that students who complete the Turkish preparatory classes should be given an Academic Turkish course. Hasırcı Aksoy (2021) also states that the problems experienced by international students in Academic Turkish negatively affect their academic self-efficacy

perceptions. Therefore, although some participants have a negative perception because they are not graduate students, the importance of Academic Turkish lessons is emphasized in the literature. Accordingly, it is recommended that academic Turkish lessons be divided into classes according to the students' educational status. As stated by Demir (2017), the scientific studies in the textbooks to be taught and the materials to be used in the academic Turkish course should be prepared by considering the student profile, needs, and perceptions specified in this context. Associatively, two participants referred to the book taught in the academic Turkish course as follows: "Our faculty should make a more original book instead of academic Turkish" [EKS15], "I got bored sometimes because the book is a bit difficult" [KKS1]. Although the student group for which the data is collected is divided into science and social departments, it is seen that the students need a textbook for their level and department courses.

Conclusion

Metaphors are a tool that can be used in academic life and wherever there is discourse to draw attention to the current situation and its reasons. However, this tool can be effective if the person has language skills and knowledge about the research subject. In this study, it is foreseen that the participants would not have problems in creating metaphors because they had completed the C1 level and had taken an Academic Turkish course. The extraction of five of the 70 data was done for procedural reasons, not related to the students' language level. This increases the acceptability of the metaphors obtained. The metaphors and explanations signified above helped them reflect on how Academic Turkish constructs the academic life of international students. This direction, it enabled them to reveal their positive and negative perceptions. The participants' metaphors are classified as background, guidance, need, improvement in the positive category, and a waste of time under the negative category. It is seen that metaphors are mainly clustered in the background sub-category of positive metaphors. In other words, it is revealed that the students perceived the Academic Turkish course as a background for the department courses. This situation shows that students distinguish academic Turkish from general Turkish and perceive it as a language preparation for department courses. On the other hand, this course is considered a waste of time because it is unrelated to the educational background, difficulty, and department courses.

In previous studies, it was observed that international students' perceptions of Turkish were revealed with positive metaphors. Since their perceptions of Academic Turkish have not been examined in the literature, this study deals with international students' perceptions of Academic Turkish. It was expected that the results obtained in this direction overlap with the results in the literature and positive metaphors are formed predominantly. As mentioned in the findings section, 55 out of 65 valid metaphors meet expectations positively. Since the academic Turkish course is the primary purpose of providing the basis for the academic education of undergraduate and graduate students who will receive Turkish education, metaphors were expected to gain frequency over this purpose; it has been revealed that the metaphors obtained gain weight in the conceptual

background. Although positive metaphors are expected to be high in terms of frequency, negative metaphors are significant as they shed light on the indirect purpose of this study.

Negative metaphors reveal undesirable situations in practice and students' perceptions and the reasons for these situations. Therefore, it provides vital evidence to increase the quality of the education provided. When we look at the metaphors in the waste of time category, it is seen that low motivation, not being a graduate student, the difficulty of the courses, the subjects are not related to the department. One of the reasons for the loss of motivation experienced is that the general Turkish course is more related to daily life than the Academic Turkish course, and therefore, it is fun. However, the loss of motivation may be that the students are forced, and the subjects are not directly related to their fields.

Recommendations for further research and practice

This study is one of the first studies examining international students' perceptions towards Academic Turkish through metaphors. For this reason, it is recommended to fill the gap in the field by increasing the number of studies that reveal these students' perceptions towards Academic Turkish. These studies can obtain new findings by comparing the international students' perceptions of Academic Turkish according to the undergraduate and graduate levels. Since the undergraduate and graduate students' Academic Turkish needs are different, their perceptions of Academic Turkish also differ. It is also recommended to conduct quantitative studies using questionnaires to broadly describe international students' Academic Turkish perceptions. Thus, it is possible to examine Academic Turkish perceptions of different variables.

In further studies, it is recommended to conduct focus group discussions to investigate the causes of the negative perceptions mentioned in this study. Thus, students' negative perceptions towards Academic Turkish can be better understood. Also, it is recommended to organize a mentoring service to eliminate the negative perceptions about the reasons for low motivation, the difficulty of the courses, the fact that the subjects are not suitable for the department. With mentoring, education institutions can follow the students, and the students can develop academically and personally to a more experienced student. In addition, cooperative learning can be developed by giving assignments that the mentor and mentee will do together with the mentoring service.

Academic Turkish courses are generally divided into science and social sciences in practice. Although it is not possible to open Academic Turkish courses directly for the sub-disciplines of these sciences, diversity can be increased in the course books and materials to be used in line with the student profile and needs. In addition, if the mentors can be selected from the student's department, it can be ensured that the topics, readings, and vocabulary learning are directly related to the student's department. In short, it is seen that Academic Turkish mainly creates positive perceptions. Still, this course should be further enriched in terms of the course book, the level of education, and the department of students.

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Research Article

Current Problems of Children's Literature Through the Eyes of Today's Poets and Authors and Proposed Solutions to These Problems

Yasemin Gül GEDİKOĞLU ÖZİLHAN *   **Şaban ÇETİN****

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	The purpose of this study is to investigate today's poets' and authors' perspectives on the problems of children's literature and the solution to these problems. The research used the case study method. The research group consists of seventy poets and authors. The aim of this research is to examine the views of today's poets and authors on the problems of children's literature and the solution to these problems. The case study method was used in the study. Seventy poets and authors constitute the study group of the research. In the light of the data obtained as a result of the interviews with all today's poets and authors in the study group, the most important problems of children's literature have emerged as "Ignoring the developmental level of the child", "Commercialization of children's literature", "Style-related problems in children's literature authors" and "Supervision problem in children's literature works". The study offers solutions such as "Children's development levels should be considered", "Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child", "Children's literature books should be inspected" and "The language used should be considered". The problems of children's literature and the suggestions produced to these problems are also discussed based on the gender and age variable. It has been determined that the problems and solutions determined by age and gender and the problems and solutions determined by all today's poets and authors are similar.

* Asst. Prof. Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3293-8995, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversity, Faculty of Education, ygedikoglu@mehmetakif.edu.tr

** Graduate Student, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7637-7272, Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversity, Educational Studies, sabancetin091194@gmail.com

Introduction

The status and significance of a child in society have evolved throughout time. Child began to gain prominence in society in the 17th century. As Postman puts it, "the idea of childhood is one of the greatest inventions of the Renaissance, perhaps the most humane" (1995, p. 8). Following the publication of Rousseau's *Emile*, the notion of family, founded on love, began to emerge, and the importance and value of the child in the family began to increase (Sever et al., 2007, p. 69; Neydim, 2000, p. 12). Rousseau thinks that human flaws can be corrected through education. In Emile (1762), he stated that "reading is the whip of childhood because books teach us to talk about things we know nothing about" (Postman, 1995, p. 25). However, Rousseau finds it objectionable to teach children's works of imagination. According to him, dreams are the genesis of all evil. That's why he opposes fairy tales. He calls for the inclusion of instructive works in children's education. He desires values such as honesty, virtue and self-sacrifice to be prioritized in works written for children (Sınar Çılgın, 2007, p. 42).

For centuries, the child has been considered as a diminutive human, miniature human, less talented creature, less developed than adults, and s/he has been raised with these thoughts (Jacquin, 1969, p. 17). Children cannot produce logical and objective thoughts like adults; they learn everything new. In other words, there are always situations that are experienced and learned 'for the first time' in their lives (Dilidüzgün, 2003, p. 41). Those that create books for them should also unveil their goods while keeping these parameters in mind. This process begins with the identification and development of children's literature. Children's literature is not a child's work, it is a feast of authors and illustrators who can keep the child in them alive. Its purpose is to share the common feelings, curiosity and interests of the children of the world through writing and drawing. Children's literature was not born out of belittlement of children, as is believed (Şirin, 1994, p. 12). Children's literature has started to form and develop by deserving its own space in literature, with the recognition of the child in the historical process and starting to value them. With the adoption of 1979 as the World Year of the Child, the works written for children in our country began to be published much more than before. As the number of authors of children's literature and the quantity of their works expanded, an issue with quality began to emerge. The problems that may prevent the development of children's literature from author, reader, publisher, work and other variables have been handled by researchers in many aspects. Again, what needs to be done to solve these problems was discussed on the same scientific level. Attempts have been made in this research to give a fresh viewpoint on children's literature by looking at the challenges of children's literature and solutions to these difficulties through the eyes of today's poets and authors.

Literature Review

Development of Children's Literature from the Beginning to the Present

It is known that the first book for children was written in India in the 6th century BC. The story of a prince trainer Brahma is told in this book (Şimşek, 2007, p. 30). The

idea of "childhood" and organizing some literary works for children's reading emerged in the 16th century. In the 17th century, stories from the Middle Ages, fairy tales and legends from the old period were used in children's literature (Şirin, 1994, p. 59). John Locke's thoughts on child education in his work "Some Reflections on Education" (1693) had a great impact all over the world. Locke suggested using the sense of curiosity in children as a stimulant (Şirin, 1987, p. 15). Even after centuries, this element emerges as one of the basic principles of today's children's literature.

Modern children's literature began in the West in the 18th century and in our country in the 19th. The development of the printing press, the Industrial Revolution, the increase in the rate of urbanization, the enlightenment, and the emergence of nation states have changed the social structure and the society's view of "children", and this change has made a child-specific literature necessary (Sever et al. 2007, p. 67). In the works written for children at the beginning of the 19th century, purposes such as introducing the phenomenon of religion, adopting moral rules and providing a character formation in the child were pursued (Şirin, 1987, p. 18). Due to the misunderstanding of Rousseau's understanding of education, the works written in the late 18th and 19th centuries were mostly created with instructive and moral content (Demirel et al., 2010, p. 72). Jules Verne won the love of children with his science fiction novels and brought a new breath to children's literature. With his works, he succeeded in moving children's literature away from its educational and moral purpose. Alice in Wonderland, written by Charles Lutwidge Dodgson and published under the pseudonym Lewis Carroll, was the first work that completely destroyed the idea that "works written for children should carry instructive and moral messages" (Sınar Çılgın, 2007, p. 47). In the middle of the 20th century, with the effect of the Second World War, children's literature works began to be published in an extremely instructive manner, with the aim of creating a uniform human being by fictionalizing rigid idealized male and female heroes. This mistake was reversed after the end of the Second World War, and the number of works prioritizing an understanding that is suitable for the reality of children and emphasizing the equality of men and women increased, and children's literature began to be restructured with this understanding (Sever et al. 2007, p. 67; Nedim, 2000, p. pp. 8-9,26). In the 20th century, children started to become more interested in fantastic works. Astrid Anna Emilia Lindgren's Pippi Long Stockings series had a great impact at the time of its publication. A girl named Pippi is against the usual child type. The author criticizes the strict rules of society through the character of Pippi. She draws the character of an independent and loving child who can solve problems. Antoine de Saint Exupery's The Little Prince has become a work that adults read fondly, with its philosophical dimension as well as its fantastic fiction. Another important author of this century is Christine Nöstlinger. The Cucumber King, with his opposition to and criticism of authority, her fiction that prioritizes democratic solutions and lifestyle, makes important contributions to the formation of democratic cultural awareness in children.

In the historical development of children's literature in our country, we come across Dede Korkut Stories first. Children play an important role in these stories. It is noteworthy that the child is not named immediately and is expected to act as a hero, those who do not

have children are hosted in the black tent and served with black sheep stew, those with a daughter are hosted in a red tent, and those with a son in a white tent. These stories are important in that they show that adults are divided into classes based on the presence and gender of their children, and that children have to gain a place in society according to their actions (Sınar Çılgın, 2007). In the 17th and 18th centuries, we see that two works on the child were written. These are the moral-educational mathnawi named "Hayriyye" (1701), which Nâbî wrote for his son Ebu'l-hayr Mehmed Çelebi in the 17th century, and Sünbülzâde Vehbî's "Lutfiyye" (1791) written as a nazire to this work in the 18th century. Due to the advice they contain, these predominate in terms of instructional and moral characteristics (Uludağ, 2009, p. 779). Münif Pasha, the Abdülhamid period's Minister of Education, authored an essay titled "Ehemmiyet-i Terbiye-i Sıbyan (The Importance of Educating Children)" (1862) in the Mecmua-ı Fünûn. He contrasted European child education with Ottoman schooling in the essay, which provides significant insights on child education. He was opposed to teaching children via corporal punishment and asserted categorically that youngsters should be put to school. Münif Pasha's approach to the issue and his concepts ignited a new and transformative wind in education (Sınar Çılgın, 2007). In his work "Aile (Family)" Namık Kemal underlined the significance of teaching the child inside the family (1872). The family/home is the first location where the child will get education, followed by school. He added that he desired for the boy to develop into a strong-willed adult as a result of the schooling he would get (Sınar Çılgın, 2007). These studies in education and the translation of some works that were among the world children's classics in the Tanzimat period into our language are important studies that serve children's literature. This enlightenment in the Tanzimat period was continued by turning it into a state policy in the Republican period (Nedim, 2000, pp. 22-25). Again in this period, children's and youth literature gained a very important momentum in our country. The desired change has begun to occur in children's literature with the works of authors such as Tevfik Fikret, Naki Tezel, Eflatun Cem Güney, Tahir Alangu, Oğuz Tansel, Mustafa Ruhi Şirin, Ziya Gökalp, Fazıl Hüsnü Dağlarca, Mehmet Necati Öngay, Cahit Uçuk, Nazım Hikmet, Aziz Nesin, Rıfat Ilgaz, Yalvaç Ural, Muzaffer İzgü, Mehmet Seyda, Cahit Zarifoğlu, Ayla Çınaroğlu, Ayla Kutlu, Aytül Akal, Mavisel Yener. Today, Gülten Dayıoğlu is a well-known author of children's tales and books. Fadiş, which she authored in 1971, is the first step toward whatever is intended to be developed in the world of children via a work of high-quality today's children's literature.

There are several studies in the literature that identify the difficulties with children's books and the remedies to these problems (Şirin, 1994; Nedim, 2000; Sever, 2003; Dilidüzgün, 2004; Sever, 2006; Erkul, Başöncül & Sezer, 2007; Süer Sezgin, 2007; Soysal, 2007; İpşiroğlu, 2007; Bozdağ, 2007; İlkhan & Akyüz, 2007; Ceylan, 2007; Sarar Kuzu, 2007; Sever, 2008; Maltepe, 2009; Dağlıoğlu & Çamlıbel Çakmak, 2009; Büyükkavas Kuran & Ersözlü, 2009; Uğurlu, 2010; Oğuzkan, 2010; Gültekin, 2011; Çiftçi, 2011; Çintaş Yıldız, 2011; Cengiz, 2012; Atman, Çat, Gökbulut & Mudu, 2012; İnce Samur, 2012; Gökçe, 2012; Kartal & Çağlar Özteke, 2012; Ulutaş & Kıymaz, 2012; Tüfekçi Can, 2013; Arısoy, 2014; Turkish Language of Children and Early Youth Literature Special Issue, 2014; Fırat & İpek Eğilmez, 2014; Özözen, 2014; Er Yeşilhan,

2015; Gedikoğlu Özilhan, 2015; Akgül Barış & Ece, 2015; Fırat & Çeker, 2016; Şen, 2016; Otmar, 2017; İpek, 2017; Aktan & Aydın, 2018; İnce Samur, 2018; Bulut, 2018; Kuru, 2018; Barutçu & Açık, 2018; Küçükler Kuşcu, 2018; Çer, 2019; Çevik & Müldür, 2019; Yavuz, 2019; Good Book Children and Youth Books Magazine, 2020; Kavan & Akin, 2020; Aydogdu & Alkan, 2020; Dedeoğlu and Erbasan, 2021).

Aim and Significance of the Study

Although the opinions of the authors on the problems and solution suggestions of children's literature are frequently consulted in the literature, no study has been found that refers to the opinions of today's poets and authors. However, since we cannot think of children's literature in a disconnected way from literature, it is thought that today's poets and authors, with their artistic sensitivities, will contribute to the field with their views on the problems of children's literature and the solutions they produce for these problems. There is no study in the literature that deals with the problems and solution proposals of children's literature from the point of view of today's poets and authors. Again, the absence of any study examining these problems and solutions in terms of the age and gender variables of the authors makes this study important and unique.

Answers to the following questions were sought within the framework of the views of today's poets and authors on the current problems of children's literature and the solution to these problems:

1. What are the views of today's female poets and authors on the current problems of children's literature?

2. What are the views of today's male poets and authors on the current problems of children's literature?

3. What are the views of all of the today's poets and authors on the current problems of children's literature?

4. What are the suggestions of today's female poets and authors to solve these problems?

5. What are the suggestions of today's male poets and authors to solve these problems?

6. What are the suggestions of all of the today's poets and authors for the solution to these problems?

7. What are the views of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30 on the current problems of children's literature?

8. What are the views of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60 on the current problems of children's literature?

9. What are the views of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over on the current problems of children's literature?

10. What are the suggestions of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30 for the solution to these problems?

11. What are the suggestions of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60 for the solution to these problems?

12. What are the suggestions of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over to solve these problems?

Method

Research Design and Publication Ethics

Before commencing the research, it was unanimously decided that this study is in line with ethical standards, with the decision numbered GO 2021/216 taken at the meeting of the Non-Interventional Clinical Research Ethics Committee of Burdur Mehmet Akif Ersoy University, dated 02.06.2021. The poets and authors in the research group were informed and their consents were obtained.

The study, which was conducted to determine the views of today's poets and authors on children's literature problems and their solutions to these problems, was designed within the framework of case study. Case studies are seen as a distinctive approach used in seeking answers to scientific questions (Büyüköztürk et al., 2020, p. 23). A case study is a method that examines a single situation or event in depth longitudinally, requires the systematic collection of data, and examines events that occur in the real environment. The case study reveals why the event occurred the way it did and what should be focused on in future studies." (Subaşı and Okumuş, 2017, p. 420). This study followed a systematic way in accordance with the case study, including the stages of collecting data about a situation, analyzing and interpreting these data. Thus, it was aimed to report the data obtained during the research process in a clear and understandable way.

Participants

The study group was determined according to the criterion sampling method among one of the purposeful sampling types. In the formation of the study group, it was determined that the participants were poets, authors, poets/authors. Participants consisted of 70 poets and authors who were contacted via email, Facebook and WhatsApp in July 2021. As indicated in Table 1 below, a total of seventy poets and authors, including 6 female and 22 male poets, 4 female and 9 male authors, and 8 female and 21 male poets/authors participated in the research. Although these poets and authors have poems and other works written in the field of children's literature, they can be defined as artists who write for adults.

Table 1. Distribution of Today's Poets and Authors by Gender

Gender	Poet		Author		Poet /Author		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Female	6	8,5	4	5,7	8	11,4	18	25,7
Male	22	31,4	9	12,8	21	30	52	74,2
Total	28	39,9	13	18,5	29	41,4	70	100

Data Collection

During the research procedure, the poets and authors in the study group were asked by the researchers via email, Facebook and WhatsApp, the problems of children's literature and solutions for these problems. Feedback was received from 70 poets and authors. The problems of children's literature and the suggestions produced to these problems were also discussed according to the gender and age variable. The opinions of today's poets and authors were itemized with the method of content analysis, the same itemization in the context of gender variable according to whether today's poets and authors are male or female. They were interpreted in the context of age variable according to whether they were 18-30 years old, 31-60 years old, 61 years old or more. Data were collected through document review. Document review "involves the examination of written documents conveying information regarding the case or cases under investigation" (Aypay, A. et al. 2011, p. 239).

Data Analysis

The data were subjected to content analysis and descriptive analysis. Content analysis approach is widely employed in studies where data are gathered through open-ended questions. Content analysis is a method for identifying the presence of specific words, facts or concepts in a collection. In this technique, inferences are produced by identifying the meanings and relationships of words, facts or concepts (Büyüköztürk et al., 2020). Categorical analysis, which was used in the research, is generally dividing a particular message into units and then grouping these units into categories according to predetermined criteria (Yaman, Çetinkaya Mermer, Mutlugil, 2009). On the other hand, descriptive analysis is a sort of analysis that entails summarizing and interpreting data according to predetermined themes or categories. The purpose of this sort of analysis is to summarize and explain the results for the reader. Descriptive analysis takes place in four stages. In the first stage, a framework is created based on the conceptual framework of the research, the literature review and the dimensions obtained from the research questions. Thus, it is determined under which themes or categories the data will be organized and presented (Dawson, 2009). After this stage, the researcher defines the data he has arranged. Then, the researcher explains, relates and makes sense of the findings he has defined (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013).

By examining the data using the descriptive analysis approach, codes were established, these codes were then classified into sub-categories, and these sub-categories were further sorted into meaningful groupings and categories. Thus, codes at the level of words and phrases were identified in the data collected from all poets and authors, these codes were categorized. Then subcategories were generated at the phrase and sentence levels, and categories were established by patterning the subcategories in a coherent fashion. The results section includes an example of the code that is believed to be the most precise for each sub-category among the codes that enable sub-category determination. Thus, the 'validity' of the research was ensured.

'Reliability' in the transformation of raw data into codes and categories was ensured by the joint contributions of both authors, a children's literature expert, and an expert in educational measurement to the process. Calculation was made with the Krippendorff Alpha coefficient (α) to determine the coefficient of agreement among the raters. This coefficient is used to determine the agreement between raters (Krippendorff, 1995). It was observed that the value of agreement between the raters, namely the Krippendorff Alpha coefficient (α), varied between .75 and .90.

Findings

The data on the current problems of children's literature and the solution proposals created by today's poets and authors were coded. Below are examples of sentences that are thought to explain that item for each item.

The findings for the first three research questions are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Current Problems of Children's Literature According to Today's Female and Male Poets and Authors and According to All Today's Poets and Authors

Problem Source	Problems	Female		Male		Total	
	Problems	f	%	f	%	f	%
AUTHOR	1. Ignoring the development level of the child	4	5.7	18	25.8	22	31.6
	2. Style-related problems in children's literature authors	4	5.7	15	21.3	19	27.1
	3. Written children's books by authors who do not know about children's world	3	4.2	3	4.2	6	8.5
	4. Assuming children's literature as a simple literature	2	2.8	2	2.8	4	5.7
	5. The fact that children's literature works are written by adults	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	2.8
PUBLISHER	1. Commercialization of children's literature	6	8.6	16	22.9	22	31.6
	2. The problem of supervision in children's literature works	5	7.1	14	19.9	19	27.1
	3. Problems of economic origin	1	1.4	5	7.0	6	8.5
	4. Ignoring author-illustrator harmony in children's books	1	1.4	5	7.0	6	8.5
	5. Inadequate delivery of children's books to children	2	2.8	1	1.4	3	4.2
	6. Censorship problem	2	2.8	1	1.4	3	4.2
	7. Problems caused by translation	-	-	2	2.8	2	2.8
READER	1. Failure of families to set an example for children	3	4.2	7	9.9	10	14.2
	2. Teachers' failure to set an example for children	2	2.8	4	5.6	6	8.5
	3. Failure to create love for books in preschool	1	1.4	2	2.8	3	4.2
ARTWORK	1. Negative examples in children's books	5	7.1	4	5.6	9	12.8
	2. Ideological thoughts in children's books	4	5.7	4	5.6	8	11.4
	3. The problem of innovation in children's literature	2	2.8	4	5.6	6	8.5
	4. The fact that children's books offer advice	2	2.8	3	4.2	5	7.1
OTHER	1. No idea	2	2.8	13	18.5	15	21.4
	2. Insufficient culture of criticism	-	-	1	1.4	1	1.4

Based on the opinions of today's poets and authors, the sub-categories related to the problems and suggestion for solution were classified as Author, Publisher, Reader, Artwork and Other. As can be seen in Table 2, the problems determined by using the views of today's poets and authors are as follows: Author-oriented problems; Ignoring the developmental level of the child, Style-related problems in children's literature authors, Written children's books by authors who do not know about children's world, Assuming children's literature as a simple literature, and The fact that children's literature works are written by adults; Publisher-oriented problems: Commercialization of children's literature, Supervision problem in children's literature, Problems of economic origin, Failure to pay attention to author-illustrator harmony in children's books, Inadequate delivery of children's books to children, The problem of censorship, and The problems resulting from translation; Reader-oriented problems: Failure of families to set an example for children, Teachers' failure to set an example for children, and Failure to create love for books in preschool. Artwork-oriented problems: Negative examples in children's books, Ideological thoughts in children's books, The problem of innovation in children's literature, and The fact that children's books offer advice. Other problems: Those who have no idea and Insufficient Culture of Criticism.

The current problems of children's literature determined by today's female and male poets and authors are as in Table 2. The findings with the highest rate among the views of today's them are "Commercialization of children's literature" with 8.6%; "Supervision problem in children's literature works" and "Negative examples in children's books" with a rate of 7.1%; the findings with the lowest rate were "Problems of economic origin" with 1.4%; "Ignoring author-illustrator harmony in children's books"; the findings of "Failure to create love for books in preschool ", and "Children's literature works are written by adults". The findings of "Problems caused by translation" and "Insufficient culture of criticism" were not stated as a problem by female poets and authors.

Based on the views of today's male poets and authors, while "Ignoring the developmental level of the child" with 25.8%, "Commercialization of children's literature" with 22.9%, and "Style-related problems in children's literature authors" with 21.3% is at the top of the table, "Censorship problem", "The inadequate delivery of children's books to children", The fact that children's literature works are written by adults" and "Insufficient culture of criticism" had the lowest ranks with a rate of 1.4%.

The prominent current problems of children's literature are "Ignoring the developmental level of the child" with 31.6%, and "Commercialization of children's literature" with 27.1%, "Style-related problems in children's literature authors" and "Supervision problem in children's literature works", and " Failure of families to set an example for children" with 14.2%.

Examples of Codes Constituting the Sub-Categories of Current Issues in Children's Literature According to Today's Poets and Authors

Ignoring the Developmental Level of the Child

(P,14): "*Children's books are authored without considering child development and psychology.*"

Commercialization of Children's Literature

(P,17): "*Those who write for adults write for children because of financial concerns.*"

Style-Related Problems in Children's Literature Authors

(P,40): "*The author needs to have a grasp of Turkish language and know what kind of language should be established for a child at what age.*"

The Problem of Supervision in Children's Literature Works

(P,18): "*The main problem is that the works are presented without the editor's filter.*"

Failure of Families to Set an Example for Children

(P,22): *"Children cannot be forced to read books. Parents should set an example."*

Negative Examples in Children's Books

(P,4): *"It is very sad that there are books that support pedophilia among the works published recently."*

Ideological Thoughts in Children's Books

(P,31): *"Adults want to think for children, write for them and shape them. Children are not dough. Everyone approaches according to their own ideological structure, but the result does not change."*

The Problem of Innovation in Children's Literature

(P,59): *"Children's literature works should be on the side of the current, new and original a little more."*

Problems of Economic Origin

(P,66): *"People with a developed sense of aesthetic pleasure are not interested in the price of the book."*

Written children's books by authors who do not know about children's world

(P,55): *"For one thing, everyone should not attempt to write in the field of children's literature."*

Teachers' Failure to Set an Example for Children

(P,2): *"Unfortunately, most of the teachers cannot provide good guidance on what to read in children's literature."*

Ignoring Author-Illustrator Harmony in Children's Books

(P,23): *"Visuals and illustrations in books should be beautiful. Book cover design should be good."*

The fact that children's books offer advice

(P,60): *"There is an invasion of books that constantly give advice to children but cannot contribute to the development of their literary tastes."*

Assuming Children's Literature as a Simple Literature

(P,62): *"Writing for children is regarded as simple and easy to, resulting in shallow, childlike texts."*

Inadequate Delivery of Children's Books to Children

(P,66): *"... because one of the primary problems of children's literature is the difficulty of bringing the author's work (no matter how well s/he writes) to the reader."*

Censorship Problem

(P,53): *"One of the most important problems is censor."*

Failure to create love for books in preschool

(P,12): *"The biggest problem of children's literature is the mentality that adopts buying a tablet instead of a book.."*

Problems Caused by Translation

(P,61): *"The low quality of translation in translated works..."*

The Fact That Children's Literature Works Written by Adults

(P,56): *"Unfortunately, children's literature writing is in the hands and responsibility of adults."*

Insufficient Culture of Criticism

(P,61): *"Another important problem of children's literature is the inadequacy of the culture of criticism."*

The findings for the fourth, fifth and sixth research questions are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Suggestions for Solving Current Problems of Children's Literature According to Today's Female and Male Poets and Authors and According to All Today's Poets and Authors

Solution Source	Suggestions	Female		Male		Total	
		f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
AUTHOR	1. Children's development levels should be considered	8	11.4	12	17.1	20	28.5
	2. Attention should be paid to the language used	2	2.8	7	9.9	9	12,8
	3. Children's literature authors should be provided with a pedagogical education	3	4.2	6	8.5	9	12,8
	4. Children's literature authors should be innovative	4	5.6	1	1.4	5	7.1
	5. Children's literature should not be considered as a simple literature	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	1.4
	6. Children should make children's literature	-	-	2	2.8	2	1.4
PUBLISHER	1. Children's literature books should be inspected	5	7.1	9	12.8	14	20
	2. Editorial and translation budgets of publishing houses should be increased	1	1.4	2	2.8	3	4.2
	3. Attention should be paid to author-illustrator harmony	-	-	2	2.8	2	2,8
READER	1. Teachers should educate themselves and set an example for children	5	7.1	2	2.8	7	10
	2. Children should be gained the habit of reading books	2	2.8	5	7.1	7	10
	3. Parents should educate themselves and set an example for children	3	4.2	3	4.2	6	8,5

	#							
	4.	Books should be introduced as an object into children's lives in preschool	-	-	1	1.4	1	1,4
ARTWORK	1.	Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child	8	11.4	6	8.5	14	20
	2.	Children's books should be away from the elements such as violence, sexuality, abuse, etc.	1	1.4	6	8.5	7	10
	3.	Children should gain universal values	2	2.8	4	5.6	6	8,5
	4.	It should arouse a feeling of hope and love in the child	2	2.8	2	2.8	4	5.7
	5.	Books written must conform to our core values and culture	2	2.8	2	2.8	4	5.7
	6.	Ideological thoughts should not be subject to children's literature	1	1.4	2	2.8	3	4,2
OTHER	1.	A culture of criticism should be developed	-	-	2	2.8	2	2,8
	2.	The state should allocate a budget for children's literature	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	2,8
	3.	Children's literature course should become mandatory in universities	-	-	1	1.4	1	1,4

In Table 3, solutions for the problems of children's literature by today's poets and authors are given. Author-based solution suggestions have been determined as Children's development levels should be considered, Attention should be paid to the language used, Children's literature authors should be provided with a pedagogical education, Children's literature authors should be innovative, It should be understood that it is not a simple literature, and Children's literature should be made by children. Suggestions for solutions originating from publishers: Children's literature books should be inspected, Editorial and translation budgets of publishing houses should be increased, and Author-illustrator harmony should be considered. Reader-based solution suggestions: Teachers should educate themselves and set an example for children, children should be given the habit of reading books, parents should educate themselves and be an example for children, and books should be introduced into children's lives as an object before school. Artifact-based solution suggestions: Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child, Children's literature should be free from elements such as violence, sexuality and abuse, Children's literature should give children universal values, Children's literature should evoke a sense of hope and love in children, The books written should conform to our core values and our culture, and Ideological thoughts should not be the subject of children's literature. Solution suggestions from other sources: A culture of criticism should be developed, The state should allocate a budget for children's literature and Children's literature courses should become mandatory in universities.

The solutions determined by today's male and female poets and authors to the current problems of children's literature are as in Table 3. In the light of the data obtained from today's women poets and authors, the findings of "Children's development levels

should be considered" and "Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child" ranked at the top with 11.4%. "Children's books should be away from violence, sexuality, abuse etc.", "Ideological thoughts should not be subject to children's literature", "Editorial and translation budgets of publishing houses should be increased", "The state should allocate a budget for children's literature", and "Children's literature should not be considered as a simple literature" were the lowest with 1.4%. Findings such as "A culture of criticism should be developed", "Children should make children's literature", "Author-illustrated harmony should be considered", "Books should be introduced as an object into children's lives in preschool" and "Children's literature lessons should become mandatory in universities" has not been specified by female poets and authors as a solution to the current problems of children's literature.

Among the opinions of today's male poets and authors, "Children's development levels should be considered" with 17.1% and "Children's literature books should be inspected" with 12.8% were at the top. Findings such as "Children's literature authors should be innovative", "Children's literature should not be considered as a simple literature", "The state should allocate a budget for children's literature", "Books should be included in children's lives as an object in preschool" and "Children's literature course should become mandatory in universities" with a rate of 1.4% ranked at the bottom.

Among the prominent suggestions offered by all poets and authors who took part in the study to address the issues facing children's literature are "The developmental levels of children should be considered" with 28.5%, "Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child" and "Children's literature books should be inspected" with %20, and "Attention should be paid to the language used", "Children should make children's literature", and "Children's literature authors should be provided with a pedagogical education" with 12.8%.

Examples of Codes Forming the Sub-categories of Today's Poets and Authors' Suggestions for the Solution to Current Problems in Children's Literature;

Children's Development Levels Should Be Taken Into Consideration

(P,1): *"Writing story and fairy tale books by considering the age ranges and development levels of children…"*

Children's Literature Works Should Contribute to the Development of the Child

(P,50): *"They should be encouraging. They should be such works that encourage children to constantly develop, renew and research themselves."*

Children's Literature Books Should Be Inspected

(P,1): *"An independent committee should be established to monitor and inspect children's books"*

Attention Should Be Paid to The Language Used

(P,62): *"The solution is for those who write for children to work harder, to rewrite a piece in a manner that achieves profundity via simplicity."*

Pedagogy Education Should Be Obligatory to Children's Literature Authors

(P,67): *"So, first of all, it is necessary to separate the thing called writing for children from writing anything else. Only the people who have been trained should write."*

Teachers Should Educate Themselves and Set an Example for Children

(P,52): *"Teachers have a critical role and are accountable for exposing students to high-quality literature, but there are issues with both the general and specialized characteristics of teacher education."*

Children Should Be Supported to Develop an Interest in Reading

(P,69): *"Undoubtedly, the child should be given the habit of reading books; however, it is useful to do this step by step."*

Children's Books Should Be Free from Violence, Sexuality, Abuse Elements etc.

(P,49): *"Among My Author friends having an educational background, no one has never included a theme in children's fiction that is detrimental to children's worlds."*

Children's Books Should Bring Universal Values to Children

(P,70): *"They should be a tool for the child to reach the universal."*

Parents Should Educate Themselves and Set an Example for Their Children

(P,67): *"Families should not just hand the youngster the book and go. Parents should act as a 'companion' to them in reading books.."*

Children's Literature Authors Should Be Innovative

(P,56): *"While conveying some things about life children's books should make children think, ask questions, arouse curiosity and open new horizons for them."*

It Should Arouse a Feeling of Hope and Love in the Child

(P,54): *"Love and unlovedness are the child's boundary and nerve ends. That is the proper way to see the child."*

Books Must Conform to Our Core Values and Culture

(P,23): *"Tales can be written in accordance with our own values and culture."*

Ideologies Should Not be The Subject of Children's Literature

(P,69): *"The ideas that we can call ideological extremes should not enter children's books…"*

Editorial and Translation Budgets of Publishers Should Be Increased

(P,61): *"Publishers should increase their editorial and translation budgets."*

A Culture of Criticism Should Be Developed

(P,70): *"Authors and poets should act with a constructive and impartial critical attitude."*

It should be understood that children's literature is not a simple literature.

(P,69): *""Children's literature is easier than adult literature" should not be acted upon."*

Children Should Make Children's Literature

(P,31): *"We can help children write. Let children childishly shape life and the earth; because the world of grown-ups is not tolerated."*

The State Should Allocate a Budget for Children's Literature

(P,69): *"Relevant authorities should set aside their best investment in a corner for children to strengthen children's literature."*

Attention should be paid to the Author-Illustrator Harmony

(P,70): *"The text and related images in the book must be in harmony in the necessary sense."*

The Book Should Be Introduced as an Object into Children's Lives in Preschool

(P,61): *"In order to instill a love of books in children, books should be introduced into children's lives as an object before school."*

Children's Literature Course Should Become Mandatory in Universities

(P,54): *"Children's literature classes should be taught by expert lecturers at universities."*

The findings for the seventh, eighth and ninth research questions are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Current Issues in Children's Literature According to Today's Poets and Authors Between 18-30 Years Old, 31-60 Years Old, and Over 61 Years Old

Problem Source		Problems	18-30 Years Old		31-60 Years Old		Over 61 Years Old		Total	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
AUTHOR	1.	Ignoring the development level of the child	6	8.6	7	10	9	12.9	22	31,5
	2.	Style-related problems in children's literature authors	4	5.6	8	11.4	7	10	19	27
	3.	Written children's books by authors who do not know about children's world	-	-	5	7.1	1	1.4	6	8.4
	4.	Assuming children's literature as simple literature	-	-	3	4.2	1	1.4	4	5.6
	5.	Children's literature works are written by adults	-	-	2	2.8	-	-	2	2.8
PUBLISHER	1.	Commercialization of children's literature	2	2.8	13	18.6	7	10	22	31,5
	2.	The problem of supervision in children's literature works	6	8.6	9	12.8	4	5.7	19	27
	3.	Problems of economic origin	1	1.4	4	5.6	1	1.4	6	8.4
	4.	Ignoring author-illustrator harmony in children's books	1	1.4	3	4.2	2	2.8	6	8.4
	5.	Inadequate delivery of children's books to children	-	-	3	4.2	-	-	3	4.2
	6.	The censorship issue	-	-	2	2.8	1	1.4	3	4.2
	7.	Problems caused by translation	-	-	1	1.4	1	1.4	2	2.8
READER	1.	Failure of families to set an example for children	4	5.6	3	4.2	3	4.2	10	14
	2.	Teachers' failure to set an example for children	1	1.4	4	5.6	1	1.4	6	8.4
	3.	Inability to build enough love for books in preschool	1	1.4	1	1.4	1	1.4	3	4.2

			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
ARTWORK	1.	Negative examples in children's books	3	4.2	6	8.5	-	-	9	12.7
	2.	Ideological thoughts in children's books	1	1.4	5	7.1	2	2.8	8	11.3
	3.	The problem of innovation in children's literature works	1	1.4	4	5.6	1	1.4	6	8.4
	4.	The fact that children's books offer advice	-	-	2	2.8	3	4.2	5	7
OTHER	1.	Those who have no idea	6	8.6	7	10	2	2.8	15	21.4
	2.	Insufficient culture of criticism	-	-	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.4

Current problems of children's literature stated by poets and authors aged 18-30, 31-60, and 61 and over are given in Table 4. 8.6% and 8.6% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30; 10% and 12.8% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60; 12.9% and 5.7% of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over, respectively, listed the findings of "Ignoring the developmental level of the child" and "Supervision problem in children's literature works" as the current problems of children's literature at the highest rate. 1.4% and 1.4% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30; 1.4% and 5.6% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60; 1.4% and 1.4% of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over stated the findings of "Failure to create a love for books in preschool enough" and "Teachers' failure to set an example for children", respectively, as the current problems of children's literature.

The findings for the Ten, Eleven, and Twelfth research questions are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Suggestions of Today's Poets and Authors for the Ages 18-30, Ages 31-60 and Ages 61 and Over for the Solution to Current Problems in Children's Literature

Solution Resource		Suggestions	18-30 Years Old		31-60 Years Old		Over 61 Years Old		Total	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
AUTHOR	1.	Children's development levels should be considered	6	8.5	9	12.8	5	7.1	20	28.4
	2.	Attention should be paid to the language used	1	1.4	4	5.6	4	5.7	9	12.7
	3.	Pedagogy education requirement should be brought to children's literature authors	3	4.2	5	7.1	1	1.4	9	12.7
	4.	Children's literature authors should be innovative	-	-	2	2.8	3	4.2	5	7
	5.	It should be understood that it is not a simple literature.	-	-	2	2.8	-	-	2	2.8
	6.	Children should make children's literature	-	-	2	2.8	-	-	2	2.8
PUBLISHER	1.	Children's Literature Books Should Be Inspected	5	7.1	5	7.1	4	5.7	14	19.8
	2.	Editorial and translation budgets of publishers should be increased	1	1.4	2	2.8	-	-	3	4.2

			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
	3.	Attention should be paid to the author-illustrator harmony	1	1.4	1	1.4	-	-	2	2.8
READER	1.	Teachers should educate themselves and set an example for children	0	0.0	6	8.5	1	1.4	7	9.9
	2.	Children should be gained the habit of reading books	1	1.4	2	2.8	4	5.7	7	9.9
	3.	Parents should educate themselves and set an example for their children	3	4.2	1	1.4	2	2.8	6	8.4
	4.	The book should be included in children's lives as an object in preschool	-	-	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.4
ARTWORK	1.	Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child	3	4.2	5	7.1	6	8.5	14	19.8
	2.	Children's literature should be free from elements such as violence, sexuality and abuse	3	4.2	4	5.6	-	-	7	9.9
	3.	Children should gain universal values	1	1.4	2	2.8	3	4.2	6	8.4
	4.	It should arouse a feeling of hope and love in the child	-	-	3	4.2	1	1.4	4	5.6
	5.	Books written must conform to our core values and culture	-	-	3	4.2	1	1.4	4	5.6
	6.	Ideological thoughts should not be subject to children's literature	-	-	3	4.2	-	-	3	4.2
OTHER	1.	A culture of criticism should be developed	1	1.4	1	1.4	-	-	2	2.8
	2.	The state should allocate a budget for children's literature	1	1.4	1	1.4	-	-	2	2.8
	3.	Children's literature course should become mandatory in universities	-	-	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.4

The solutions determined by today's poets and authors aged 18-30, aged 31-60, aged 61 and above to the current problems of children's literature are presented in Table 5. 8.5% and 7.1% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30; 12.8% and 7.1% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60; 7.1% and 5.7% of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over presented the findings of "Children's development levels should be considered" and "Children's literature books should be inspected", respectively, as the most important solution suggestions produced for the current problems of children's literature. 1.4% and 1.4% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30; 2.8% and 2.8% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60, 5.7% and 4.2% of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over, respectively, "Children should be gained the habit of reading books" and "Children should gain universal values". They presented their suggestions as relatively less effective solutions to the current problems of children's literature.

Discussion

Since the problems of children's literature and the solutions produced to these problems are interconnected, the tables are interpreted and discussed together. It is

observed that the answers given by the participants for the problems and solutions are close to each other. Today's female and male poets and authors have identified the following as the most important problems of children's literature: Ignoring the development level of the child, Commercialization of children's literature, Style-related problems in children's literature authors, Supervision problem in children's literature works. Apart from these items, female poets and authors prioritized the items that Negative examples in children's books and Ideological thoughts in children's books, while males prioritized the items that Failure of families to set an example for children, Problems of economic origin, and Ignoring author-illustrator harmony in children's books. It is also striking that 21.4% of all poets and authors (Women 2.8%, Men 18.5%) do not express any thoughts about the problems of children's literature. Looking at the percentages, it is seen that a larger proportion of men do not contribute. In the light of these results, no big difference was observed between the identified problems of children's literature in the context of gender. Both male and female poets and authors met on the plane of common problems.

The participants identified the following as their suggestions for the solution to current problems in children's literature: Children's development levels should be considered, Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child, Children's literature books should be inspected, and Attention should be paid to the language used. While women poets and authors prioritize the items "Teachers should educate themselves" and "Children's literature authors should be innovative", male poets and authors prioritize the items "Pedagogy education should be obligatory to children's literature authors" and "Children's Literature Should Be Free from Elements such as Violence, Sexuality and Abuse". There were no poets and authors who did not express their opinions in the section of suggestions for the solution to current problems of children's literature. In the light of these results, no great difference was observed between the suggestions for the solution to the current problems of children's literature in the context of gender. Both male and female poets and authors have come together on the plane of common solutions.

Today's poets and authors aged 18-30, aged 31-60, 61 and over have identified the following as the most important problems of children's literature: Ignoring the developmental level of the child and The problem of supervision in children's literature works. Those between the ages of 18-30; those aged 31-60, and those aged 61 and over prioritized the items of Style-related problems in children's literature authors and Commercialization of children's literature. 8.6% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30, 10% of today's poets and authors between the ages of 31-60, and 2.8% of today's poets and authors aged 61 and over did not express any thoughts about the problems of children's literature. Looking at the percentages, it is seen that poets and authors aged 61 and above contribute more. This can be attributed to the accumulation of experience and age, or to the fact that those at this age are more interested in children's literature. In the light of these results, no big difference was observed between the identified problems of children's literature in the context of age. Today's poets and authors of all age groups have met on the plane of common problems.

The most important suggestions offered by today's poets and authors for the solution to current problems of children's literature are as follows: Children's development levels should be considered, Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child, Children's literature books should be supervised. While today's poets and authors between the ages of 18-30 prioritize the items such as; Today's poets and authors aged 31-60 prioritized the items: Teachers should educate themselves and set an example for children, and pedagogical education should be a condition for children's literature authors. Today's poets and authors aged 61 and over prioritized the items "Pay attention to the language used" and "Children should be made into the habit of reading books". In the light of these results, no great difference was observed between the suggestions for the solution to the current problems of children's literature in the context of age. Today's poets and authors in all age groups have come together on the plane of common solutions.

Since there is no research in the literature that evaluates the problems and solution suggestions of children's literature according to gender and age, whether the results coincide or not has been discussed over the problems and solutions defined by all current poets and authors.

The findings of the "Supervision problem in children's literature works", "Commercialization of children's literature" and "Problems of economic origin" in Table 2 overlap with the findings of the study of Erkul, Başöncül and Sezer (2007). This study discusses the problems of children's books in three parts. One of them is the problems of publishers. Süer Sezgin (2007) talked about problems such as the low number of publishing houses that recognize the reality of children and work with a team with sufficient knowledge and equipment, giving priority to publications that worry about money, bringing children together with sloppy translations, pirate publishing, and inconsistent price policies. Soysal (2007) touched upon the importance of publishing houses grouping books according to age groups, and drew attention to the problem of accepting every book in which concepts thought to be of interest to children and children is accepted as a work of children's literature and published for this reason. İpşiroğlu (2007) stated that under the influence of the consumption world we live in, publishing houses publish books that are superficial, oriented to quick consumption and create instant effects, with the idea of "sell more and make money". Bozdağ (2007) focused on the field of children's and youth literature in Turkey and stated that the number of systematic publications should increase. The investigation in the Türk Dili Dergisi Çocuk ve İlk Gençlik Edebiyatı Özel Sayısı (2014) focused on publishing and editing children's and youth literature. The thought that it would be too early to talk about the type of children's publications editorial in our country was expressed by Fatih Erdoğan, and it was stated that the editors should have pedagogical and literary knowledge and follow the developments in the field. The relevant issue emphasized that popular culture also has an impact on children's publishing and editing. It is also stated that it is difficult for children's publishing and editing to develop without changing the idea that "cheap book" is the only criterion for the reader. It is seen that the findings of these studies overlap with the findings of "Supervision problem in children's literature works", "Commercialization of children's

literature" and " Problems of economic origin". In addition, the findings of "Children's literature works should be inspected", "The editorial and translation budgets of publishing houses should be increased" and "The state should allocate a budget for children's literature" in Table 3 are also found as solutions for these studies, and they seem to overlap with the findings of these studies.

The problems of "Ideological thoughts in children's books", "Negative Examples in Children's Books" and "The fact that children's books offer advice" in Table 2 and "Ideological thoughts should not be subjected to children's literature" in Table 3 overlaps with the problem that the works of children's literature the content is generally dominated by a political or religious ideology, primarily preferred by publishing houses in the study of İlkhan and Akyüz (2007). Şirin (1994, p. 194) emphasized that children's literature works should be fictionalized away from ideological thoughts, saying that children who read books containing ideological discourses can easily accept the practices of these thoughts in daily life and turn them into habits. Sever (2006)'s work in determining the criteria that should be found in children's literature works is also very striking in this context. The messages in the works of children's literature should not aim to make the child adopt the author's own thought or ideology by turning them into a judgment. These works should be written with an approach that is far from controlling and oppressive understandings; It should not approve of pretentiousness and superstitions, and should not make political or religious suggestions. Again Sever (2008, p. 30) emphasized that the author of a children's book is not a speaker who pursues an idea or belief and tries to convince children that it is true. İpşiroğlu (2007) finds it quite dangerous that children's literature is under the influence of ideological motivation. Among the features that children's books in Çer's (2019) study should have in educational terms, those that overlap with the findings of the researchers are as follows: Children's emotions and thoughts should not be suppressed and advice and orders should not be given to them. In children's books, irrational entities should not be used as a frightening element to make the child believe a belief or thought. Children's literature works should not be shaped by adults' value judgments, moral approaches, or ideological discourses. It is seen that the findings of these studies coincide with the findings of "Ideological thoughts in children's books" and "Children's books contain negative examples", "The fact that children's books offer advice" and "Ideological thoughts should not be subjected to children's literature" in Table 2. In the study of Tüfekçi Can (2013), the existence of ideology in children's literature was addressed from a different perspective, and the findings of this study do not directly overlap with the findings of our study. Tüfekçi Can (2013) emphasized that the ideological views reflecting the relationship between the individual and society are in children's literature due to the nature of literature. In addition, he advocates the idea that the child reader's knowing that ideology actually exists in the world he lives in will make him more competent in making sense of what is happening in the real world.

The finding of "Children's literature should be free from elements such as violence, sexuality and abuse" in Table 3 is in line with the study of Cengiz (2012). In his study, Cengiz states that many of Ömer Seyfettin's works, which are also included in Turkish textbooks, contain elements of violence. It has been concluded that the affirmation of

violence and discriminatory thoughts in children's books will negatively affect the mental health and identity development of the growing child. According to Sever (2003), life situations fictionalized in children's books should also provide examples and clues from real life. Based on this idea, the phenomenon of violence can be included in children's books to a certain extent by controlling its suitability for age and level. However, the fact that the heroes in children's books achieve their goals by using violence, the affirmation of violence in the messages, and the depiction of violence as a way to solve problems may cause the child reader to take the hero in the book as a role model and include violence in his life. The study of Gedikoğlu Özilhan (2015) also contains results parallel to this idea. In this study, the elements of violence in the tales of İbrahim Zeki Burdurlu were evaluated. The characters in the fairy tales usually perform acts of violence and fear. Considering that there is violence and evil in life, the presence of these elements in fairy tale fiction should be considered natural. However, the way the elements of violence take place affect the quality of a fairy tale. Fictions, in which violent elements are present, not only negatively affect the child's personality development, but also disrupt the process of acquiring a reading culture. In this sense, it is very important to introduce children to the right examples of fairy tales. This important task falls first to the parents and then to the teachers at school. Çer (2019) mentioned in her study that emotional, psychological and physical violence can take place in works of children's literature. However, the child should feel how to deal with violence through these books. In children's books, when the character encounters physical violence, he should not make himself successful by using violence to solve this problem. In the study of Aktan and Aydın (2018), the language of violence contained in the works specified in the "100 Basic Works" list of the Ministry of National Education was examined. According to the results of the research, the language of violence was classified as verbal violence, physical violence, sexual violence and emotional violence, from most to least. In general, it has been seen that the expressions containing the language of violence are more common in the works with foreign authors. Dağlıoğlu and Çamlıbel Çakmak (2009) examined the violence and fear elements in the texts and pictures of 174 story books with an evaluation form created by the researchers. In the study of Fırat and Çeker (2016), children's novels belonging to Kemalettin Tuğcu, stories by Ömer Seyfettin and Pinocchio, which are included in 100 Basic Works, were examined. Verbal and symbolic violence examples were determined in the study. verbal and symbolic violence The main reasons and methods of application are given. It is noteworthy that the findings of these studies coincide with the finding of "Children's literature should be away from elements such as violence, sexuality, and abuse" in Table 3.

The finding of the "Censorship problem" in Table 2 and the findings of İpşiroğlu (2007)'s study, in which he emphasized that self-censorship continues in children's literature, overlaps. Dedeolu and Erbasan's research (2021) emphasizes that when the choice about which books children should or should not read is left to a committee or a group, children are doomed to think and believe the same way as those who imposed the prohibition. The inquiry and interviews with authors of children's literature published in the İyi Kitap Çocuk ve Gençlik Kitapları Dergisi (2020) use the following similar language: "No literary work should be prohibited; no political authority should impose

legal sanctions on books." A book's only selection committee is its reader. It is vital to have faith in the reader's thoughts". As can be seen, the conclusions of these investigations corroborate those of the "Censorship problem."

The finding of "Ignoring the author-illustrator harmony in children's books" in Table 2 and the "Author-illustrator harmony should be considered" in Table 3 overlap with the findings of Ceylan's (2007) study. Ceylan stated that the author and the illustrator have joint contributions in children's literature, but publishing houses sometimes ignore this partnership by not even putting the names of the illustrators on the cover of the book. Sever (2008, p. 176) stated in his study that the weight of the author and the illustrator in the children's book is equal. As a result of such partnerships, quality works that are suitable for children emerge. In the investigation included in Türk Dili Çocuk ve İlk Gençlik Edebiyatı Özel Sayısı (2014), the problems of children's book illustrator in Turkey were discussed. The idea that the illustrator should be given freedom not to illustrate a book he does not want and that drawing has not yet been considered as a profession has come to the fore. The findings of these studies coincide with the findings of "Ignoring author-illustrator harmony in children's books" in Table 2 and "Paying attention to author-illustrator harmony" in Table 3.

The finding of "The love of books cannot be created enough in preschoolers" in Table 2 and the finding of "Books should be inserted into children's life as an object in preschool" in Table 3 overlap with the findings of the study of Atman, Çat, Gökbulut, and Mudu (2012). he study aimed to create a reading culture. To this end, 25 children aged 5-6 years attending school and their parents were included in the study group. Activities related to the project "I'm Reading, I'm getting satisfaction" were held. As a result of the study, it was seen that parents and staff gained awareness about reading habits. In her study, İnce Samur (2012) claims that a child who is introduced to books in early childhood, becomes friends with them and develops a love of books will display conscious efforts towards reading habits when he enters the primary school period and learns to read and write. Then, he emphasized that the process of acquiring a reading culture will begin for the child who gains critical literacy skills. Sever (2008:24-25) emphasized that the child's acquisition of reading culture is a sequential process. This process starts with the acquisition of a "listening habit" and continues with "reading-writing skill" and "reading habit skill". In order to talk about the acquisition of reading as a culture, the reader must have acquired "critical reading skills" and "universal literacy skills". Narratives such as fairy tales and stories read to children by parents and family elders, especially in the pre-school period, are the first important steps taken in the name of child-book interaction. In this period, quality picture books for children constitute the first step of acquiring a reading culture by arousing interest and love for the book in children. It has been determined that the findings of these studies overlap with the finding of "The love of books cannot be created enough in preschoolers" in Table 2 and the finding of "Books should be introduced into children's lives as an object in preschool" in Table 3.

The finding "Children should be made to acquire the habit of reading books" in Table 3 overlaps with the findings of İnce Samur (2018)'s study. In her study, İnce Samur revealed the importance of meeting children's readers effectively with qualified products

of children's literature in the process of acquiring a reading culture. In his study, Bulut (2018) summarized the obstacles to acquiring a reading culture. According to Bulut, the biggest obstacle for preschool children to meet quality books in the context of reading culture is the lack of financial resources. Apart from this, the lack of any control process regarding the selection of books and the purchase of books to schools were identified as other important obstacles. Sarar Kuzu (2007) listed the factors and obstacles in being literate as follows: The general situation and education level in Turkey, the political system and social mentality, the effect of role models - the family and environment factor, globalization, popular culture and media, the attractiveness of technology and education system. Gültekin (2011) identified the obstacles and problems related to reading culture as follows: television, which is one of the mass media, mother and father figures who are not good role models, forgetting the fact that children and young people have different reading and reception styles, not researching the author and publishing house well when choosing a book, the books being produced haphazardly, the books being free of literary and aesthetic concerns, the public libraries and children's and youth libraries are not in a structure that invites child readers with their interior and exterior equipment, not giving up on the imposition of 100 basic works, and giving lectures to today's authors. not included in books and school libraries. Çiftçi (2011) also mentioned similar problems with Gültekin (2011) in his study and emphasized the necessity of preparing a reading culture program by making use of children's and youth literature in order to gain reading habits in Turkey. In the study of Gökçe (2012), it was stated that in order to develop reading habits according to students, reading should be done during reading hours at schools, reading books at home with the family at certain times, there should be qualified and rich books suitable for age and level in the school/class library, and the use of the library should be widespread. . The research results of Kartal and Çağlar Özteke (2012) show that children want to read the books they are interested in, and their thoughts are taken in the selection of books instead of reading the forcedly chosen books. It is noteworthy that the findings of these studies coincide with the finding of "Children should be given the habit of reading books" in Table 3.

The finding of "Problems caused by translation" in Table 2 overlaps with the findings of the investigation in the Türk Dili Dergisi Çocuk ve İlk Gençlik Edebiyatı Özel Sayısı (2014). The inquiry focuses on the difficulties inherent in translating children's literature. The translation issues, which the investigation's participants attempted to categorize under three headings, can be summarized as the translator's lack of competence, the publishers' failure to pay attention to this point and prioritizing commercial concerns, and the lack of necessary editorial control. The findings of these studies coincide with the findings of "Problems caused by translation".

The findings of "Teachers' failure to set an example for children" in Table 2 and "Teachers should educate themselves and Teachers should set an example for children" in Table 3 overlap with the findings of Maltepe (2009). Maltepe concluded that Turkish teacher candidates do not attach enough importance to providing children with a culture of reading, expanding their emotional and thought universe, and creating native language sensitivity and aesthetic awareness in them. According to the results of the study of

Büyükkavas Kuran and Ersözlü (2009), it has been observed that although the classroom teachers know what needs to be done regarding children's literature practices, they do not follow new authors and works and do not introduce children to different and new works. In the study of Çevik and Müldür (2019), it was determined that teacher candidates prioritize stories and fairy tales more than children's literature products, and they do not have awareness of other literary genres. In addition, it has been revealed that they mostly know the translation works called children's literature classics and they do not have awareness of new authors and products. It is seen that the findings of these studies overlap with the findings of "Teachers' failure to set an example for children" in Table 2 and "Teachers should educate themselves and Teachers should set an example for children" in Table 3.

The findings of "Insufficient culture of criticism" in Table 2 and "Culture of criticism should be developed" in Table 3 overlap with the general results of the investigation carried out in the Türk Dili Dergisi Çocuk ve İlk Gençlik Edebiyatı Özel Sayısı (2014). Researchers and children's literature authors stated in the study that the importance of criticism is known in our country, but there is no culture of criticism. Academics and authors, who think that people should think freely, question and oppose in order to criticize, emphasized that the person who will criticize should be competent in that field. In addition, they brought forward the necessity of the disappearance of the culture of praise and allegiance in order for criticism to exist and develop as a genre in our country. Uğurlu (2010) stated that the field of children's literature is not taken seriously enough and the condescending attitude towards this literature continues. He stated that in the critical evaluation of children's literature works, ideological perspectives should be replaced by theoretical approaches. However, he added that a theoretical point of view has not yet been established in our country and revealed the problems in this field. It has been determined that the findings of these studies overlap with the findings of "Inadequate culture of criticism" in Table 2 and "The culture of criticism should be developed" in Table 3.

The findings of "Children's literature assuming a simple literature", " Failure of families to set an example for children", "Ignoring the developmental level of children" and "Style-related problems in children's literature authors" in Table 2 and the findings of "Children's literature should be understood not to be a simple literature", "Parents should educate themselves and set an example for children", "Children's development levels should be considered", "Language used should be considered" and "Children's literature works should contribute to the development of the child" in Table 3 overlaps with the views expressed by Sever (2008), Nedim (2000), Oğuzkan (2010), Dilidüzgün (2004) and Şirin (1994). Regarding the finding of "Children's Literature is Assumed to be a Simple Literature", researchers state that children's literature should be written with an approach that is far from a childish understanding. They emphasize that children should be kept away from books in which language is used inexperienced, a primitive narrative is chosen, and an artificial and childish style is used. Regarding "Family's failure to set an example for children", a physical and emotional intimacy is formed between parents and children through books, especially in the pre-school period. The child is happy to be with his parents. This creates respect and love for the book that mediates happiness. After the preschool period, where the parents are directly influential in the choice of books, this role

turns into guidance as the child gets older. However, parents should continue to listen to their children with interest and love, help them choose quality books, and continue reading activities. The realization of all these processes is possible with parents who study and can be role models for their children. Regarding the findings of "Ignoring the developmental level of the child", "Paying attention to the language used" and " Style-related problems in children's literature authors", in order for a work to be accepted as a children's literature product, it must have the principles of relevance to the child. Children's book authors should make children think about what they should or should not do. He should write works that allow the child to produce feelings and thoughts, presenting life situations that they can make sense of with a cause-effect relationship, without setting rules or rules, making sanctioning judgments and calling out with imperative sentences. Children's literature is a tool that introduces the vocabulary of the language. The responsibility of sensing the expressive power of the language and the richness of Turkish also falls on the artists who write works for children. In this context, it should not be forgotten that children's literature products are the most important source of mother tongue teaching and reading culture. It is seen that the findings in these studies overlap with the findings mentioned in Table 2 and Table 3.

The findings of "Children should gain universal values" and "Books written should conform to our core values and our culture" in Table 3 overlap with the findings of Ergil (2015)'s master's thesis. The thesis examines the works of Fazıl Hüsnü Dağlarca in the context of values of love, respect, hard work, friendship, benevolence, education and responsibility. In addition to these values, it was also determined that the values of equality, unity and solidarity, freedom, civilization and peace were discussed. In the master's thesis prepared by Arısoy (2014) on Ayla Çınaroğlu, examples of the universal values mentioned in the programs of the Ministry of National Education and in other studies in the field are shared. These values are justice, family, friendship, hard work, courage, solidarity, sensitivity, honesty, education, labor, struggle with life, good-naturedness, frugality, reasoning, compassion, hospitality, freedom, longing, health and cleanliness, respect, love, hope, loneliness, benevolence. In Otmar's (2017) master's thesis about Yalvaç Ural, it was determined that universal values are indirectly conveyed in Yalvaç Ural's works so that children can become sensitive adults. It has been determined that there is a wide range of universal values in his works. Kuru (2018) identified universal values such as friendship, cooperation, sharing, self-confidence, importance of family, work, joy of life, love and tolerance in Hamdullah Köseoğlu's children's book "Little Fish". The data source of İpek (2017)'s master's thesis is the best-selling children's literary books in Turkey in 2014. In the study, the main category is "universal values", and the subcategories are "peace, freedom/independence, justice/equality, love/compassion (love of people, love of family, love of animals, love of nature), respect (self-respect, respect for others, respect for differences)". , confidence / self-confidence, courage, perseverance, responsibility (responsibility to oneself, responsibility to others), benevolence / benevolence, enjoying life / happiness / commitment to life, honesty, friendship / friendship, tolerant / compassionate / understanding, humility, kindness /kindness, success / diligence / willingness to learn, cooperation". In the study of Kavan and Akın (2020), the

cultural elements in Bilgin Adalı's novels named Bicycle of Time 1, Bicycle of Time 2 - Guests from the Past and Bicycle of Time 3- Accident in Time were analyzed and it was concluded that the author used cultural elements frequently. In the sample sentences given, it has been seen that the work includes the characteristic features of the society such as gift giving, warmth, hospitality, cooperation, keeping kinship ties alive, and love of animals. Barutçu and Açık (2018) examined a total of nineteen works, consisting of stories and novels of four children's literature authors, in terms of the idioms they contain. The idioms found were evaluated according to their inclusion of national and cultural elements and the MEB publications were compared with the idioms in the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grade Turkish textbooks. Thus, it has been stated that besides the Turkish textbook, novels, stories and poetry books can contribute to the linguistic and cultural development of children. In the study of Akgül Barış and Ece (2015), children were asked whether they knew 36 rhymes in the TRT repertoire and they were asked to complete these rhymes. It was determined that only 3 of 36 nursery rhymes were mostly known by children. In this study, it was concluded that nursery rhymes play an important role in the linguistic development of children and in the transfer of cultural values. In Yavuz (2019)'s work, literary products that are a part of Turkish folk literature and also included in children's literature are explained with examples, and it is expressed how Turkish folk literature supports the development of children through children's literature. It is seen that the findings of these studies overlap with the findings of "Children should gain universal values" and "Books written should conform to our core values and our culture" in Table 3.

The finding of "Children's literature should arouse a feeling of hope and love in children" in Table 3 overlaps with the findings of Çintaş Yıldız (2011). In this research, the value of love, which İbrahim Zeki Burdurlu attaches great importance, is emphasized. According to him, it is possible for children to be happy in life if they gain the value of love. In his works, he included the value of love as the love of parents, love of homeland, love of siblings, love of animals, love of nature, love of land, love of children and love of life. In the study of Aydoğdu and Alkan (2020), the value of love was investigated under the sub-titles of love of nature, love of animals, love of family, teacher-student love and love of friends in Behiç Ak's "Tavşan Dişli Bir Gözlemcinin Notları". In this work, Behiç Ak puts love at the center and makes the child reader feel many values such as humanity, compassion, friendship, sensitivity, patience, beauty and respect. Şen (2016) examined four children's literature works from different languages and cultures in terms of the relationship between "hope" and "happy ending". According to the researcher, literary works addressing children should create a field of experience in order to keep their hope for life, humanity and the future alive. In his study, Küçükler Kuşcu (2018) investigated the phenomenon of war and how hope was handled in relation to this phenomenon, based on the children's novel Balık. According to the researcher, books that deal effectively and effectively with difficult social phenomena, among which the Balık can be cited as an example, without going beyond the reality of children, assume an important function in introducing children to some truths that require sensitivity in a literary way. It is seen that the findings in these studies overlap with the finding of "Hope and love should be instilled in the child" in Table 3.

The problems identified as "Children's literature works are written by adults" in Table 2 and the solution suggestion determined as "Children's literature should be done by children" in Table 3 coincide with the view quoted by Dilidüzgün (2004) that some theorists regard youth literature as literature "produced by young people for young people". However, the generally accepted view is that "literary texts that deal with the subjects that attract the attention and attention of young people, express their problems and are prepared specifically for them" (Dilidüzgün, 2004).

The findings of "Those who have no idea", "Innovation problem in children's literature works", "Written children's books by authors who do not know about children's world", "Inadequate delivery of children's books to children" in Table 2 and The findings of " Pedagogy education should be obligatory to children's literature authors", "Children's literature authors should be innovative" and "Children's literature courses should become mandatory in universities" in Table 3 were not reflected in other studies.

Conclusion

The results of the research revealed that ignoring the development level of the child, the commercialization of children's literature, the problems of style in children's literature Authors and the problem of control in children's literature works are the problems that today's poets and authors focus on the most. 21.4% of the poets and authors to whom we asked this question said that they did not have any idea about the problems of children's literature. This is also an important finding. Although families' inability to set an example for children, teachers' inability to set an example for children, and being low-income are all cited as problems, it can be said that they are the source of other problems. In addition, the negative examples of children's books, the ideological deviations in children's books, the advice of children's books, and the censorship problem have emerged as other important problems of children's literature. When it is considered in the context of its negative impact on reading culture, the fact that the love of books is not sufficiently instilled in preschool and the problems arising from translation are also noteworthy as other important problems of children's literature.

The solution suggestions that today's poets and authors mostly focus on are that children's development levels should be taken into account, children's literature works should contribute to the development of children, children's literature books should be controlled, the language used should be paid attention to, and children's literature authors should be given pedagogy training. In addition to these, teachers should educate themselves and set an example for children, children should be given the habit of reading books, books should be away from elements such as violence, sexuality and abuse, universal values should be taught to children, books should conform to our core values and culture. There have been other solution proposals that should be included in the lives of children as an object before school and that children's literature course should be made compulsory in universities.

It is seen that the findings about the problems and solutions of children's literature, which emerged in this study with today's poets and authors, generally overlap with the results of other studies in the literature. The most important result of this study is that

today's poets and authors agree on the idea that the books to be written for children should be appropriate for their age and level of development. This brings us to the concept of child relativity. The concept of child relativity also includes most of the findings determined by the study group. Works that allow the child to dream, are suitable for the age and level of the child in terms of language and expression, make the child feel the possibilities and richness of Turkish language, and contain the subjects that the child may be interested in and the fictions that will stimulate the curiosity instinct are works in accordance with the principle of being suitable for the child. In addition, a work that is knitted with conflicts suitable for the level of interpretation of the child, has features that allow the child reader to form thoughts with implicit messages and identify with the heroes, contributes to the child reader's creation of universal values in terms of basic educational principles, and introduces his own culture, carries the principles of relevance to the child. The measure of relativity to the child is determined by the child's gaze.

Suggestions

In light of the study findings, the following items might be suggested to address current issues in children's literature:

Authors and illustrators who create works for children should always keep the child in mind while crafting their works.

While developing a reading culture, it is critical to remember the duties and obligations of certified children's literature and to enable child-book interaction beginning in the preschool years.

Numerous scientific activities should be conducted to better understand the value of children's books, but the evaluation process of these studies should be done not only at the academic level, but also with parents and teachers.

Publishing houses that produce children's books should be controlled in the context of negative aspects like as violence, sexuality, abuse, political ideology, and predestination, but these controls should be done in the child's best interests, not for censorship. As a consequence of these inspections, different legal punishments against the author should be imposed, taking into consideration the content of the unsuitable works.

The publishers that conduct this audit should be experts in children's literature who understand children's psychology and development.

Publishers of children's books should prioritize publications that are concerned with money, bring children together with sloppy translations, pirate publishing, inconsistent price policies, etc. should be supervised by the state in the context of attitudes.

To ensure the continued development of children's literature's sensitivity, children's literature courses should be made mandatory in all university departments. Additionally, the course hours for children's literature courses in education faculties should be increased.

To ascertain the challenges and solutions associated with children's literature and to create different perspectives, similar studies research should be conducted with various study groups regarded to contribute to the development of children's literature.

Numerous research should be undertaken to ascertain if the issues and solutions addressed in children's literature vary by age and gender.

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Research Article

The Relation between Primary School Fourth Grade Students' Attitudes towards Reading and Reading Comprehension Levels

Göksu ÇİÇEKLİ KOÇ*   **Gizem ENGİN****   **Tuğçe YARDIM*****

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	This study aims to determine the relation between primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading and reading comprehension levels and make a comparative analysis of these variables in terms of number of books read in a month, reading frequency, and regular reading habits. Population of the study is primary school fourth grade students studying in public schools. "Reading Attitude Scale" developed by Yurdakal and Kırmızı (2019) and "Reading Comprehension Achievement Test" developed by Ergen and Batmaz (2019) are used as data collection tools of the study. The scales were applied to 300 students in spring semester of 2019-2020 educational year. The results of the study revealed that students' attitudes towards reading were at a positive level; however, their reading comprehension achievements were at medium level. There was a weak positive correlation between attitude towards reading and reading comprehension achievement level. It was also found that as number of books students read, time allocated for reading, and regular reading habits increased, their achievement levels increased as well.

* Assistant Professor, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/ 0000-0002-7165-7312, Ege University Turkish Language Education Department, goksu.cicekli.koc@ege.edu.tr

** Associate Professor, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/ 0000-0003-2532-8136, Ege University Primary Education Department, gizem.engin@ege.edu.tr

*** PhD student, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3339-9639, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Primary Education Doctorate Program, yardim.tugce@gmail.com

Introduction

Turkish courses consist of listening, speaking, reading, and writing which are four basic learning areas. Of these four basic language skills, listening and speaking are learned before starting school whereas reading and writing are learned after starting school within a specified program. This study examines reading which is one of these basic language skills.

Akyol (2005, 1) defines reading as "process of constructing meaning" and many other researchers viewed reading as a process: "process of perceiving and comprehending" (Oğuzkan, 1987: 37); "process of interpreting" (Gürses, 1996: 101); "process of communicating, perceiving, learning, and progressing" (Sever, 2004: 13); "process of perceiving" (Balcı, 2013: 4). Based on these definitions, it must be kept in mind that reading is essentially a process. Knowledge of letters and symbols is not enough to carry out reading process. It is also necessary to cognitively structure these letters and symbols based on prior knowledge in order to successfully carry out this process.

Reading is one of the most frequently used methods during the process of learning and acquiring knowledge (Sever, 2004: 15). Reading activities in school is not sufficient for individuals to improve themselves and keep up with modern age in which information is constantly renewed. Additionally, it is necessary for individuals to acknowledge reading as a need and turn it into a habit that continues out of the school. To successfully make reading a habit, students need to have a positive attitude towards reading. Students should prefer reading not only when it is an obligation but also when they are traveling or on holiday. Expectations from students about reading are as follows: obtaining information about authors of the books they read, recommending the books they read to their friends and other individuals around them, sharing the information they acquired from the books they read, exchanging books, going to libraries, being able to choose books suitable to their levels, etc. Also, students are expected to be aware of positive effects of books such as improving vocabulary, expressing themselves, improving creativity, developing empathy, having different perspectives to solve problems more efficiently (Yurdakal ve Kırmızı, 2019). Having awareness of these effects increase students' attitudes towards reading.

As students' attitudes towards reading increase, their willingness to read and the time they devote to reading will also increase, and their reading comprehension skills will improve depending on this situation. For a student, just reading quickly and accurately is not enough. At the same time, he must be able to understand and interpret what he reads correctly. According to the results of the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study -PIRLS 2001, Turkey ranked 28th among 35 participating countries (Öğretmen, 2006). This degree shows that the students in our country are not at the desired level in their reading comprehension skills. Similarly, Turkey ranked 40th among 77 countries in the field of reading skills in Programme for International Student Assessment-PISA 2018 (MEB, 2019). This result shows that there is still a need to work in the field of reading skills in our country.

Reading, which is a common basic element of all lessons, can only become a regular habit when it is perceived as a need by students. Improving their reading skills also improves their personal development. It can be expected that students with a positive attitude towards reading have higher achievement than students with a negative attitude. There are various ways to assess reading comprehension and one of them is achievement tests. It can also be expected that students with a positive attitude towards reading have higher achievement test scores than students with a negative attitude towards reading.

This study aims to determine the relation between primary school fourth grade students' reading comprehension achievements and attitudes towards reading and compare them in accordance with a variety of variables. For this reason, it is believed to be important to shed light on the topic for further future studies.

The main research question in the study is "What is the relationship between primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading and reading comprehension achievement levels?"

Sub-questions of the study are as follows:

1- What is reading comprehension achievement level of primary school fourth grade students?

2- What is primary school fourth grade students' level of attitudes towards reading?

3- Is there a significant relationship between primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading and achievements in reading?

4- Do primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading differ in accordance with number of books they read in a month?

5- Do primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards sub-groups of reading differ in accordance with number of books they read monthly? Sub-groups examined in the study are benefits of reading, meaning of reading, reading activities, and reading process.

6- Do primary school fourth grade students reading achievement levels differ in accordance with number of books they read in a month?

7- Do primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading differ in accordance with regular reading habit?

8- Do primary school fourth grade students reading achievement levels differ in accordance with regular reading habit?

9- Do primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading differ in accordance with time allocated to reading?

10- Do primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading differ in accordance with sub-groups (benefits of reading, meaning of reading, reading activities, and reading process) of reading?

11- Do primary school fourth grade students reading achievement levels differ in accordance with time allocated to reading?

Methodology

In this descriptive study, relational screening model is used to determine the relation between students' attitudes towards reading and reading achievement levels.

Research design and publication ethics

The ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Izmir governorship with the document dated 26/01/2020, numbered 12018877-604.01.02-E.1831805 and Ege University Social and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board numbered 85553214-050.06.04 and dated December 25, 2019.

Context

The population of the study is primary school fourth grade students studying in İzmir Bornova district in 2019-2020 educational year. As it is expected that the attitude towards reading will develop until they reach the fourth grade, which is the last step of primary school, fourth grade students were preferred. Cemiloğlu (2001) supports our view by stating that reading and writing skills are acquired at a basic level in the first three grades of primary school, and that these skills are developed in the following years.

Participants

Random selection method was used to select schools among primary schools in Bornova district. The data of the study was collected from volunteer students from selected.

Data collection and analysis

Following data collection tools are used in the study:

1- "Reading Attitude Scale": This scale developed by Yurdakul and Kırmızı (2019) consists of 4 dimensions and 28 items. KMO value of the scale is 0,817, Cronbach Alpha value is 0,853.

2- "Reading Comprehension Achievement Test": This test developed by Ergen and Batmaz (2019) consists of 25 multiple choice questions. KR-20 value of the test is 0,82. A story (two mice) and a narrative informative text (Bread), taken from primary school fourth grade Turkish course book approved by National Ministry of Education Board of Education, is used in the test. Achievement test includes questions prepared in accordance with objectives of Turkish Courses Curriculum.

The answers given by students to "Reading Attitude Scale" and "Reading Comprehension Achievement Test" were converted into quantitative data by using following procedure:

"Reading Attitude Scale": Each item in the scale was given a certain value and marked as Agree (3), Partly Agree (2), and Disagree (1). "Reading   Comprehension Achievement Test": The scale consists of 25 items and each item was valued as 4 points which makes 100 points in total. Students' achievement levels were specified in accordance with National Ministry of Education's scoring scale in which points from 85-100 are marked 'very good', 70-84 are marked 'good', 55-69 are marked 'medium', 45-54 are marked 'passing grade', and 0-44 are marked 'fail'.

SPSS statistical program was used in the analysis of the collected data and also appropriate analysis with descriptive analysis were used.

Procedure

At the outset of data collection process, headmasters and fourth grade teachers of the schools chosen for application were visited and informed about the process. Permission forms for students' participation in the study were taken from parents. Volunteer students who were permitted to participate in the study by their parents were informed that they do not need to feel any pressure and choose any option suitable to themselves. At first, "Reading Comprehension Achievement Test" was taken by students and secondly, they were asked to fill in "Reading Attitude Scale". It was made sure that at least one researcher was present in classrooms during the application process.

Findings

Before starting analysis of the data, normality assumption for the collected data was tested. Skewness and Kurtosis values for all data were found between -2 and +2. Parametric analyses were selected after determining that all normality assumptions were met. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the scale for this study was calculated as 85.

Table 1. Primary school fourth grade students' achievement levels for reading comprehension

	N	Min	Max	X	sd
	300	12	100	64.69	21.67

As seen in Table 1, the average point for students' reading comprehension is 64.69. The lowest point taken from achievement test is 12, and the highest point is 100.

Table 2. Primary school fourth grade students' attitude levels for reading

	N	Min	Max	X	sd
	300	32	80	67.52	8.70

As seen in Table 2, the average point for students' attitudes towards reading is 67.52. The lowest score taken from reading attitudes scale is 32 and the highest score is 80.

Table 3. Relation between primary school fourth grade students' attitude levels for reading and reading achievement levels.

	N	r	p
	300	.20	.00

As seen in Table 3, there is a weak relation between students' reading achievement levels and their attitude towards reading (r=.20; p=.00<.05).

Table 4. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading as per number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	3132.98	3	1044.32	15.83	.00	2>1
Intragroups	19519.79	296	65.94			3>1
Total	22652.78	299				4>1

Table 4 shows that students' attitudes towards reading differentiates significantly in accordance with number of books they read (F=15.83, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't read any books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 1 book, 2-5 books, and 6-10 books.

Table 5. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards benefits of reading sub-group in accordance with number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	336.29	3	112.09	8.94	.00	2>1
Intragroups	3710.70	296	12.536			3>1
Total	4046.99	299				4>1

Table 5 shows that students' attitudes towards benefits of reading subgroup differentiates significantly in accordance with number of books they read in a month (F=8.94, P=.00). The Turkey test results, carried out to specify reasons for this difference, revealed that attitudes of students who read 1 book have significantly more negative attitudes towards

reading than students who read 2-5 books and students who read 2 books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 6-10 books.

Table 6. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards meaning of reading sub-group in accordance with number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	75.36	3	25.12	7.55	.00	2>1
Intragroups	984.67	296	3.32			3>1
Total	1060.03	299				4>1
						4>3

Table 6 shows that students' attitudes towards meaning of reading subgroup differentiates significantly in accordance with number of books they read in a month (F=7.55, P=.00).). The Turkey test results, carried out to specify reasons for this difference, revealed that attitudes of students who don't read any books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 1 book, 2-5 books, and 6-10 books. Also, students who read 2-5 books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 6-10 books.

Table 7. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading activities sub-group in accordance with number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	316.86	3	105.62	12.49	.00	3>1
Intragroups	2502.50	296	8.45			4>1
Total	2819.37	299				4>2

Table 7 shows that students' attitudes towards reading activities subgroup differentiates significantly in accordance with number of books they read in a month (F=12.49, P=.00). The Turkey test results, carried out to specify reasons for this difference, revealed that attitudes of students who don't read any books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 1 book, 2-5 books, and 6-10 books. Also, students who read 1 book have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 6-10 books.

Table 8. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading process sub-group in accordance with number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	148.56	3	49.52	10.74	.00	2>1
Intragroups	1364.26	296	4.60			3>1
Total	1512.83	299				4>1
						4>2
						4>3

Table 8 shows that students' attitudes towards process of reading subgroup differentiates significantly in accordance with number of books they read in a month (F=10.74, P=.00). The Turkey test results, carried out to specify reasons for this difference revealed that students who don't read any books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 1 book, 2-5 books, and 6-10 books. Also, students who read 1 book and 2-5 books have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who read 6-10 books.

Table 9. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' reading achievements in accordance with number of books they read in a month.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	3594.47	3	1198.15	2.60	.05	3>1
Intragroups	136133.31	296	459.91			4>1
Total	139727.78	299				

Table 9 shows that students' reading achievement test results differentiate significantly in accordance with number of books they read in a month. The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't read any books have significantly lower levels of reading achievement than students who read 1 book, 2-5 books, and 6-10 books.

Table 10. T-test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading in accordance with regular reading habits.

Groups	N	X	sd	t	p
Yes	218	69.50	7.74	6.90	0.73
No	82	62.26	8.96		

Table 10 shows that students' attitudes towards reading do not differentiate significantly in accordance with their regular reading habits (t=6.90; p>.05).

Table 11. T-test results for primary school fourth grade students' reading achievement levels in accordance with regular reading habits.

Groups	N	X	sd	t	p
Yes	218	64.84	21.46	.19	.46
No	82	64.29	22.14		

Table 11 shows that students' reading achievement levels do not differentiate significantly in accordance with their regular reading habits (t=.19; p>.05).

Table 12. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	2523,53	4	630.88	9.24	.00	3>1
Intragroups	20129,248	295	68.23			4>1
Total	22652,787	299				5>1
						3>2
						4>2
						5>2

Table 12 shows that students' attitudes towards reading differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=9.24, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't spent any time and who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading than students who spend more than 15 minutes for reading.

Table 13. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards benefits of reading subgroup in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	273.49	4	68.37	5.34	.00	2>1
Intragroups	3773.50	295	12.79			3>1
Total	4046.99	299				4>1
						5>1
						3>2
						4>2
						5>2

Table 13 shows that students' attitudes towards benefits of reading subgroup differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=5.34, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't spent any time for reading have significantly more negative attitudes for benefits of

reading than students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading. Also, students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have significantly more negative attitudes for benefits of reading than students who spend more than 15 minutes for reading.

Table 14. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards meaning of reading subgroup in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	64.72	4	16.18	4.79	.00	4>2
Intragroups	995.31	295	3.37			5>2
Total	1060.03	299				

Table 14 shows that students' attitudes towards meaning of reading subgroup differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=4.79, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have significantly more negative attitudes for meaning of reading than students who spend more than 30 minutes for reading.

Table 15. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards meaning of reading subgroup in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	243.35	4	60.83	6.96	.00	3>1
Intragroups	2576.01	295	8.73			4>1
Total	2819.37	299				5>1
						5>2

Table 15 shows that students' attitudes towards meaning of reading subgroup differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=6.96, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't spend any time for reading have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading activities than students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading. Also, students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading activities than students who spend more than 60 minutes for reading.

Table 16. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' attitudes towards reading process subgroup in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	123.97	4	30.99	6.58	.00	3>1
Intragroups	1388.85	295	4.70			4>1

Total	1512.83	299			5>1
					4>2
					5>2

Table 16 shows that students' attitudes towards reading process subgroup differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=6.58, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't spend any time for reading have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading process than students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading. Also, students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have significantly more negative attitudes towards reading process than students who spend more than 30 minutes for reading.

Table 17. ANOVA test results for primary school fourth grade students' reading achievement levels in accordance with time spent for reading.

Groups	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Squares	F	P	Between Groups Variance
Intergroups	12304.40	4	3076.10	7.12	.00	4>1
Intragroups	127423.38	295	431.94			3>2
Total	139727.78	299				4>2

Table 17 shows that students' reading achievement levels differentiate significantly in accordance with time allocated to reading (F=7.12, P=.00). The Turkey test, carried out to specify the reason for this difference, revealed that students who don't spend any time for reading have significantly lower reading achievement levels than students who spend more than 30 minutes for reading. Also, students who spend 1-15 minutes for reading have lower reading achievement levels than students who spend more than 15 minutes for reading.

Discussion and Conclusion

Results of tests and scales revealed that students' reading achievement levels are "medium" (X=64.69); however, their attitudes towards reading are "high" (X=67.52), and there is a weak positive relation (r=.20) between their attitudes towards reading and achievement levels. Students' total reading attitude scores for subcategories of reading; benefits of reading, meaning of reading, reading activities, and reading process, differentiate positively in favor of students who read more books. Students' reading achievement levels differentiate positively in favor of students who read more books and allocate more time for reading; however, there isn't a statistically significant difference in favor of regular reading habits. Additionally, findings revealed that there is a significant difference in favor of total scores of fourth grade students who read more books in attitudes towards reading and all subgroups of reading (benefits of reading, meaning of reading, reading activities, reading process) analyzed throughout the study.

The findings of other studies in related literature also express that students' reading achievements are at "medium" (X=64.69) level. This result corresponds to findings of

Ergen and Batmaz (2019), Kıran (2019), Sert (2010), Türkben and Gündeğer (2021), and Ünal (2006). However, Altunkaya and Sülükçü (2018) found students' reading achievements at low level. Examining PISA (2018) scores shows that Turkey is at 40th place among 77 countries and at 31st place among OECD countries. Mean score of Turkish students from this test is 466. Considering minimum limits for competency levels for PISA 2018 reading skills, it can be seen that Turkish students are at second level in this field. The levels for this test are specified as 1c, 1b, 1a, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. Although, Turkish students' reading achievement level is higher than some other countries, it is obviously not at sufficient or desired level and there are possible practices that can be beneficial to develop higher reading skills. There are various studies in related literature testing efficiency of methods, approaches, techniques and trainings which can improve reading skills. Some studies expressing beneficial practices and methods are Aşuluk (2020): intelligence games, Özaslan (2006): word games, Tok (2008): cooperative learning method, Koç (2007): active learning, Belet and Yaşar (2007): learning strategies, Kaya Tosun (2018): learning circle technique, Kanmaz (2012),Sidekli and Çetin (2017), Ergen and Batmaz (2019): reading comprehension strategies. It is believed to be necessary to further analyze studies carried out on this topic qualitatively and quantitatively.

Another finding of the study revealed that there is a positive but statistically weak relation between students' attitudes towards reading and their reading achievement levels (r=.20). This result corresponds to results of Karabay and Kuşdemir Kayıran (2010) and Sallabaş (2008). On the other hand, Şeflek Kovacıoğlu (2006) found a medium level relation between reading achievement levels and attitudes towards reading. Karabay and Kuşdemir Kayıran (2010)'s study revealed that students with a positive attitude towards reading have higher levels of achievement. In all studies mentioned above, there is a relation between attitudes towards reading and achievement levels despite being weak. This weak relation is understandable as achievement involves many other variables. For instance, concentration, motivation, and environment can have different effects on individuals' reading comprehension levels.

Additionally, the results of the study revealed that increasing time allocated for reading and having regular reading habits increased reading achievement levels. Similarly, studies of Durualp, Çiçekoğlu and Durualp (2013) found that increase in number books read also increases positive attitude towards reading. Kutlu, Yıldırım, Bilican, Kumandaş (2011) expressed that increase in access to books increases reading comprehension levels. Sert (2010)'s study revealed that an increase in regular reading habits also increases reading comprehension level. For this reason, it is recommended introduce students to books at an early age, encourage them to have regular reading habits, make their access to books easier, have certain time allocated to reading, and be a role model to them.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Araştırma Makalesi

İlkokul Dördüncü Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Okumaya Yönelik Tutumları ile Okuduğunu Anlama Başarıları Arasındaki İlişki

Göksu ÇİÇEKLİ KOÇ[*]   **Gizem ENGİN**[**]   **Tuğçe YARDIM**[***]

ÖZET

Bu araştırmada ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarıları arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek ve bu değişkenleri bir ayda okunan kitap sayısı, kitap okuma sıklığı ve düzenli kitap okuma durumu değişkenleri açısından karşılaştırmalı olarak incelemek amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu devlet okullarında öğrenim gören ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada Yurdakal ve Kırmızı (2019) tarafından geliştirilen "Okumaya Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği" ile Ergen ve Batmaz (2019) tarafından geliştirilen "Okuduğunu Anlama Başarı Testi" kullanılmıştır. Ölçekler 2019-2020 bahar yarıyılında 300 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının yüksek düzeyde olduğu, okuduğunu anlama başarılarının ise orta düzeyde olduğu bulunmuştur. Okumaya yönelik tutum ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyinde pozitif yönde zayıf bir ilişki olduğu belirlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin okudukları kitap sayısı, kitap okuma süreleri ve düzenli kitap okuma durumu arttıkça okumaya yönelik tutumları ve okuduğunu anlama başarılarının da arttığı görülmüştür.

[*] Dr. Öğretim Üyesi, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/ 0000-0002-7165-7312, Ege Üniversitesi Türkçe Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı, goksu.cicekli.koc@ege.edu.tr

[**] Doç. Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/ 0000-0003-2532-8136, Ege Üniversitesi Sınıf Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı, gizem.engin@ege.edu.tr

[***] Doktora Öğrencisi, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3339-9639, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Sınıf Eğitimi Doktora Programı, yardim.tugce@gmail.com

Giriş

Türkçe dersi dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma olmak üzere dört temel öğrenme alanından oluşmaktadır. Dört temel dil becerisinden dinleme ve konuşma okul çağından önce edinilirken, okuma ve yazma genellikle okul başladıktan sonra ve belirli bir program dâhilinde öğrenilmektedir. Bu araştırmada temel dil becerilerinden okuma ele alınacaktır.

Akyol (2005, 1) tarafından "anlam kurma süreci" olarak nitelendirilen okuma, pek çok araştırmacı tarafından da süreç olarak değerlendirilmiştir: "algılama ve kavrama süreci" (Oğuzkan, 1987: 37); "yorumlama süreci" (Gürses, 1996: 101); "iletişim, algılama, öğrenme ve gelişim süreci" (Sever, 2004: 13); "algılama süreci" (Balcı, 2013: 4). Tanımlardan da yola çıkarak okumanın öncelikle bir süreç olduğu unutulmamalıdır. Okuma sürecinin gerçekleşebilmesi için yalnızca harflerin ya da sembollerin tanınması yeterli değildir. Ayrıca bunların ön bilgilere dayanılarak zihinde yapılandırılması ve anlamlandırılması gerekmektedir.

Okuma, öğrenme ve bilgi edinme sürecinde en sık başvurulan yöntemlerden biridir (Sever, 2004: 15). Bireyin kendini geliştirebilmesi ve bilginin sürekli yenilendiği çağa ayak uydurabilmesi için yalnızca okulda yapılan okuma çalışmaları yeterli olmayacaktır. Ayrıca öğrencilerin okumayı ihtiyaç olarak algılayıp bunu okul dışında da gerçekleştirmeyi alışkanlık haline getirmeleri gerekir. Okumanın alışkanlık haline gelmesi noktasında öncelikle öğrencinin okumaya yönelik tutumunun yüksek olması beklenir. Öğrenci yalnızca zorunlu olduğu zamanlarda değil yolculukta ya da tatilde de okumayı tercih etmelidir. Okuma ile ilgili öğrencilerden beklenenler şu şekilde sıralanabilir: okuduğu kitapların yazarları hakkında bilgi edinme, kitapları arkadaşlarına ya da yakın çevresindeki bireylere önerme, kitaptan edindiği bilgileri paylaşma, kitap alışverişinde bulunma, kütüphaneye gitme, seviyesine uygun kitap seçebilme vb. Aynı zamanda öğrencinin okumanın kelime dağarcığının gelişmesine, kendini daha rahat ifade edebilmesine, yaratıcılığı geliştirmesine, empati kurma süreçlerine, farklı bakış açıları kazanarak sorunlara çözüm önerileri geliştirebilmesine katkı sağladığının farkında olması beklenir (Yurdakal ve Kırmızı, 2019). Öğrenci bu farkındalığı kazandığı zaman okumaya yönelik tutumu da daha yüksek düzeye çıkacaktır.

Öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumları arttıkça okuma istekleri ve okumaya ayırdıkları süre de artacak, bu duruma bağlı olarak okuduğunu anlama becerileri de gelişecektir. Bir öğrenci için yalnızca hızlı ve doğru okumak yeterli değildir. Aynı zamanda okuduğunu doğru anlaması ve yorumlayabilmesi gereklidir. Uluslararası Okuma Becerilerinde Gelişim Projesi-PIRLS 2001 sonuçlarına göre Türkiye 35 katılımcı ülke arasında 28. sırayı almıştır (Öğretmen, 2006). Alınan bu derece ülkemizdeki öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerilerinde istenen düzeyde olmadıklarını gösterir niteliktedir. Benzer şekilde Uluslararası Öğrenci Değerlendirme Programı-PISA 2018 okuma becerisi alanında Türkiye 77 ülke arasında 40. sırada yer almıştır (MEB, 2019). Bu sonuç da ülkemizde hâlâ okuma becerisi alanında çalışılması gerektiğini göstermektedir.

Tüm derslerin temel bileşeni olan okuma, öğrenciler tarafından ihtiyaç olarak algılandığında alışkanlık haline getirilebilir. Öğrenciler okuma becerilerini geliştirdiklerinde kişisel gelişimlerine de katkı sağlayacaklardır. Okumaya yönelik tutumu yüksek düzeyde olan öğrencilerin başarı testinden alacakları puanın da tutumu düşük olan

öğrencilere nazaran daha yüksek olması beklenir. Okuduğunu anlama becerisini değerlendirmenin pek çok yolu vardır. Bunlardan biri de başarı testidir. Okumaya yönelik tutumu yüksek düzeyde olan öğrencilerin başarı testinden alacakları puanın da tutumu düşük olan öğrencilere nazaran daha yüksek olması beklenir.

Bu araştırmada, ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarıları arasındaki ilişki belirleneceği ve çeşitli değişkenler açısından karşılaştırmalı olarak inceleneceği için bundan sonra yapılacak araştırmalara yol göstermesi bakımından önem arz etmektedir.

Problem Durumu

Araştırmanın problem cümlesi "İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarıları arasındaki ilişki nasıldır?" şeklindedir.

Araştırmanın alt problemleri şöyledir:

1. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyi nedir?

2. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutum düzeyi nedir?

3. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki var mıdır?

4. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre değişmekte midir?

5. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın katkıları, okumanın anlamı, okuma etkinlikleri ve okuma süreci alt boyutlarına ilişkin tutumları aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre değişmekte midir?

6. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarıları aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre değişmekte midir?

7. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre değişmekte midir?

8. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarıları düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre değişmekte midir?

9. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları kitap okuma süresine göre değişmekte midir?

10. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın katkıları, okumanın anlamı, okuma etkinlikleri ve okuma süreci alt boyutlarına ilişkin tutumları kitap okuma süresine göre değişmekte midir?

11. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarıları kitap okuma süresine göre değişmekte midir?

Yöntem

Betimsel bir çalışma olan bu araştırmada ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek amaçlandığı için ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır.

Araştırma deseni ve yayın etiği

Çalışma için etik onay İzmir Valiliğinden 26/01/2020 tarih ve 12018877-604.01.02-E.1831805 sayılı belge ve Ege Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etik Kurulundan 25.12.2019 tarih ve 85553214-050.06.04 sayılı belge ile alınmıştır.

Evren

Araştırmanın evrenini 2019-2020 eğitim-öğretim yılında İzmir ili Bornova ilçesinde öğrenim görmekte olan ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri oluşturmaktadır. Okumaya yönelik tutumun ilkokulun son basamağı olan dördüncü sınıfa gelinceye kadar gelişmiş olacağı beklendiği için dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri tercih edilmiştir. Cemiloğlu (2001) ilkokulun ilk üç sınıfında okuma ve yazma becerilerinin temel düzeyde kazanıldığını, sonraki yıllarda ise bu becerilerin geliştirildiğini ifade ederek görüşümüzü desteklemektedir.

Katılımcılar

Araştırmada veri toplanacak okullar seçilirken Bornova ilçesindeki ilkokullar arasından random atama yapılmıştır. Belirlenen ilkokullardan katılıma gönüllü dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinden veriler toplanmıştır.

Verilerin toplanması ve analizi

Araştırmada kullanılan veri toplama araçları şunlardır:

1. "Okumaya Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği": Yurdakal ve Kırmızı (2019) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek 4 boyut ve 28 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçeğin KMO değeri 0.817, Cronbach Alpha değeri 0.853'tür.

2. "Okuduğunu Anlama Başarı Testi": Ergen ve Batmaz (2019) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. 25 adet çoktan seçmeli sorudan oluşmaktadır. KR-20 değeri 0,82'dir. Testte, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu tarafından Türkçe ders kitabı (ilkokul dördüncü sınıf) olarak kabul edilmiş bir kitaptan alınan bir adet hikâye edici metin (İki Fare) ve bir adet bilgi verici metin (Ekmek) kullanılmıştır. Başarı testinde ise İlköğretim Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı'nda yer alan kazanımlar doğrultusunda hazırlanan sorular kullanılmıştır.

Öğrencilerin "Okuduğunu Anlama Başarı Testi"ne verdikleri cevaplar ve "Okumaya Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği"nde işaretledikleri seçenekler aşağıdaki şekilde sayısal verilere dönüştürülmüştür:

"Okumaya Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği": Ölçekteki her bir madde Katılıyorum (3), Kısmen Katılıyorum (2) ve Katılmıyorum (1) değerleri ile ifade edilmiştir.

"Okuduğunu Anlama Başarı Testi": 25 adet çoktan seçmeli sorudan oluşmaktadır. Başarı testinde soruların her birine dörder puan verilmiş böylece ölçek 100 toplam puan üzerinden değerlendirilmiştir.

Araştırmada öğrencilerin başarı testi sonucunda belirlenen okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri MEB tarafından belirlenen puanlama derecesine göre yapılmıştır. Bu puanlama derecesi şu şekildedir: 85 - 100 aralığı "Pekiyi", 70 – 84 aralığı "İyi", 55 – 69 aralığı "Orta", 45 – 54 aralığı "Geçer" ve 0 - 44 aralığı "Başarısız".

Araştırmadaki verilerin analizinde SPSS istatistik programı kullanılmış ve betimsel istatistiklerle birlikte uygun analizlerden yararlanılmıştır.

Verilerin Toplanması

Veri toplama sürecinde öncelikle uygulama yapılacak okulların müdürleri ve o okullarda görev yapan dördüncü sınıf öğretmenleri ile görüşülmüş ve öğretmenler uygulama hakkında bilgilendirilmiştir. Öğrenci velilerinden öğrencilerin araştırmaya katılmalarını izin verdiklerini gösteren onam formları toplanmıştır. Araştırmaya katılmasına izin verilen ve gönüllülük gösteren öğrencilere önce "Okuduğunu Anlama Başarı Testi"ni cevaplamaları, ardından "Okumaya Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği"nde içtenlikle ve baskı altında hissetmeden kendilerine uygun olan seçeneği işaretlemeleri istenmiştir. Uygulama sürecinde araştırmacılardan en az biri uygulama alanında bulunmuştur.

Bulgular

Veri analizine başlamadan önce verilerin normallik varsayımlarını karşılama durumları test edilmiştir. Tüm veriler için Skewness ve Kurtosis değerlerinin -2 ve +2 aralığında olduğu görülmüştür. Diğer normallik varsayımlarının da karşılandığı görüldükten sonra parametrik analizler tercih edilmiştir. Ölçeğin bu çalışma için güvenirlik katsatısı Cronbach's Alpha değeri .85 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Tablo 1. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyi

	N	Min	Max	X	sd
	300	12	100	64.69	21.67

Tablo 1'de görüldüğü üzere öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarı ortalamaları 64.69'dur. Başarı testinden alınan en düşük puan 12, en yüksek puan ise 100'dür.

Tablo 2. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutum düzeyi

	N	Min	Max	X	sd
	300	32	80	67.52	8.70

Tablo 2'de görüldüğü üzere öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutum ortalamaları 67.52'dir. Tutum ölçeğinden alınan en düşük puan 32, en yüksek puan ise 80'dir.

Tablo 3. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki

	N	r	p
	300	.20	.00

Tablo 3'te görüldüğü üzere okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel açıdan pozitif yönde zayıf bir ilişki bulunmuştur (r=.20; p=.00<.05).

Tablo 4. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	3132.98	3	1044.32	15.83	.00	2>1
Gruplar içi	19519.79	296	65.94			3>1
Toplam	22652.78	299				4>1

Tablo 4'te öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=15.83, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 1 kitap okuyan, 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 5. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın katkıları alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	336.29	3	112.09	8.94	.00	2>1

Gruplar içi	3710.70	296	12.536		3>1
Toplam	4046.99	299			4>1

Tablo 5'te öğrencilerin okumanın katkıları alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=8.94, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 1 kitap okuyan, 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 6. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın anlamı alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	75.36	3	25.12	7.55	.00	2>1
Gruplar içi	984.67	296	3.32			3>1
Toplam	1060.03	299				4>1
						4>3

Tablo 6'da öğrencilerin okumanın anlamı alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=7.55, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 1 kitap okuyan, 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre ve 2-5 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 7. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	316.86	3	105.62	12.49	.00	3>1
Gruplar içi	2502.50	296	8.45			4>1
Toplam	2819.37	299				4>2

Tablo 7'de öğrencilerin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=12.49, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre ve 1 kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 8. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma süreci alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	148.56	3	49.52	10.74	.00	2>1
Gruplar içi	1364.26	296	4.60			3>1
Toplam	1512.83	299				4>1
						4>2
						4>3

Tablo 8'de öğrencilerin okuma süreci alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=10.74, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 1 kitap okuyan, 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre ve 1 kitap okuyan ve 2-5 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 9. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	3594.47	3	1198.15	2.60	.05	3>1
Gruplar içi	136133.31	296	459.91			4>1
Toplam	139727.78	299				

Tablo 9'da öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=2.60, P=.05). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının kitap okumayan, 2-5 arası kitap okuyan ve 6-10 arası kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 10. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre t-testi sonuçları

Gruplar	N	X	sd	t	p
Evet	218	69.50	7.74	6.90	0.73
Hayır	82	62.26	8.96		

Tablo 10'da öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre anlamlı farklılaşmadığı görülmüştür (t=6.90; p>.05).

Tablo 11. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre t-testi sonuçları

Gruplar	N	X	sd	t	p
Evet	218	64.84	21.46	.19	.46
Hayır	82	64.29	22.14		

Tablo 11'de öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre anlamlı farklılaşmadığı görülmüştür (t=.19; p>.05).

Tablo 12. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	2523,53	4	630.88	9.24	.00	3>1
Gruplar içi	20129,248	295	68.23			4>1
Toplam	22652,787	299				5>1
						3>2
						4>2
						5>2

Tablo 12'de öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=9.24, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan ve 1-15 dk kitap okuyan öğrencilerin okumaya ilişkin tutumlarının 15 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 13. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın katkıları alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	273.49	4	68.37	5.34	.00	2>1
Gruplar içi	3773.50	295	12.79			3>1
Toplam	4046.99	299				4>1
						5>1
						3>2
						4>2
						5>2

Tablo 13'te öğrencilerin okumanın katkıları alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=5.34, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okumanın katkıları alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının diğer tüm öğrencilere göre; 1-15

dakika kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının ise 15 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 14. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumanın anlamı alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	64.72	4	16.18	4.79	.00	4>2
Gruplar içi	995.31	295	3.37			5>2
Toplam	1060.03	299				

Tablo 14'te öğrencilerin okumanın anlamı alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=4.79, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre 1-15 dakika kitap okuyan öğrencilerin okumanın anlamı alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının 30 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 15. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	243.35	4	60.83	6.96	.00	3>1
Gruplar içi	2576.01	295	8.73			4>1
Toplam	2819.37	299				5>1
						5>2

Tablo 15'te öğrencilerin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=6.96, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okumayan öğrencilerin 15 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre ve 1-15 dakika kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının ise 60 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 16. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuma süreci alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının aylık kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	123.97	4	30.99	6.58	.00	3>1
Gruplar içi	1388.85	295	4.70			4>1
Toplam	1512.83	299				5>1
						4>2

						5>2

Tablo 16'da öğrencilerin okuma süreci alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=6.58, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okuma etkinlikleri alt boyutuna ilişkin tutumlarının kitap okumayan öğrencilerin 15 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre ve 1-15 dakika kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının ise 30 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tablo 17. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının kitap okuma süresine göre ANOVA testi

Gruplar	Kareler toplamı	sd	Kareler ortalaması	F	P	Gruplar arası farklılık
Gruplar arası	12304.40	4	3076.10	7.12	.00	4>1
Gruplar içi	127423.38	295	431.94			3>2
Toplam	139727.78	299				4>2

Tablo 17'de öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının kitap okuma süresine göre anlamlı farklılaştığı görülmüştür (F=7.12, P=.00). Bu farklılaşmanın kaynağını görmek için yapılan Tukey testi sonucuna göre kitap okumayan öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarılarının 30 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre ve 1-15 dakika kitap okuyan öğrencilerin tutumlarının ise 15 dakikadan fazla kitap okuyan diğer öğrencilere göre anlamlı derecede düşük olduğu bulunmuştur.

Sonuç ve Tartışma

Araştırma sonucunda öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeylerinin "orta" (X=64.69) olduğu, okumaya yönelik tutum düzeylerinin ise "yüksek" (X=67.52) olduğu görülmüştür. Öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasında zayıf ve pozitif yönlü (r=.20) anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. Öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik toplam tutum puanları ve okumanın katkıları, okumanın anlamı, okuma etkinlikleri ve okuma süreci alt boyutlarına ilişkin tutumları aylık okudukları kitap sayısına göre daha fazla kitap okuyan öğrenciler lehine anlamlı farklılaşmaktadır. Öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarıları aylık okudukları kitap sayısına ve kitap okuma süresine göre daha fazla kitap okuyan öğrenciler lehine anlamlı farklılık gösterirken, düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre ise anlamlı bir farklılık göstermemektedir. Öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumları düzenli kitap okuma durumuna göre farklılaşmamaktadır. İlkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin okumaya yönelik toplam tutum puanları ve okumanın katkıları, okumanın anlamı, okuma etkinlikleri ve okuma süreci alt boyutlarına ilişkin tutumları kitap okuma süresine göre daha fazla kitap okuyan öğrenciler lehine farklılaştığı görülmüştür.

Bu çalışmada olduğu gibi alan yazındaki bazı çalışmalarda da öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeylerinin "orta" (X=64.69) olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç Ergen ve Batmaz (2019), Kıran (2019), Sert (2010); Türkben ve Gündeğer (2021) ve Ünal'ın (2006) araştırma sonuçlarıyla örtüşmektedir. Altunkaya ve Sülükçü (2018) ise okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyini düşük olarak bulmuştur. PISA 2018 okuma becerisi alanı performanslarına bakıldığında Türkiye'nin 77 ülke arasında 40. sırada ve OECD ülkeleri arasında ise 31. sırada olduğu görülmektedir. Öğrencilerin bu sınavdan aldıkları ortalama puan 466'dır. PISA 2018'de okuma becerileri yeterlik düzeyleri alt puan limitleri göz önünde bulundurulduğunda Türkiye'deki öğrencilerin bu alandaki ortalama puanlarının 2. düzeyde kaldığı anlaşılmaktadır. Düzeylerin 1c, 1b, 1a, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 olmak üzere belirlendiği düşünüldüğünde 2. düzeyin yeterli olmadığı görülmektedir ancak Türkiye'nin okuma becerileri alanındaki ortalama puanı katılımcı ülkelerin ortalama puanından daha yüksektir. Orta düzeyde okuduğunu anlama becerileri sergilemeleri yeterli olmayıp öğrencilerin daha üst düzey beceriler sergilemeleri için bazı çalışma ve uygulamaların yapılması faydalı olacaktır. Alan yazında bu becerilerin geliştirilmesi adına farklı yöntem, yaklaşım, teknik ve eğitimlerin etkililiğini deneyen çalışmalar olduğu görülmektedir. Örneğin Aşuluk (2020) zekâ oyunlarının, Özaslan (2006) kelime oyunlarının, Tok (2008) iş birlikli öğrenme yönteminin, Koç (2007) aktif öğrenmenin, Belet ve Yaşar (2007) öğrenme stratejilerinin, Kaya Tosun (2018) okuma çemberi tekniğinin, Kanmaz (2012), Sidekli ve Çetin (2017) ve Ergen ve Batmaz (2019) ise okuduğunu anlama stratejilerinin okuduğunu anlama üzerinde etkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Bu konuda yapılan çalışmaların nicelik ve nitelik olarak artırılmasının gerekli olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Araştırmada öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutum düzeylerinin yüksek (X=67.52) olduğu görülmüştür. Bu araştırmanın sonucunu destekleyen çalışmalar olduğu gibi (Akkaya ve Özdemir, 2013; Balcı, 2009; Gür Erdoğan ve Demir, 2016; Sallabaş, 2008), farklı sonuçlara ulaşan çalışmalar da (Ünal, 2006) vardır. Öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik olumlu eğilim sergilemeleri gerek hayat başarıları gerekse akademik başarıları adına önemlidir. Okuma alışkanlığının kazandırılması, okuma sevgisinin aşılanması için diğer eğitim paydaşları birlikte hareket etmelidir.

Araştırmada öğrencilerin okumaya yönelik tutumları ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel açıdan pozitif yönde zayıf bir ilişki bulunmuştur (r=.20). Bu sonuç Karabay ve Kuşdemir Kayıran (2010) ve Sallabaş'ın (2008) araştırma sonuçlarıyla örtüşmektedir. Şeflek Kovacıoğlu (2006) ise öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerileri ve okumaya yönelik tutumları arasında orta düzeyde ilişki bulmuştur. Karabay ve Kuşdemir Kayıran'ın (2010) çalışmasında okumaya yönelik tutum düzeyi yüksek olanların daha başarılı okuyucular oldukları ve başarılı okuyucuların okumaya yönelik tutumlarının daha yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Sözü edilen çalışmalarda okumaya yönelik tutum ile okuduğunu anlama başarı düzeyi arasında zayıf da olsa bir ilişki olduğu görülmektedir. Başarı tek bir değişkene bağlanamayacağı için bu düşük ilişkinin anlaşılabilir olduğu düşünülmektedir. Örneğin bir bireyin okuduğunu anlaması üzerinde konsantrasyon, motivasyon, ortam koşulları vb. değişkenler de etki edebilmektedir.

Araştırmada okunan kitap sayısı, kitap okumaya ayrılan süre arttıkça ve düzenlilik kazandıkça okumaya yönelik tutumun ve okuduğunu anlama başarısının arttığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Durualp, Çiçekoğlu ve Durualp (2013) okunan kitap sayısı arttıkça okumaya yönelik tutumun arttığını, Kutlu, Yıldırım, Bilican ve Kumandaş (2011) öğrencilerin kitaba erişimi arttıkça okuduğunu anlama başarısının arttığını, Sert (2010) kitap okuma alışkanlığı arttıkça okuduğunu anlama başarısının arttığını ifade etmişlerdir. Bu nedenle öğrencilerin erken yaşlardan itibaren kitapla tanıştırılması, kitap okuma alışkanlığının kazandırılması, kitaba erişimin kolaylaştırılması, belirli zaman aralıklarında okuma saatlerinin düzenlenmesi ve öğrencilere rol model olunması önerilmektedir.

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Review Article

Discussions about Grammar Teaching Today

Ahmet Pehlivan *   **İbrahim Seçkin Aydın****

ARTICLE INFO	**ABSTRACT**
	Grammar teaching is one of the fields of study related to language-oriented teaching. What grammar is and with what content and how it should be taught has long been a matter of discussion both in linguistics and in the field of educational science since the antique age. These issues have been discussed in terms of linguistics and pedagogy. Grammar teaching, which is sometimes seen as equivalent to language education, has been accepted as a language teaching tool today. In this study, current issues in mother tongue teaching are discussed and compared in terms of different views. The results show that discussions on what grammar is and with what content and how it should be taught remain its currency. Theories that are at the center of current discussions are generally discussed along with the application dimension. According to the results obtained it has been seen that that many contemporary grammar teaching approaches, especially functional grammar and constructivism cannot be adequately reflected in the teaching processes. Accordingly, it is revealed that although some current approaches are put forward, language teachers cannot break away from traditional practices for different reasons. It is seen as a necessity to show concrete ways to practitioners in the field by synthesizing the views put forward on grammar teaching.

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*   Prof.Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0452-5421, Eastern Mediterranean University, Turkish Language Education, ahmet.pehlivan@emu.edu.tr

** Assoc.Prof.Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0610-863X, Dokuz Eylül University, Turkish Language Education, seckin.aydin@deu.edu.tr

Introduction

What grammar is and with what content and how it should be taught has long been a matter of discussion both in linguistics and in the field of educational science. Many linguistic and educational theories have been put forward about the philosophy on which grammar teaching is based, the definition, scope, teaching approach, and methods of grammar. In the literature today, while there remains no consensus on the necessity of grammar teaching, the content, and the linguistics and teaching approach that should be applied, there has been a shift in the perceptions of grammar as a goal in itself to being seen as a tool for language use.

There are a variety of discussions on grammar in schools, but the general emphasis is that grammar teaching should improve native language skills, contribute to critical thinking processes, and support foreign language learning (Gelderen, 2010: 111). However, there is a common understanding that grammar teaching should also not ignore social and regional variations, and that rather than presenting the whole description of a language, it should include studies that contribute to the development of students' reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills and their thinking processes. The onging discussions on grammar teaching in the 21st century focus on:

a) The differences in policies or beliefs on which grammar teaching is based

b) The theory on which grammar is based and its definition, content, and scope

c) Learning approaches

d) The structure and implementation of the curriculum

These discussion topics are multifaceted and vary according to the understanding taken as the basis in teaching. Gelderen (2006) states that discussions on grammar teaching should be addressed from multiple perspectives and summarizes the views and contrasts in the field as follows:

1. Inherent validity versus instrumental validity

2. explicit knowledge versus implicit knowledge

3. Product-oriented reflection versus process-oriented reflection

4. Prescriptive-deductive pedagogy versus descriptive/inductive pedagogy

5. Systematic curriculum versus incidental curriculum

Other contrasts include cultural values in mother tongue, sentence analysis, cross-cultural comparisons, linguistic idioms (dialects, subdialects and written language), sociolinguistics, comparison between native and foreigners, strategies for comperehension and use of language, attitudes toward speakers of other languages and language other variations, pragmatic aspects of everyday language use.

Given the range of discussion topics in grammar teaching, it is not easy to scientifically reveal the place of grammar in mother tongue teaching. Leaving this aside, grammar has historically been used in teaching to improve students' language ability – although this aim is wider in scope today – and to solve language problems, after reviewing the practices and models related to grammar teaching, Fontich & Camps (2014) argue that grammar teaching needs to do the following:

a) Provide analytical tools to improve students' verbal use and analysis

b) Create a simple framework to ensure both functional and universal knowledge

This may not seem very easy because the various linguistic and educational theories on the teaching of grammar evaluate these issues from different perspectives, offering a variety of solutions and influencing global policies in different ways. Given this complexity, this study will contribute to mother tongue education in schools today by revealing the perspectives on which it is based in order to forward our understanding of current grammar teaching around the world. The aim of this study is to present the controversial issues in mother tongue grammar teaching and the lingusitic and educational theories on which they are based. It is believed that such an analysis of the literature will provide policymakers, academics, and educators with a perspective from which to devise the frameworks and tools with which to address current issues in mother tongue grammar teaching in Turkey.

Beliefs and Policies Regarding Grammar Teaching

An historical examination of grammar teaching shows that different practices emerged in line with policies developed on the basis of certain philosophical perspectives. For example, during the Renaissance, learning grammar was seen as a condition for learning the mother tongue and for understanding and interpreting high-level religious texts. This was the same in the Ottoman Empire. Grammar teaching dominanted mother tongue teaching, making the learning of grammar a goal in itself rather than a tool. Later, new theories and approaches emerged and these were reflected in school grammar policies. According to Hudson and Walmsley (2005), grammar teaching today is shaped by the relationship between linguistic practice and politics, what society accepts, and external social factors such as institutional trends. This has led today to two extreme perspectives on grammar teaching:

a) Grammar does not contribute to learning the mother tongue and teaching it is unnecessary.

b) Grammar learning has an important place in mother tongue teaching due to the functions mentioned above.

Historically, there has been very little academic discussion in Turkey about whether grammar is unnecessary. However, the issue of whether grammar teaching contributes to the development of language skills has been a key discussion in academia around the world in certain periods (Wyse, 2001: 422; Andrews et al. 2004; Negro & Chanquoy, 2005). For example, in the USA in the 1960s, it was argued that teaching grammar was unnecessary and, in particular, that it did not improve writing skills. It was even claimed that grammar had a detrimental effect (Kolln & Hancock, 2005). Similar discussions were had in England, and in the 1970s, grammar was replaced by literature in English language curriculacurriculum (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). Gelderen (2006) points to similar ideological discussions in grammar teaching in the Netherlands and Finland. Perspectives changed, however, these policies were replaced by the belief that grammar teaching is important, particularly generative transformational grammar, and later new approaches based on the functions of language began to be incorporated.

It should be said that the issue remains unresolved and there are as many who believe that grammar has an important place in mother tongue learning as there are those who do not (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). Tordior and Wesdrop (1979) examined 53 studies to determine the contribution of grammar in the development of writing skills and found that grammar teaching was particularly effective (cited by Gelderen, 2006: 49). Hudson and Walmsley (2005: 594-595), who believe that grammar has an important place in mother tongue learning and should be taught explicitly, list the reasons why students should learn grammar as:

1. Expanding the grammatical competencies that children will need in adulthood

2. Supporting students' speaking, writing, listening, and reading competencies

3. Supporting foreign language teaching

4. Developing students' thinking skills

5. Helping students to enhance their research skills

6. Enabling students to enjoy their own ideas

7. Making students aware of the languages spoken in their environment

Point 2 above includes two views related to grammar policy that grammar has a plae in mother tongue education: a) form and accuracy in language, and b) usefulness in language. Policy focused on language accuracy involves an approach in which the standard language is correct and superior, while other language types are ignored. According to such policies, the correct speech, writing, etc. are directly related to the correct use of the standard language. In such an approach, the content is organized according to a single language type, and lesson content focuses on form and accuracy. Based on prescriptive grammar, this view holds that one language variation is superior to another and use of it can be either right or wrong (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). Any features that students have acquired that differ from the standard are perceived as mistakes and teaching is based on revealing those mistakes. In addition, written language is the main focus.

In descriptive grammar, on the other hand, language and the grammar in which its rules are described are seen as a social phenomenon and the value of different language types and language usage is accepted. This perspective brings the convenience and intelligibility of a language to the fore and includes the social and historical status of language types. The concept of right and wrong emerges in the use of language (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). It is an approach that highlights the use of language and therefore focuses on both written and spoken language.

It is commonly accepted that policies affect beliefs and beliefs affect policies. Studies in the literature show that the beliefs of policy makers, experts, teachers, students, the general public, and even parents play an important role in grammar teaching. Worldwide, politicians, experts, and the general public influence and direct the practice of grammar teaching (Gordon, 2005). Examination of these studies shows that political beliefs affect practices related to grammar teaching particularly in regard to the necessity or redundancy of grammar, and the focus on form and accuracy of language or on its usefulness. One example of this comes from New Zealand in the 1980s. The education committee put forward a model based on a formal approach to grammar teaching that the public, politicians,

academics, and teachers objected to and the policy was reversed. In the UK until 1960s, school grammar policy was to teach correct sentence structures in written English (Myhill & Jones, 2011). In the 1960s, this approach was replaced with creative writing and literature and grammar teaching fell out of favor Hudson & Walmsley,2005). Later, grammar was reintroduced by politicians who supported the teaching of correct English, citing failures in mother tongue education (Paterson, 2010; Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). Bralich (2006) states that parents and politicians believe that traditional grammar teaching is important because it affects students' success in central exams. Paterson (2010) argues that curriculum change is sensitive to external influences and the political climate of the time is very important. Myhill (2011) states that the general public and politicians tend to believe that grammar teaching should be based on prescriptive grammar and the focus on accuracy (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). The reason why traditional grammar dominates education programs in the Netherlands is argued to be the result of teachers, families, and authors adopting the traditional grammar teaching approach (Myhill, 2010: 110). In the Australian example above, even the press participated in the discussion. Accordingly, conservative views argued that teachers could not teach the newly applied grammar correctly, while the politicians took the opposite view in support of teachers in order to reassure the public (Horarik-Macken, 2012).

Hancock cites the US folk logic that grammar is about mistakes in language and mistakes in language are related to grammar (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). In his study examining the social and political context of grammar teaching practices in New Zealand, Gordon (2005), argues that grammar was reintroduced to the schools curriculum in the 1980s as a result of the failure of prior policies. This led to big discussions between the general public, politicians, and educators on what this would mean: which grammar and how much would be taught? (Gordon, 2005).

Kolln & Hancock's article (2005) is a striking example of how grammar in the United States has been shaped by various linguistic theories and politics over the past century. Crystal (2017) argues similarly for the UK, describing the left and right wing political debates on grammar teaching that occurred in the 1990s. While those on the right focused on correct English, those on the left argued that correctness in language politics is a tool for the establishment that enables them to socially enslave children. Cosson (2007) relates the situation in Brazil which turned into an ideological war, involving official policy makers, media, families, educators, between those who defended the traditional approach and those who defended the socio-interactive paradigm. Discussions on this issue have been so heated in the literature that books have been published titled *Grammer Wars* (Mitchell, 2001), *Beyond the Grammar Wars* (Locke, 2010), and *200 Years of Grammar* (Walker, 2011). These books describe how in various countries grammar is shaped by educators, the general public, academics, and politics.

It is clear that the different values and beliefs about the meaning attributed to the concept of grammar are the main source of discussions on grammar teaching. In fact, the basis of political debates about grammar is about value judgments much higher than itself. In other words, in a political sense, grammar teaching represents the beliefs and perceptions of the political groups. That is, groups that are more traditionalist or policy-makers of the

upper strata of society evaluate grammar in terms of accuracy. Socialist or left-wing groups have an understanding that includes usage and language variations. For example, according to the Queen's English Society, which is responsible for preserving English in the UK, grammar plays an important role in detecting errors (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). Myhill (2000) says that the subject of grammar teaching often tends toward polarities based on political or ideological views. She argues that grammar teaching has lost its rationality due to the decrease in moral standards, the need for order, and political authority.

The word grammar evokes concepts such as correct, good, and bad. It indicates standards for judging a language or its users (Horarik-Macken, 2012). Looking at the history of grammar teaching in the United States in the 1960s, this tradition was perceived as an elite policy, promoting a single "correct" way for each rule or utterance, as traditional school grammar was historically based on normative rules and regulated English standards. The understanding based on the grammar of the standard language has been seen as a judgment tool for students in the use of dialect, and teachers have been encouraged to understand the legitimacy of the home language (Kolln &Hancock 2005).

However, the political understanding of and discussions about grammar are not carried out in the same way in different countries. For example, in Germany and the Netherlands, teaching grammar in the traditional sense is not seen as much of a contradiction; it is perceived as part of the curriculum (Gelderen, 2006, 2010; Myhill & Watson, 2014). There is a similar situation in Turkey. When we look at the history of Turkish teaching, there was no discussion about grammar in terms of politics until 2005 (in terms of content, approach, model, etc.). The understanding of grammar teaching was rearranged and changed in the programs in 2005, and the understanding of teaching rules in primary education was restricted, but it is controversial how much this understanding is reflected in practice (Anılan, 2014).

Experts play an important role in grammar-related policies. Myhill and Watson (2014) state that discussions about grammar turned into grammar wars regarding curricula in English-speaking countries, a debate arising from the struggle between politicians and professionals, and among professionals themselves (Myhill & Watson, 2014). One study determined that despite the many studies and researches on grammar, grammar programs serve the opinion of the policy-making experts of the period (Clark, 2010). The same is true in Turkey. When examining the academic studies on grammar teaching since the 2000s and the restructuring of education programs in Turkey, it is clear that these studies are mostly shaped according to expert opinion, which is dominated by the constructivist approach, which constitutes the official view. However, the results of research reveal that the traditional method of grammar teaching is still carried out in schools and other approaches to grammar teaching are little discussed, and grammar teaching by intuition is the solution (Güneş, 2013-a; Güneş, 2013-b ; Anılan, 2014).

In addition to the political views of politicians, experts, and the general public, the beliefs and perceptions of teachers and students have an impact on grammar learning and in-class practices. In his study investigating secondary school teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching in England, Watson (2015) found that teachers' beliefs about grammar affect their classroom behaviors and practices. In a study looking at primary school teachers' practices

in grammar teaching, Anılan (2014) found that perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes are related to classroom practices. Yarrow (2007) states that when asked to prospective teachers, they see grammar as confusing and difficult to understand. Güneş (2013-b) states that studies on grammar teaching in Turkey show that memorizing rules predominates and little attention is paid to student psychology, causing anxiety in students toward grammar. Looking at students' views, Harris (1962: 51-52) found that grammar is demotivating and ranks last in popularity of subjects taught in the mother tongue. Akay and Toraman (2015) say that students' attitudes toward grammar in foreign language learning have an important place in their classroom activities, motivations, and concerns about using their learning experiences.

Grammar Content and What It Is

One of the discussions about grammar teaching in the literature is about what grammar is and what its content should be. Indeed, the definition of grammar and what and how much to teach is an important issue as grammar is not just related to school. Different perspectives in the field of linguistics play a role in understanding its scope and definition. For example, structural linguistics sees grammar differently as do the generative and functional currents in linguistics. Some models cover all areas of the language, some focus on syntax or morphology, some deal with the rules of the language, while others emphasize usage. While some prioritize written language, others may emphasize spoken language or abstract grammar in the brain.

In addition to the theoretical dimension, what grammar is and its scope differs in terms of the purpose for which it is used. That is, in instructional grammar, for instance, does the description of a language or the scientific field reveals its rules or its use? Hartwell (1985) says that grammar has five different meanings:

1. The set of patterns that a language's words form to construct and interpret larger meanings.

2. The field of linguistics that attempts to describe, study, and formulate formal language.

3. Etiquette that dictates how to use language.

4. School grammar.

5. Stylistic grammar (the terms and concepts used to teach prose style).

Güneş (2013-b) refers to Cuq's (2003) categorization of grammar into four groups:

1. A set of regulatory principles and rules created to speak a language correctly

2. Educational activities examining the principles of a language, the art of speaking, and writing correctly

3. A theory developed on the internal functions of language as well as a tool for observation

4. Descriptive, procedural, and conditional information about the language to be taught

The concept of instructional grammar considers why and for what purpose grammar is taught. At first glance, the subject of why grammar will be taught contributes to listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills, and grammar itself contributes to the development of students' high-level thinking skills (Güneş, 2013-a; Güneş 2013-b). However, although this understanding is accepted, a complete unity has not been achieved in theory and practice.

For example, from what perspective are these mother tongue skills developed? Secondly, which grammar should be used and how much? The answer to the first question elicits the prescriptive and descriptive grammar discussion about form and accuracy. As explained above, prescriptive grammar gives importance to teaching the fixed, correct rules of a higher language. Rules for how to use the language are determined and grammar usage is seen as "right" or "wrong". The important thing here is to correct students' mistakes according to the upper language form. In this approach, analysis and decomposition exercises and activities are important as a teaching method.

Descriptive grammar aims to describe how language is used as accurately and comprehensively as possible. In this approach, any language form is likely to acquire superior status, and non-linguistic social and historical factors play an important role in obtaining this status. Language can be studied from both written and oral or even combined perspectives (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). In addition, it takes into account that a language may have different variants (social and regional dialects, for example).

The answer to the second question, that is, how much grammar should be taught, also differs according to the theoretical approach. Traditional grammar, new grammar, language awareness, and generative transformational grammar all approach these issues differently. So the underlying understanding of grammar affects the content and scope. However, the general view of the experts in grammar teaching today is that rather than a grammar which only includes the descriptions of rules and exercises and activities related to them, grammar should be taught from literary works as well as functionally from the reflection of cultural and social differences in the language and language variations besides sentence and word analysis (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Gelderen, 2006; McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007; Yarrow, 2007; Cosson, 2007; Paterson, 2010; Güneş, 2013-b; Fontich & Camps, 2014).

Gelderen (2010: 112) states that three perspectives are dominant: 1) the formal perspective for teaching the direct word and sentence rules of the language, 2) the semantic perspective in which the meaning of the words and sentences of the language is taught by taking into account the context and out of context, and 3) communicative context, the pragmatic perspective for the functions of language use. He adds that they can be classified in two ways as declarative knowledge and predictive knowledge.

Another problem with content in grammar teaching is related to terms and definitions. These problems can be summarized as follows:

1.   Definition and term differences

2.   Which and the number of terms and definitions

3.   How to teach terms and definitions

Definition and term differences are also related to grammatical description and model. The terms and definitions of a language approach based on grammar teaching are also reflected in education. For example, programs based on traditionalist, structuralist, or generative transformative grammar define it according to their own foundations and understandings. In Turkey, unity in understanding of terms and definitions in traditional Turkish grammar has not been achieved and differences remain even in traditional grammar

teaching. This is also refelcted in education. Although differences in definitions and terms are related to a particular grammar description and model, even in traditional teaching, for example, what one expert calls an adjective phrase another calls a noun phrase without a suffix, and this can be reflected in the curricula in different ways in different periods (Pehlivan, 2003). In fact, in teacher training programs, the description of grammar and the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) description of grammar may not match (Pehlivan, 2003; Bulut, 2014).

A separate problem that has emerged through all these discussions is how many definitions and terms should be included in grammar teaching, particularly in primary education. Those who teach implicit grammar tend to favor keeping the number of definitions and terms to a minimum. Those who supportt explicit instruction, on the other hand, tend to give a greater number of terms and definitions. While how to teach terms and definitions is related to grammar teaching approaches, the following can be said: In current grammar teaching in schools, the understanding is dominated by teaching the functions of grammar rules together with context, rather than giving comprehensive definitions of grammar terms.

Grammar Teaching Approach

Over time, various opinions in linguistic and educational sciences have been put forward about the teaching approach of grammar. Since there are different ways of learning about grammar teaching, the grammar teaching approach, like the concept of grammar itself, has not been clearly defined. There are many approaches in the literature to grammar teaching which can be categorized under two general headings. The first of these is teaching grammar with an explicit understanding (explicit learning), and the second is teaching grammar in an implicit way (implicit learning). Another related issue is whether the teaching of grammar should be inductive or deductive. In fact, it is necessary to evaluate the theories related to mother tongue and foreign language acquisition to determine an approach to teach grammar. While someargue that the rules should be given with a clear understanding, others propose applying the process of mother tongue acquisition to teaching language (Krashen,1981; Ellis; 2006; Ellis, 2015; Rebuschat, 2015).

Explicit learning or explicit grammar teaching is based on the direct teaching of the rules of the language. The most familiar explicit learning method is the traditional grammar approach. However, today, explicit grammar teaching cannot be explained only with the traditional approach. Rather, explicit knowledge is a concept other than traditional grammar learning. In traditional grammar teaching, explicit teaching is also essential. It is based on the direct teaching of the rules of the language, but when the literature is examined, it can be said that the traditional approach is not accepted by many academics today (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Gelderen, 2006; Fontich & Camps, 2014). The language rules taught in traditional grammar teaching remain abstract and are not functional (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007) and therefore they do not reflect on language use, they ignore the cultural elements of the language, have little contribution to foreign language teaching, offer learning away from the language need and use of the student, and negatively affect students' attitudes. Therefore, it differs from modern metacognitive explicit grammar teaching (Gelderen,

Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000). Also, traditional grammar teaching does not look at language from a system point of view; it does not analyze language in a holistic system. Carter (1990: 104-107) summarizes the deficiencies of traditional grammar teaching as follows:

● Defining and classifying grammatical forms without real, efficient use, often as discrete elements

● The process of teaching and memorizing grammatical facts, including meta-grammar, through numerous exercises and transference

● Cognitively demanding methods, suitable for academically successful students that do not develop cognitive writing ability (Allford, 2003)

What is meant by explicit teaching today is the explicit teaching of the structural, semantic, and usage-related components of a language and the role that language plays in human life. Explicit knowledge is declarative knowledge about language and its use. Explicit grammar teaching refers to learning grammar rules in accordance with the purpose in order to use the language components efficiently and correctly (Ling, 2015). In explicit grammar teaching, it is assumed that students need metacognitive language and clear rules that explain how to apply the learned concepts (Gelderen, 2010: 111). With metacognitive grammar, student needs and what is important in using the language have gained importance. Explicit knowledge refers to explicit knowledge of the phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic usage, and socio-critical features of language.

Metacognitive grammar is based on a clear demonstration of the rules and functions of the language. It emphasizes that knowledge about language (meta-linguistic knowledge) should be handled in the same way as the human conceptualization process. Through language, people develop the ability to perceive the world, to conceptualize language consisting of language. According to N. Ellis (2015: 14), this explicit memory also guides the conscious construction of new linguistic expressions through analogy processes. The teaching of formulas, patterns, exercises, and pedagogical grammar rules all contribute to the formation of implicit learning later on. In this understanding:

1. The use of language in speaking and writing should be emphasized.

2. All kinds of texts should be considered in teaching, not just literary texts.

3. Descriptive rather than prescriptive grammar should be taught.

4. Rules should be taught explicitly rather than implicitly (Hudson & Walmsley, 2004; Gelderen, 2006).

Today, the concept of metacognitive grammar is known by different names in the field of psycholinguistics and education. In the literature, the concepts of explicit grammar, knowledge about language, language awareness, and focus on form terms are mostly used in relation to metacognitive grammar. This study will try to reveal and explain language awareness for explicit grammar teaching in the modern sense as this is not currently accepted in practice in mother tongue education in Turkey. Language awareness is defined as clear knowledge about language, language learning, language teaching, conscious perception, and sensitivity in language use (Association for Language Awareness). Language awareness based on Halliday's theory is based on systematic and functional linguistics. According to Halliday, there is a need for functions rather than structures, meaning rather than syntax,

language as a flexible structure rather than specific rules, and text-oriented grammar rather than sentences. This approach differs from grammar in the traditional sense by presenting a functional-purpose meta-language, talking and discussing on meaning from the word level to the text level (Jones & Chen, 2016).

Today, although a contentious issue, many authors in the literature argue that traditional grammar does not meet the language needs of learners, so an approach based on language awareness should be applied as an alternative. In fact, it is the failures in mother tongue and foreign language teaching that have led to the emergence language awareness (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). James and Garrett (1992) mention five main areas that justify the application of knowledge of language:

(i)   Affective domain: attitude formation and motivation and curiosity development

(ii)   Social space: promoting social cohesion in multilingual/multicultural contexts

(iii)   Power: the liberation of the individual from the pressures and manipulations of language use

(iv)   Cognitive domain: development of linguistic and general skills, particularly in relation to language learning and use

(v)   Performance: developing an effective language proficiency

In language awareness:

1. Language is a system of interrelated components.

2. Language is not a static but a changing phenomenon.

3. Language is a signification process.

4. Language should be explained not only in terms of structure but also in terms of usage.

5. The student should be aware of the social and cultural context and language diversity in which the language is located.

Language awareness is primarily viewed as an interrelated system. In this system, the structure, meaning, and use of language are intertwined. It views language as a system in which meanings are created. In this approach, language is not a static phenomenon but a changing system and this change should be shown to the student because the interpretation becomes concrete when this change is recognized. In addition, it should be clearly shown to the student how signification is carried out in language analysis. Therefore, descriptive activities and out-of-context teaching should be avoided in grammar teaching and language should be approached as an intertwined and interrelated system (White, 2000).

The purpose of language awareness is to be consciously aware of the working order of the language. In order to be an effective language user, the student should be able to analyze and describe the language correctly. Language awareness is based on a clear demonstration of the rules and functions of the language that enable students to use the language. According to Hicks-Donmall (1985), language awareness is based on a conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life. Language awareness includes taking into account the relations between languages, children's language development, the nature of social relations, personality and language preference, individual and social bilingual or multilingualism, language variations, language use in social control, and the

contribution to mother tongue and foreign language teaching. (Tulasiewicz, 2000; Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). Language awareness should include:

1. Being aware of the features of the language,

2. Being aware of the place of language in culture,

3. Being conscious about the language forms used,

4. Awareness of the relationships between ideology and language (Carter,1990; 1997).

These explanations suggest that, through language awareness, the student first becomes aware of the function and use of language. Therefore, unlike traditional grammar teaching, they learn the functions of the language consciously and in connection with real life. This is done by talking about and discussing language. Discussion about language also contributes to the student's ability to think critically. In addition, with language awareness, the student internalizes the cultural and related usage dimension of the language. The student is able to develop a positive attitude toward cultural differences by learning that there are different languages and language variations (dialects, multiculturalism, etc.) and their usage areas by drawing attention to and discussing different cultural and social uses. Awareness of the rules and operation of their own language and the different working order of different languages also contributes to foreign language teaching. In practice, students who are consciously aware of the functioning of language without memorizing the spelling, word pronunciation, semantic appearance, and usage situation becomes aware of the same or similar processes while learning another language, so that they can operate the language learning mechanism consciously (Gelderen, Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000).

The content of grammar teaching based on language awareness sees language as a changing phenomenon, as a systematic structure consisting of the sound, structure, meaning, and usage of the language, including its social and cultural elements. In this structure, visuals such as writing, pictures, and photographs are also meaning carriers. In the analysis, sentences and texts showing the personal, social, and cultural context are used. Stagnant, boring, and meaningless analyzes of grammar detached from these contexts make no sense. White (2000) argues that a grammar teaching based on language awareness should consist of six interrelated parts: graphology, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics. In such a model, the personal, social, and cultural dimensions of the language are included.

The teacher and student, classroom practices, and assessment and evaluation system (eg central exams) are effective in grammar teaching, but the most important factor is the curricula and the philosophy underlying it (Anılan, 2014). While different countries apply different curricula and practices related to language awareness, the scope generally focuses on the above-mentioned topics. To give an example, in the Netherlands in 1993, language awareness according to the language awareness approach is presented in 5 categories in the primary education mother tongue education program: 1. Sounds and structure of language, 2. Various texts and use of language, 3. Language variations, 4. Vocabulary and 5. Word classifications and sentence analysis (Gelderen, Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000). The primary education program in England was also created to support similar content (Paterson, 2010; Clark, 2010).

The primary education mother tongue curriculum in Australia is divided into three: literature, literacy, and language awareness. In the language awareness section, the structure of the language and the meaning-making process are examined from a social and cultural point of view (Horarik-Macken, Love & Horarik, 2018). Hawkins (1984), in hir book *Awareness of Language*, lists the benefits of the language awareness-based program as follows:

(i)   Encouraging students to discuss and ask questions about language,

(ii)   Language origin, language change, dialects, borrowing etc. to provide answers to questions,

(iii)   Building a bridge in terms of language teaching in primary and secondary education,

(iv)   Bridging the gap between different aspects of language education (between English/foreign languages and minority languages).

(v)   Promoting respect for linguistic diversity and reduce language biases,

(vi)   Developing foreign language learning skills by giving students the ability to analyze and compare language patterns,

(vii)   Providing an understanding of spelling and the distinction between written and spoken language by comparing orthographic traditions.

Today, there is another rather controversial understanding apart from explicit learning. This understanding is based on the implicit teaching of grammar. The starting point is that individuals acquire their mother tongue as a basis. N. Ellis (2015) emphasizes that mother tongue acquisition occurs implicitly without a specific learning goal. During the acquisition of the mother tongue, a child first learns the rules unconsciously and after making it conscious, applies it to different situations. However, it should be noted here that Ellis argues that language acquisition can be accelerated by explicit learning. Richards and Schmid (2010: 274) define implicit knowledge as unspoken, intuitive knowledge, knowledge that people (behaviors, judgments about grammar, etc.) have intuitively but cannot express. In this sense, implicit knowledge contrasts with explicit knowledge, which can be verbalized. Gelderen (2006) argues that explicit grammar teaching – whether traditional or rule-awareness – doesn't work when looking at students' language use. Instead, implicit grammar teaching is advocated. The author points out that there are five different forms of diminutive in the Dutch language, and although they are not taught in school, they are used properly by children. Implicit grammar is unconscious and procedural and can only be expressed verbally if made explicit. It is thought that implicit learning provides fast and easily accessible, fluent communication (Ellis, 2006). Here, procedural knowledge is consciously used to mean unknown knowledge (Richards & Schmid, 2010: 156). In her experimental study, Wong (2004) investigated whether structured input and explicit information were effective during learning sentence.. Her study revealed that there was no difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of explicit instruction. Experimental groups that receive explicit information alone have less success in interpretation and production tests. According to Krashen (1981), an advocate of implicit learning over explicit learning, believes explicit grammar teaching is not sufficient in using language structures. Language cannot be developed by giving structural information about

it. Knowledge and acquisition exist as different systems in the brain and there is no connection between them. Language learning is an acquisition process and requires time and readiness (Krashen, 1981).

R. Ellis (1994: 355-356) mentions that there are two types of implicit knowledge, the first being consist of ready-made chuncks of language, which he calls formulaic knowledge, and the other is rule-based implicit knowledge that consists of internalized, generalized, and abstract structures. A further distinction in relation to implicit learning and explicit learning is the induction and deduction method. In the inductive method, the student is first exposed to examples about the grammar rule and is then expected to make their own metacognitive generalization about the rule. In the end, the rule may or may not be made explicit.

Learning is unconscious. In teaching, it focuses on understanding and fluency rather than form, and attaches importance to the functions of language in communication. The main purpose here is to understand what the grammar rules of the students are and the role of language elements in realizing functional and communicative purposes. Context is important when learning grammar and is based on a text-based approach (Pongpairoj, 2004; Uyumaz & Bayat, 2020: 259-280). According to the understanding of grammar teaching in Turkey, teaching grammar by intuition, especially with reference to texts, in other words, induction of the rule based on texts and examples. Of course, although the practice in Turkey is based on induction, it doesn't completely reject deduction. Güneş (2013-a), while explaining the intuition method, says, "Information about the structure of language, operations and rules cannot be conveyed to students like verbal information. Students explore them through activities of various experimental types, just like scientific knowledge. In this process, they try to understand the functions and general rules of the language. These operations are combined with the inductive model, but deductive thinking is also felt."

In the deductive method, as opposed to induction, information about language structure is clearly presented to the student and teaching is conscious and systematic. After the grammatical structure is clearly presented, the situation or examples are given (Güneş, 2013-b). However, it is not clear whether the inductive or deductive approach should be used in grammar teaching today. While some researchers talk of the success of the inductive method, others argue for the usefulness of the deductive method (Ellis, 2006).

As a result, different arguments about both implicit and explicit teaching are still being discussed today, and studies on the nature of language learning continue. Some researchers make arguments in favor of implicit teaching, while others argue in favor of explicit teaching. However, questions remain that need to be answered by both positions. Hulstijn (2015: 25-46) states that there are inadequacies in the evidence of the arguments put forward to explain the nature of grammar teaching today. The complexity of the language, the fact that children cannot learn some language forms at school, individual differences in acquiring language, the complexity of the brain, theories about learning see reality differently, etc. indicates that it is effective. In addition, there is an approach that states that it can be used implicitly and explicitly according to its place. Derewianka (2012), for example, says that it would be more appropriate to use an approach in which the two methods are used together, depending on the place. Perhaps the answer to the question about whether explicit knowledge or implicit teaching are more beneficial when used together

should be sought in the interface hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, there are three situations. In the claim that there is no interface, explicit and tacit knowledge are different, and there is no conversion of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge. There is an interface, on the other hand, that argues that explicit knowledge becomes implicit knowledge if students have ample opportunities for communicative practice. Another argument is the weak interface possition. The weak interface possition claims that explicit knowledge can turn into implicit knowledge if the student is ready to acquire the targeted feature and realizes a set of basic acquisition processes (Ellis, 2006). Pongpairoj (2004) emphasizes that when the two approaches are used together, the explicit teaching approach raises the student's awareness of a particular grammatical structure, while the implicit approach can encourage the student to understand how to use form in communicative texts.

Structure of Curricula and Grammar

Curricula, methods, and techniques used in teaching, tools, and materials, teacher's plans, applications, and evaluation strategies also play an important role in effective grammar teaching (Anılan, 2014). The philosophy the curriculum is based on and the learning, teaching, and assessment approaches it depends on play an important role in grammar teaching. Another important point is the program design model. That is, the perspectives of the programs that are the basis of one of the educational philosophies of perennialism, essentialism, reconstructionism, and progressivism differ. For example, in the program based on the philosophy of perennialism, a structure based on accuracy, a single and unchangeable standard written language is dominant in grammar teaching. In a program based on the philosophy of progressivism, grammar teaching should offer a structure that is related to life, bringing the functional aspects of language to the fore. In addition, curricula design models also affect grammar teaching. In a subject-centered, goal-centered, or competency-based program, the content of grammar, teaching, and assessment approaches and the possibilities offered in practice differ. When this issue is evaluated in relation to Turkey, for example, the understanding of constructivism, which has been applied since the 2000s, is also reflected in the grammar teaching in the programs. The understanding of grammar teaching with the aim of developing language problems and thinking is the reflection of the approach that suggests following an inductive path based on intuition and less on content.

Gelderen (2006) mentions two types of programs in grammar teaching. Incidental program and systematic program. In the systematic program, the grammatical content is given with a certain systematic. How the content will be delivered is also predetermined cyclical or linear. Grammar teaching is viewed more as explicit instruction. In the incidental curriculum, the systematic about grammar teaching is looser. Topics take place according to context. In teaching, a cyclical content and inductive method come to the fore. Grammar teaching should be aimed at solving language problems.

The current situation in the world today is that there are differences between the official programs and the curricula implemented in many countries. There are two main reasons for this. The first is that the theoretical understanding underlying the program is not well understood in practice or the theory is not valid in practice (Mulder, 2011; Fontich,

2014; Milian, 2015; Rijt &Coppen, 2017; Myhill, 2018; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019; Benzer, 2019;). The other reason is that this theoretical understanding is due to differences in belief between politics, academics, teachers, the press, and families (Borg, 2003; Devos & Vooren, 2014; Crystal, 2017; Boivin, 2018; Horarik-Macken, Love & Horarik, 2018). The official curriculum remains on paper. As a result, compliance with the program cannot be achieved either in practice or in teaching materials, and, in practice, the traditional understanding still maintains its place in grammar teaching and cannot be changed (Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000; Fontich & Camps, 2014; Gelderen, Hlebec, 2017; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019).

Conclusion

Grammar teaching, which is one of the oldest issues of language teaching, is still controversial today. Discussions focus on what grammar is and its content, and what kind of learning path should be followed in its teaching. However, the inconsistency of grammar teaching policy and practice, curriculum approach, practice and evaluation approaches are still the focus of discussions in grammar teaching (Crystal, 2017). Teachers' knowledge of current practice can also be added to these discussions (Borg, 2003). However, it should be noted here that in the historical process, there has been an evolution from teaching grammar as the purpose of language learning to contribute to the child's thinking skills with reading, writing, listening and speaking skills by focusing on the functions of language. Today, no one equates learning grammar with learning a language anymore. However, although everyone talks about a functional grammar, there are opinions that it is not clear what this type of teaching is (Crystal, 2017).

A further point regarding grammar teaching is the inconsistency of theory and practice. Data revealed by theorists does not always come to life in practice because theorists and practitioners' expectations and beliefs and student needs are not always in line. Therefore, the views put forward by theory either remain abstract in practice or remain on paper because it is not thoroughly understood or even properly known. Some studies support this idea (Anılan, 2014; Crystal, 2017; Coppen & Rijt, 2017; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019;). Rijt, Swart and Coppen (2019) say that grammar teaching today is problematic because the data of theoretical linguistics does not match policy and classroom practice. The fact that theory often does not find a place in practice causes both functionality not to be adopted in the classroom and the continuation of traditional grammar. What needs to be done in this regard is to offer a solution by bringing together educational science, linguists, and practitioners.

In parallel with the ongoing developments in mother tongue education in Turkey, it would be beneficial to synthesize the practices around the world and to organize it with an approach that takes into account the 21st century human competencies. There also needs to be consideration of a teaching based on the beliefs of the policy, teachers, students, and even parents on this issue. In short, there is a need for a contemporary grammar teaching that does not exclude tradition. The total exclusion of the traditional approach would mean pursuing policy that will not be implemented, and teaching based on the opposite tradition will not be an effective tool in raising individuals equipped with today's language competencies.

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Dil Eğitimi ve Araştırmaları Dergisi

Araştırma Makalesi

Günümüzde Dilbilgisi Öğretimi ile İlgili Tartışmalar

Ahmet Pehlivan *   **İbrahim Seçkin Aydın**∗∗

MAKALE BİLGİSİ	ÖZET
	Dil öğretimi ile ilgili çalışma alanlarından birini de dilbilgisi öğretimi oluşturmaktadır. Antik dönemden itibaren dilbilgisi öğretiminin nasıl ve hangi yöntemle yapılması gerektiği konusunda birçok görüş ileri sürülmüştür. Bu görüşler hem dilbilimsel hem de eğitimbilimsel açıdan ele alınarak tartışılmıştır. Kimi zaman dil eğitimiyle eşdeğer görülen dilbilgisi öğretimi, günümüzde dil öğretiminin bir aracı olarak kabul edilmiştir. Bu çalışmada dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik güncel tartışmalar ele alınmış, farklı görüşler birlikte değerlendirilerek karşılaştırılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlar, dilbilgisi öğretiminin nasıl ve hangi yöntemle yapılması gerektiği konusunun güncelliğini koruduğunu göstermektedir. Güncel tartışmaların odağında yer alan kuramlar genellikle uygulama boyutuyla birlikte tartışılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlar -başta işlevsel dilbilgisi ve yapılandırmacılık olmak üzere- birçok çağdaş dilbilgisi öğretimi yaklaşımının öğretim süreçlerine yeterince yansıtılamadığını ortaya koymaktadır. Alanda kimi güncel yaklaşımların ileri sürülmesine karşın dil öğretmenlerinin geleneksel uygulamalardan farklı nedenlerden dolayı kopamadığı görülmektedir. Dilbilgisi öğretimi üzerine ileri sürülen görüşlerin sentezlenerek sahadaki uygulayıcılara somut yollar gösterilmesi bir gereksinim olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Yayın Etiği Beyanı **Yazarların Katkı Oranı**	Bu çalışma bilimsel yayın etiğine uygun olarak yapılmıştır. Makale ilk aşamadan son aşamaya kadar iki yazar tarafından ortak biçimde oluşturulmuştur.
Çıkar Çatışması	Yazarlar çıkar çatışması olmadığını beyan ederler.

* Prof.Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0452-5421, Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Türkçe Eğitimi Bölümü, ahmet.pehlivan@emu.edu.tr

∗∗ Doç.Dr., ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0610-863X, Dokuz Eylül University, Türkçe Eğitimi Bölümü, seckin.aydin@deu.edu.tr

Giriş

Dilbilgisinin ne olduğu, hangi içerikle ve nasıl öğretilmesi gerektiği öteden beri hem dilbilimde hem de eğitim bilimi alanında tartışma konusudur. Bu tartışmalar ışığında tarih boyunca dilbilgisi öğretiminin dayandığı felsefe, dilbilgisinin tanımı, kapsamı, öğretim yaklaşımı, yöntemleri ile ilgili birçok görüş ortaya atılmış, birçok dilbilim ve eğitim kuramı bunları ortaya koymaya çalışmıştır. Günümüzde de durum farklı değildir. Dilbilgisi öğretiminin gerekliliği, neyi içermesi, dilbilgisi öğretiminde hangi dilbilim ve öğretim yaklaşımının uygulanması gerektiğiyle ilgili bir uzlaşı olmamakla birlikte, tarihsel süreçte alanyazında dilbilgisinin amaç olarak algılanmasından bir araç olarak görülmesine doğru bir seyir aldığı söylenebilir.

Günümüzde okullardaki dilbilgisi ile ilgili çeşitli görüş ve tartışmalar olsa da okullardaki dilbilgisi öğretiminin anadili becerilerini geliştirmesi, eleştirel düşünme süreçlerine katkı sağlaması, yabancı dil öğrenimini desteklemesi gerekliliği üzerinde durulmaktadır (Gelderen, 2010: 111). Bununla birlikte dilbilgisinin sosyal ve bölgesel değişkeleri de göz ardı etmemesi gerektiği, bir dilin tüm betimlemesinin yerine öğrencinin okuma, dinleme, konuşma ve yazma becerilerinin geliştirilmesi, öğrencinin düşünme süreçlerine katkı sağlayacak çalışmalara yer verilmesi şeklinde ortak bir anlayış vardır. 21. yüzyıldaki dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili tartışmalar henüz son bulmamıştır. Bu konudaki süregelen tartışmalar,

a) Dilbilgisi öğretiminin dayandığı politika veya inançlardaki farklılık,

b) Dilbilgisinin dayandığı kuram ve buna bağlı olarak tanımı, içeriği veya kapsamı,

c) Öğrenme yaklaşımı,

d) Öğretim programlarının yapısı ve uygulama üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Bu tartışma konuları çok yönlü olup öğretimde temel alınan anlayışa göre değişmektedir. Gelderen (2006) de dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili tartışmaların çok yönlü ele alınması gerektiğini belirtmiş, alandaki görüş ve karşıtlıkları şu şekilde özetlemiştir:

1. Doğal geçerlilik (inherent validity), araçsal geçerlilik (instrumental validity) karşıtlığı.

2. Açık veya belirtik bilgi (explicit knowledge), örtük bilgi (implicit knowledge) karşıtlığı.

3. Ürün odaklı dilbilgisi (product-oriented reflection), süreç odaklı dilbilgisi (process-oriented reflection) karşıtlığı.

4. Yönlendirilmiş/tümdengelimci pedagoji (prescriptive-deductive pedagogy), betimleyici/tümevarımcı pedagoji (descriptive/inductive pedagogy) karşıtlığı.

5. Sistematik müfredat (systematic curriculum), rastlantısal müfredat (incidental curriculum) karşıtlığı.

6. Diğer karşıtlıklar: Örneğin; anadilinde kültürel değerler, cümle analizi, kültürler arası karşılaştırmalar, dilbilimsel deyişler (lehçeler, ağızlar ve yazı dili), toplum dilbilim, anadili ve yabancı arasında karşılaştırma, dili kavrama ve kullanma stratejileri, diğer dil/(diğer değişke) konuşmacılarına yönelik tutumlar, günlük dil kullanımının pragmatik yönleri.

Dilbilgisi öğretiminde yukarıda sıralanan tartışma konularına bakıldığında anadili öğretiminde dilbilgisinin yerini bilimsel olarak ortaya koymak çok kolay değildir.

Dilbilgisinin anadili eğitiminde etkisinin olup olmadığı bir yana bırakılırsa tarih boyunca dilbilgisi, öğretimdeki yerini temelde öğrencinin dil yeteneğini geliştirmek– günümüzde bu amaç daha geniş kapsamda olsa da- ve dil sorunlarını çözmek amacıyla almıştır, (Fontich & Camps, 2014) dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili uygulama ve modelleri gözden geçirdikten sonra günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminin şu sorunlara çözüm bulması gerektiğini söylemektedir:

a) Öğrencilerin sözel kullanımlarını ve inceleme yapmalarını geliştirecek analitik araçlar sağlama,

b) Edinilen bilginin hem işlevsel hem de evrensel olmasını sağlamak için basit bir çerçeve oluşturma.

Fontich & Camps'ın (2014) bahsettiği sorunlara çözüm yolu bulmak çok da kolay değildir, çünkü dünyada dilbilgisi öğretimine değişik politikalar, anlayışlar etki etmekte, konuya dilbilim ve eğitimbilimi kuramları farklı açılardan bakmakta, farklı çözümler ortaya koymaktadır. Bu bakış açısıyla günümüzde dünyada dilbilgisi öğretiminin hangi anlayışla uygulandığının, hangi bakış açılarını yansıttığının görülmesi okullardaki anadili eğitimine katkı sağlayacaktır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, günümüzde; alanyazında gelinen aşamada anadili öğretiminde dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili tartışmalı konuları ve bunların dayandığı temelleri sunmaktır. Alanyazındaki tartışmaların ortaya konmasının, Türkiye'de anadili eğitiminde dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili sorunların çözümünde politika üretenlere, akademisyenlere ve eğitimcilere katkı sağlayacağına inanılmaktadır.

Dilbilgisi Öğretimi ile ilgili İnanç ve Politikalar

Tarih boyunca dilbilgisi öğretimi incelendiğinde birtakım inançlara bağlı olarak geliştirilen politikalar doğrultusunda farklı uygulamaların ortaya çıktığı görülmektedir. Örneğin, Rönesans'ta dilbilgisi öğrenme, anadili öğrenmenin koşulu olarak görülmektedir. Yüksek seviyedeki dini metinleri anlama ve yorumlama dilbilgisi ile ilişkilidir. Osmanlı'da da durum böyledir. Dilbilgisi öğretimi anadili öğretiminde başat konumdadır. Bu anlayışta dilbilgisi öğrenmenin bir araç değil amaç olduğuna inanılmaktadır. Daha sonraları değişik kuram ve yaklaşımlar ortaya çıkmış ve bunlar da okullardaki dilbilgisi politikalarına yansımıştır. Hudson & Walsley'ye (2005) göre günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretimi, dilbilimsel uygulamayla politika, toplumun kabulleri ve kurumsal eğilimler gibi dışsal sosyal faktörler arasındaki ilişkilerin etrafında şekillenmektedir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili iki farklı uç politikanın olduğu söylenebilir:

a) Dilbilgisinin anadili öğrenmede katkısı yoktur ve bunu öğretmek gereksizdir,
b) Dilbilgisi öğrenmenin yukarıda belirtilen işlevlerinden dolayı anadili öğretiminde önemli bir yeri vardır.

Türkiye'de tarihsel süreçte dilbilgisi öğretiminin gereksiz olduğu ile ilgili -bu çalışma yapılırken- akademik anlamda pek bir tartışma bulunmasa da dünyada bu durum çok tartışılmış, bazı dönemlerde de dilbilgisinin dil becerilerini geliştirmede katkısı olmadığı

görüşleri ortaya atılmıştır (Wyse 2001: 422; Andrews vd. 2004, Negro & Chanquoy, 2005,). Örneğin, ABD'de 1960'larda dilbilgisinin öğretiminin gereksiz olduğu özellikle yazma becerisini geliştirmediği yönünde görüşler ortaya atılmış hatta dilbilgisinin zararlı etkisi olduğu iddia edilmiştir (Kolln & Hancock, 2005). İngiltere'de de benzer tartışmalar yaşanmış, 1970'li yıllardaki programlarda dilbilgisinin yerini edebiyat almıştır (Hudson ve Walmsley, 2005). Gelderen (2006), Hollanda'da ve Finlandiya'da da İngiltere'deki gibi dilbilgisi öğretiminde ideolojiyle ilgili karşıt ve yandaş tartışmaların varlığından söz etmektedir. Daha sonra bu politikalar yerini dilbilgisi öğretiminin önemli olduğu inancına bırakmış, üretken dönüşümlü dilbilgisi, sonraları da dilin işlevlerine yönelen yaklaşımlar öğretimde yerini almıştır.

Burada şu söylenebilir, dilbilgisinin anadili öğreniminde yerinin önemli olduğuna inananlar da inanmayanlar kadar çoktur (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). Tordior ve Wesdrop (1979), dilbilgisinin yazma becerisinin geliştirilmesine yönelik katkısını belirlemek için 53 çalışmayı incelemiş, dilbilgisi öğretiminin özellikle yazma öğretiminde etkili olduğunu bulmuştur (Akt. Gelderen, 2006: 49). Dilbilgisinin anadili öğreniminde yerinin önemli olduğuna ve belirtik olarak öğretilmesi gerektiğine inanan Hudson & Walmsley (2005: 594-595), öğrencilerin neden dilbilgisi öğrenmesi gerektiğini şu şekilde sıralar:

1. Çocukların yetişkinlikte lazım olacak dilbilgisel yetkinliklerini genişletmek,
2. Öğrencilerin konuşma, yazma, dinleme ve okuma yetkinliklerini desteklemek,
3. Yabancı dil öğretimini desteklemek,
4. Öğrencilerin düşünme becerilerini geliştirmek,
5. Öğrencilerin araştırma becerilerini kazanmasına yardımcı olmak,
6. Öğrencilerin kendi fikirlerinden zevk almasını sağlamak,
7. Öğrencilerin çevrelerinde konuşulan dillerin farkına varmasını sağlamak.

Yukarıdaki ikinci görüşle yani dilbilgisinin anadili eğitiminde yeri olduğu bakış açısıyla değerlendirildiğinde dilbilgisi politikasıyla ilişkili iki görüş ortaya çıkar: a) dilde biçim ve doğruluk, b) dilde kullanışlılık. Dilde doğruluk politikası bir dilin ölçünlü türünün doğru ve üstün olduğu, diğer dil türlerinin görmezden gelindiği yaklaşımdır. Bu politikaya göre doğru konuşma, yazma vb. ölçünlü dilin doğru kullanımıyla doğrudan ilişkilidir. Böyle bir yaklaşımda içerik tek bir dil türüne göre düzenlenmekte, içerik açısından biçim ve doğruluk ön plana çıkmaktadır. Kuralcı dilbilgisi esas alınmaktadır. Bu bakış açısı bir dilin diğerinden üstün olduğuna ve doğru veya yanlışa dayanır (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). Öğrencilerin edindiği dil açısından ortaya koyduğu özellikler yanlışlık olarak algılanır ve okullarda birtakım yanlışların doğrularını öğretmek temel alınır. Betimlemede yazı dili ön plandadır. Bunun karşıtı görüşte ise dile, dolayısıyla onun kurallarının betimlendiği dilbilgisine sosyal bir olgu olarak bakılmakta, dil türlerine ve dilin kullanım alanlarının öğretimine yer verilmektedir. Bu bakış açısında bir dilin kullanım uygunluğu ve anlaşılırlığı ön plana çıkmakta, dil türlerinin sosyal ve tarihsel statüsüne yer verilmektedir. Bu anlayışta doğruluk ve yanlışlık kavramı dilin kullanımında ortaya çıkmaktadır (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). Dilde kullanımın ön plana alındığı yaklaşımda dile hem yazılı hem de sözlü dil perspektifinden bakılmaktadır.

Bilindiği gibi politikalar inançları, inançlar da politikaları etkilemektedir. Dilbilgisinin öğretimiyle ilgili alanyazındaki çalışmalar politika oluşturanların, uzmanların, öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerin halkın hatta velilerin inançlarının uygulamalarda önemli rol oynadığını göstermektedir. Dilbilgisi öğretiminin dünyadaki seyrine bakıldığında politikacıların, halkın ve uzmanların uygulamayı etkiledikleri, uygulamaya yön verdikleri görülür (Gordon, 2005). Bu doğrultuda yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde politik inançlara göre dilbilgisi öğretimiyle ilgili uygulamaların,

1. Dilbilgisine gereklilik veya gereksizlik,
2. Biçim ve doğruluk veya kullanışlılık açısından değişebildiği görülmektedir.

Yeni Zelanda'da 1980'lerdeki uygulama buna örnek gösterilebilir. Halkın, politikacıların, akademisyenlerin ve öğretmenlerin dilbilgisi öğretiminde temel alınan resmi yaklaşımı benimsememesi sonucunda eğitim komitesinin öne sürdüğü model uygulanmaktan vazgeçilmiş, geriye dönüş yapılmıştır. Bununla birlikte İngiltere'de II. Dünya Savaşı'ndan 1960'lara kadar okullarda izlenen politikadan dolayı dilbilgisinin amacı, yazılı İngilizcedeki doğru cümle yapılarını öğretmekken (Myhill, 2011), 1980'lerden sonra bunun yerini yaratıcı yazarlık ve edebiyat öğretimi almış, dilbilgisi öğretimi ortadan kaldırılmıştır. Daha sonra (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005), okullardaki anadili eğitimindeki başarısızlıklar gerekçe gösterilerek politikacıların da doğru İngilizce politikalarını desteklemesiyle dilbilgisi okullara yeniden girmiştir (Paterson, 2010; Paterson, 2010; Hudson & Walmsley, 2005;). Bralich (2006), merkezi sınavlarda başarıyı etkilediği gerekçesi ile ebeveynler ve politikacıların geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretiminin okullarda önem arz etmesini gerektiğine inandıklarını belirtmektedir. Paterson (2010), müfredat değişiminin dış etkilere duyarlı olduğunu ve zamanın politik ikliminin oldukça önemli olduğunu söylemektedir. Myhill (2011) halkın ve politikacıların genelde dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili eğiliminin kuralcı gramer doğrultusunda olduğunu, yani dilde doğruluğun temel alınarak uygulama yapması gerektiğine inandıklarını söylemektedir. Hollanda'da geleneksel dilbilgisinin eğitim programlarına egemen olmasının nedeni öğretmen, aile ve kitap yazarlarının geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretimi yaklaşımını benimsemesi olarak görülmektedir (Myhill, 2010: 110). Avusturalya'da yeni dilbilgisi programına karşıt ve destekleyici politikalar üretildiği hatta bunlara basının da katıldığı belirtilmektedir. Buna göre muhafazakar görüştekiler öğretmenlerin yeni uygulanan dilbilgisini doğru öğretemeyeceklerine inanmış, işçileri temsil eden politikacılar ise bunun tam tersi görüşü benimseyerek bu konuda halka güvence vermeye çalışmışlardır (Horarik, 2012). Handcok, ABD'de halk mantığında dilbilgisinin dilde yanlış ile, dilde yanlışın da dilbilgisi ile ilişkili olduğu görüşündedir (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). Gordon (2005) Yeni Zelanda'da dilbilgisi öğretimindeki uygulamaları politik ve sosyal bağlamda incelemeyi amaçlayan çalışmasında, 1980'lerden önceki modelin işlemediği gerekçesi ile dilbilgisinin okullara konduğunu, bunun da ne anlama geldiği; hangi dilbilgisinin ne kadar öğretileceği konularında halk, politikacılar ve eğitimciler arasında geniş tartışmalara yol açtığını belirtmektedir (Gordon, 2005). Kolln & Hancock'un (2005) makalesi Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde dilbilgisinin geçen yüzyılda çeşitli dilbilim teorileri ve politika etrafında nasıl şekillendiğini anlatan çarpıcı bir örnektir. Bir diğer örnek de İngiltere'den verilebilir.

Crystal, (2017), 1990'larda İngiltere'de dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili sol ve sağ politik görüşe ait tartışmaları ortaya koyar. Sağ görüştekiler doğru İngilizceye odaklanırken, sol görüştekiler dilde doğruluğun politikanın üst sınıfı temsil eden ve çocukları sosyal köleleştirmeye hizmet eden bir araç olduğunu söyler. Cosson (2007), Brezilya'da anadili olarak dilbilgisi öğretiminin geleneksel savunanlar ile sosyo-etkileşimci paradigmayı savunanlar arasında bir savaşa döndüğünü belirttikten sonra; akademisyenlerin, resmî politika yapıcıların, basının, ailelerin, eğitimcilerin bu kavgaya müdahil olduğunu belirtmektedir. Alanyazında bu konudaki tartışmalar o kadar ateşlenmiştir ki Dilbilgisi Savaşları "Grammer Wars" (Mitchell, 2001), Dilbilgisi Savaşlarının Ötesi "Beyond The Grammar Wars" (Locke, 2010), 200 Yıllık Dilbilgisi "200 Years of Grammar" (Walker, 2011), adı altında bu konuyu doğrudan işleyen kitaplar yazılmıştır. Bu kitaplarda çeşitli ülkelerdeki eğitimciler, halk, akademisyenler ve politikacılar arasındaki tartışmalar yüzünden dilbilgisi öğretiminin nasıl şekillendiği anlatılmaktadır.

Dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik tartışmaların ana kaynağında dilbilgisi kavramına yüklenen anlam konusundaki farklı değerlerle inanışların etkisinin olduğu açıktır. Dilbilgisi ile ilgili politik tartışmaların temeli kendisinden çok daha üst düzeydeki değer yargıları ile ilgilidir. Başka bir söyleyişle politik anlamda dilbilgisi öğretimi politikanın temsil ettiği grupların inanç ve algılarını temsil eder. Şöyle ki daha gelenekselci veya toplumun üst katmanına yönelik politika üreten gruplar dilbilgisine doğruluk açısından bakmaktadır. Toplumsalcı veya sol görüşteki gruplar ise dilbilgisi öğretiminde kullanım veya dil değişkelerini içerecek bir içeriğin olması anlayışına sahiptir. Örneğin, İngiltere'de İngilizceyi korumakla sorumlu Kraliçe İngilizce Topluluğuna (Queen English Society) göre dilbilgisi, hataların belirlenmesinde önemli rol oynar (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013). Myhill (2000), dilbilgisi öğretimi konusunun genellikle politik veya ideolojik görüşlere dayanan kutuplara yöneldiğini söylemektedir. Ahlaki standartların azalması, düzen ve siyasi otoritelere duyulan ihtiyaç nedeniyle dilbilgisi öğretiminin rasyonelliğini kaybettiğini savunmaktadır.

Dilbilgisi sözcüğü; doğru, iyi, kötü gibi kavramları çağrıştırır. Bir dilin veya kullanıcısının yargılanmasına ilişkin standartları gösterir (Horarik, 2012). ABD'deki dilbilgisi öğretiminin tarihine bakıldığında, 1960'lı yıllarda geleneksel okul dilbilgisi tarihsel olarak düzgüsel kurallara ve düzenlenmiş İngilizce standartlarına dayandığından her kural veya söyleyiş için tek bir "doğru" yolu teşvik eden bu gelenek elit bir politika olarak algılanmıştır. Ölçünlü dilin dilbilgisini temel alan anlayış, ağız kullanan öğrencilere yönelik bir yargılama aracı olarak görülmüş, öğretmenlerin ev dilinin meşruluğunu anlaması sağlanmaya çalışılmıştır (Kolln & Hancock, 2005).

Bununla birlikte dilbilgisi ile ilgili politik anlayış ve tartışmaların farklı ülkelerde aynı şekilde sürdüğü söylenemez. Örneğin; Almanya ve Hollanda'da dilbilgisinin geleneksel anlamda öğretilmesi büyük bir çelişki olarak görülmez, programların bir parçası olarak algılanır (Gelderen, 2006; Gelderen, 2010; Myhill & Watson, 2014;). Türkiye'de de benzer bir durum söz konusudur. Türkçe öğretiminin tarihine bakıldığında politik açıdan dilbilgisi ile ilgili 2005'e kadar uç noktalarda (içerik, yaklaşım, model vb. açıdan) pek bir tartışma olduğu söylenemez. 2005'teki programlarda dilbilgisi öğretimi anlayışı yeniden

düzenlenmiş, değiştirilmiş, ilköğretimde kural öğretme anlayışında kısıtlama yoluna gidilmiştir fakat bu anlayışın uygulamaya ne kadar yansıdığı tartışmalıdır (Anılan, 2014).

Dilbilgisi ile ilgili politikalardaki aktörlerden biri de uzmanlardır. Myhill ve Watson (2014), İngilizce konuşan ülkelerde ders programlarında dilbilgisinin gramer savaşlarına döndüğünü, bu tartışmanın politikacılarla profesyoneller ve profesyonellerin kendi aralarındaki mücadeleden kaynaklandığını belirtmektedir. Bir başka çalışmada dilbilgisi programlarının tarihsel süreçte -dilbilgisi ile ilgili birçok çalışma ve çaba olmasına rağmen- dönemin politikasını oluşturan uzmanlarının görüşüne hizmet ettiği belirlenmiştir (Clark, 2010). Türkiye için de aynı durum söz konusudur, denilebilir. Türkiye'de eğitim programlarının yeniden yapılanmasından sonra 2000'li yılların başından beri dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili yapılan akademik çalışmalar incelendiğinde, bunların büyük bir çoğunlukla resmi görüş olan yapılandırmacı anlayışın egemenliğindeki uzmanların görüşüne göre şekillendiği –araştırma sonuçlarında dilbilgisi öğretiminin okullarda hala geleneksel yöntemle yürütüldüğünün belirlenmesine rağmen- söylenebilir. Dünyada dilbilgisi öğretiminde uygulanan diğer yaklaşımların pek fazla tartışılmadığı, sezdirme yoluyla dilbilgisi öğretiminin sorunlara tek çözüm olarak sunulduğu görülmektedir (Güneş, 2013-a; Güneş, 2013-b; Anılan, 2014).

Politikacılar, uzmanlar ve halkın görüşü yanında özellikle öğretmen ve öğrencilerin inanç ve algılarının dilbilgisi öğrenmede ve sınıf içi uygulamalarda etkisinin olduğunu göstermektedir. Watson (2015), İngiltere'deki ortaokul öğretmenlerinin dilbilgisi öğretimi üzerine inançlarını araştırdığı çalışmasında, öğretmenlerin dilbilgisine yönelik inançlarının sınıf içi davranışlarına ve uygulamalarına etki ettiğini söylemektedir. Güneş (2013-b), Türkiye'de dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili araştırmaların bulgularının kuralları ezberlemeye yönelik olduğu, öğrenci psikolojisine dikkat edilmediği ve bunun da öğrencilerin dilbilgisinden korkmaya neden olduğunu söylemektedir. Harris (1962: 51-52), öğrencilere göre, dilbilgisinin demotive edici olduğunu ve anadili öğretimindeki konular arasında popülerlik sıralamasında en son sırada yer aldığını belirlemiştir (Watson, (2015); dilbilgisi öğretiminde öğretmenlerin inançlarının sınıf içi uygulamaları yönlendirmede önemli bir rol oynadığını belirlemiştir. Anılan'ın (2014) ilkokul öğretmenlerinin dilbilgisi öğretimine ilişkin uygulamalarını belirlemeye çalışan araştırmasının bulguları; algı, inanç ve tutumların sınıf içi uygulamalarla ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Yarrow (2007), öğretmen adaylarının dilbilgisini kafa karıştırıcı ve anlaşılması zor olarak algıladıklarını söylemektedir. Hançer ve Dilidüzgün, (2022) de yaptıkları çalışmada öğretmenlerin büyük bir kısmının dilbilgisi öğretimini önemli bulduklarını belirledikten sonra, öğretmenlere göre öğrencilerin dilbilgisi öğrenmeye yönelik olumsuz algılarının bulunduğunu söylemektedir. Akay ve Toraman (2015), öğrencilerin yabancı dil öğreniminde de dilbilgisine yönelik tutumlarının sınıf içi etkinliklerinde, motivasyonlarında, endişelerinde öğrenme deneyimlerini kullanmalarında önemli yeri olduğunu belirtmektedir.

Dilbilgisinin İçeriği ve Ne Olduğu

Alanyazında dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili tartışmalardan biri de dilbilgisinin ne olduğu ve içeriğiyle ilgilidir. Gerçekten de neyin, ne kadar öğretileceği ve tanımının ne olacağı

önemli bir konudur. Dilbilgisinin ne olduğu yalnız okulla bağlantılı değildir. Kapsam ve tanımlamada dilbilim alanında farklı bakış açılarının rol oynadığı açıkça görülmektedir. Bu bağlamda değerlendirildiğinde yapısalcı dilbilim, dilbilgisine farklı bir yönden bakarken üretici ve işlevsel dilbilim akımlarında dilbilgisinin kapsamı ve ne olduğu başka bir konudur. Bazı modeller dilin tüm alanlarını kapsama alırken bazıları sözdizimi veya biçimbilimini; bazıları dilin kurallarıyla ilgilenirken diğerleri kullanımı ön plana çıkarabilmektedir. Bir kısmı yazı dilini öncelikli kılarken bir diğeri konuşma dilini veya beyindeki soyut dilbilgisini ön plana çıkarabilmektedir.

Kuramsal boyutun yanında dilbilgisinin ne olduğu ve kapsamı farklı amaçlar açısından da değişkenlik gösterir. Şöyle ki okulda öğretim amaçlı dilbilgisinden mi, bir dilin betimlenmesi veya kurallarını ortaya koyan bilimsel alanda mı, yoksa kullanımdan mı söz edilmektedir. Hartwell (1985), dilbilgisinin beş farklı anlama geldiğini belirtmektedir:

1. Bir dilin sözcüklerinin daha büyük anlamlar inşa etmek ve yorumlamak için oluşturdukları örüntüler kümesi.
2. Resmi dili betimlemeye, incelemeye ve formüle etmeye çalışan dilbilimi alanı.
3. Dilin nasıl kullanılacağını belirten görgü kuralları.
4. Okul dilbilgisi.
5. Stilistik dilbilgisi (düzyazı stilini öğretmek için kullanılan terimler ve kavramlar).

Güneş (2013-b) de Cuq (2003)'un dilbilgisini dört grupta topladığını belirtmektedir:

1. Bir dili doğru konuşmak için oluşturulan düzenleyici ilke ve kurallar bütünü,
2. Bir dilin ilkelerini inceleyen eğitsel etkinlikler, doğru konuşma ve yazma sanatı,
3. Dilin iç işlevleri üzerine geliştirilen bir teori ve aynı zamanda gözlem aracı,
4. Dile ilişkin öğretilecek açıklayıcı, süreçsel ve koşul bilgileri.

Öğretim amaçlı dilbilgisi kavramının altında dilbilgisinin niçin, ne amaçla öğretileceği yatar. Günümüzde dilbilgisinin neden öğretileceği ile ilgili konu, dilbilgisinin öğrencilerin dinleme, okuma, konuşma ve yazma becerilerinin ve üst düzey düşünme becerilerinin geliştirmesinde katkı koyması beklentisi ile alakalıdır (Güneş, 2013-a; 2013-b). Ancak bu anlayış kabul görse de teoride ve uygulamada tam bir birliktelik sağlanmış değildir. Şöyle ki, birincisi anadili becerileri geliştirilirken hangi bakış açısıyla bakılacak? İkincisi bu gerçekleştirilirken hangi dilbilgisinden nasıl, ne kadar yararlanılacak? Birinci sorunun cevabı *Biçim ve doğruluk ile ilgili kuralcı dilbilgisi ve* betimleyici dilbilgisi tartışmasını ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Öncesinde de belirtildiği gibi kuralcı dilbilgisi bir üst dilin değişmez, doğru kurallarının öğretimine önem verir. Dilin nasıl kullanılacağına dair kurallar belirlenir ve dilbilgisine "doğru" ve "yanlış" kullanım penceresinden bakılır. Burada önemli olan öğrencinin yaptığı hataların üst dil formuna göre düzeltilmesidir. Bu yaklaşımda öğretim yöntemi olarak çözümleme ve ayrıştırma alıştırmaları ve etkinliklerine önem verilir.

Betimleyici bir dilbilgisi, herhangi bir dilin mümkün olduğunca doğru ve kapsamlı bir şekilde nasıl kullanıldığını anlatmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu yaklaşımda, herhangi bir dil formunun üstün statüsünü alması olasıdır ve bu statüyü almasında dil dışı sosyal ve tarihsel faktörler önemli rol oynar. Dil hem yazılı hem sözlü hatta kombine perspektiften

incelenebilir (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007). Dilin değişik değişkelerinin (sosyal ve bölgesel diyalektler) olabileceği göz önüne alınır.

İkinci sorunun yanıtı, hangi dilbilgisinin ne kadar öğretileceği ise farklı teorik yaklaşımlara göre de farklılık göstermektedir. Örneğin; geleneksel dilbilgisi, yeni dilbilgisi, dil farkındalığı (language awareness), üretken dönüşümlü dilbilgisi bu konulara farklı yaklaşmaktadır. Dolayısıyla dilbilgisi altında yatan anlayış, içeriği ve kapsamı etkileyecektir. Ancak günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminde içerikle ilgili uzmanların genel görüşü sadece kuralların betimlendiği, bunlarla ilgili alıştırma ve etkinliklerin yapıldığı bir dilbilgisi yerine, dilbilgisinin sadece edebi eserlerden değil, işlevsel olarak yaşamdaki dilin dilbilgisinin öğretilmesi, cümle, sözcük analizi vb. yanında kültürel ve sosyal farklılıkların dile yansıması, dil türleri, yabancı dil öğretimi ile karşılaştırmayı, dil kullanımını içine alması gerektiği şeklindedir (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Gelderen, 2006; McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007; Paterson, 2010; Yarrow, 2007; Cosson, 2007; Güneş, 2013-b; Fontich & Camps, 2014).

Gelderen (2010: 112), dilbilgisi öğretiminde içerik ile ilgili olarak genelde birinci olarak dilin direkt sözcük ve cümle kurallarının öğretimine yönelik formal perspektif (formal perspective), ikinci olarak bağlamı ve bağlam dışını da dikkate alarak dilin sözcük ve cümlelerinin anlamının öğretildiği semantik perspektif (semantic perspective) ve üçüncü olarak iletişimsel bağlamda dilin kullanım işlevlerine yönelik pragmatik perspektif (pragmatic perspective) olmak üzere üç tür perspektifin egemen olduğunu belirttikten sonra, bunların dil hakkında bildirimsel bilgi (declarative knowledge) ve yordama bilgisine dayalı olmak üzere iki şekilde sınıflanabileceğini söylemektedir.

Dilbilgisi öğretiminde içerik ile ilgili bir diğer sorun terimler ve tanımlamalarla ilgilidir. Bu sorunlar şu şekilde özetlenebilir:

1. Tanım ve terim farklılıkları,
2. Terim ve tanımların ne olacağı ve sayısı,
3. Terim ve tanımların nasıl öğretileceği.

Tanılama ve terim farklılıkları dilbilgisi betimlemesiyle ve modeli ile de ilgilidir. Dilbilgisi öğretiminde temel alınan dil yaklaşımının terim ve tanımları eğitime de yansımaktadır. Örneğin gelenekselci, yapısalcı, üretken dönüşümlü dilbilgisini temel alan programlar kendi temel ve anlayışlarına göre tanımlamaya gider. Türkiye'de ise geleneksel Türk dilbilgisi alanında bile terim ve tanım birlikteliğine varılamadığından geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretiminde bile birtakım ayrışmalar ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bunun yansımaları eğitimde de görülmektedir. Tanımlama ve terim farklılıkları dilbilgisi betimlemesiyle ve modeliyle ilgili olmasına rağmen geleneksel anlamdaki öğretimde bile bir uzmanın sıfat tamlaması dediğine bir diğeri takısız ad tamlaması diyebilmekte ve bu değişik dönemlerde programlara farklı biçimlerde yansıyabilmektedir (Pehlivan, 2003). Hatta okullardaki dilbilgisi dersini verecek öğretmeni yetiştiren programlarda dilbilgisi betimlemesi ile MEB'in dilbilgisi betimlemesi birbiriyle uyuşmayabilmektedir (Pehlivan, 2003; Bulut, 2014).

Bunun yanında özellikle ilköğretimde kaç tanım ve terimin yer alması gerekliliği de ayrı bir sorun olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Sezdirme yoluyla dilbilgisini öğretenler tanım ve terim sayısının minimum tutulmasından yanadır. Belirtik yolla öğretimi savunanlar daha çok terim ve tanımların verilmesini savunurlar. Terim ve tanımların nasıl öğretileceği konusu ise dilbilgisi öğretme yaklaşımları ile ilgilidir. Ancak burada şu söylenebilir: Günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminin geldiği aşamada, okullardaki dilbilgisi öğretiminde dilbilgisi terimlerinin kapsamlı tanımlarının verilmesinin değil, dilbilgisi kurallarının işlevlerinin bağlamla birlikte öğretilmesinin egemen olduğu bir anlayış söz konusudur.

Dilbilgisi Öğretme Yaklaşımı

Tarihsel süreçte dilbilim ve eğitimbiliminde dilbilgisinin öğretme yaklaşımı ile ilgili de çeşitli görüşler ortaya atılmıştır. Dilbilgisi öğretimiyle ilgili farklı öğrenme yollarının olması nedeniyle dilbilgisi kavramı gibi dilbilgisi öğretimi yaklaşımı da net olarak belirlenememiştir. Dilbilgisi öğretimiyle ilgili alanyazında birçok yaklaşım olsa da bunları genel olarak iki başlık altında toplamak mümkündür. Bunlardan birincisi dilbilgisinin belirtik bir anlayışla öğretilmesi (explicit learning), ikincisi örtük yolla dilbilgisi öğretimidir (implicit learning). Bununla bağlantılı diğer konu ise dilbilgisinin öğretiminin tümevarımla mı, yoksa tümden gelimli bir anlayışla mı, yapılacağıdır. Aslında dilbilgisinin hangi yaklaşımla öğretileceğini belirlemek için anadili ve yabancı dil edinimi ile ilgili kuramlara bakmak gerekir. Bazı yazarlar dil öğrenmek için kuralların belirtik bir anlayışla yani açıkça verilmesi gerektiğini savunurken diğerleri öğretimde bireyin anadili edinim sürecini izlemeyi önermektedir (Krashan, 1981; Ellis, 2006; Ellis, 2015:; Rebuschat, 2015).

Belirtik öğrenme ya da açık yolla dilbilgisi öğretimi dilin kuralarının doğrudan öğretimine dayanır. En bilindik belirtik öğrenme yöntemi geleneksel dilbilgisi yaklaşımıdır. Ancak günümüzde belirtik gramer öğretimi sadece geleneksel yaklaşımla açıklanamaz. Bugün belirtik bilgiden kastedilen geleneksel dilbilgisi öğrenmenin dışında bir şeydir. Geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretiminde de belirtik yolla öğretim esastır, dilin kurallarının doğrudan öğretimine dayanır. Ancak alanyazın tartışmaları incelendiğinde günümüzde geleneksel yaklaşımın akademik kesimler tarafından kabul görmediği söylenebilir (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005; Gelderen, 2006; Fontich & Camps, 2014). Geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretimi; öğretilen dil kurallarının soyut kalması, işlevsel olmaması (McDonagh & Wilkinson, 2007) ve dolayısıyla dil kullanımına yansımaması, dilin kültürel ögelerini görmezden gelmesi, yabancı dil öğretimine katkısının az olması, öğrencinin dil gereksinimi ve kullanımından uzak öğrenme sunması, öğrencinin tutumlarını olumsuz yönde etkilemesi nedeni ile modern bilişüstü belirtik dilbilgisi öğretiminden farklılaşır (Gelderen, Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000). Ayrıca geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretimi dile bir sistem açısından bakmaz. Dili bütüncül bir sistem içinde analiz etmez. Carter (1990: 104-107) geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretiminin eksikliklerini şu şekilde özetlemektedir:

1. Dilbilgisel formları genellikle ayrık ögeler olarak gerçek, verimli kullanımı olmadan tanımlama ve sınıflandırma,
2. Meta dilbilgisi de dahil olmak üzere dilbilgisel olguları sayısız alıştırmalar ve aktarım yoluyla öğretim ve çözümlemeye dayalı süreç,

3. Akademik olarak başarılı öğrencilere uygun, bilişsel olarak yazma yeteneğini geliştirmeyen zor yöntemler (Allford, 2003).

Günümüzde belirtik öğretimle kastedilen; bir dilin yapısal, anlamsal ve kullanımı ile ilgili bileşenlerinin ve insan yaşamında dilin oynadığı rolün öğrenciye açıkça öğretilmesidir. Belirtik bilgi, dil ve dilin kullanımı hakkındaki bildirimsel bilgidir. Belirtik dilbilgisi öğretimi, dil bileşenini verimli ve doğru bir şekilde kullanabilmek için dilbilgisi kurallarını amaca uygun olarak öğrenmeyi işaret eder (Ling, 2015). Belirtik dilbilgisi öğretiminde, öğrencilerin öğrenilen kavramların nasıl uygulanacağını açıklayan bilişüstü dil ve açık kurallara ihtiyaç duydukları varsayımından hareket edilmektedir (Gelderen, 2010: 111). Bilişüstü dilbilgisi aracılığıyla öğrencinin gereksinimi ve dili kullanmada neyin önemli olduğu önem kazanmıştır. Belirtik veya açık bilgi dilin sessel, sözcüksel, biçimsel, söz dizimsel kullanım ve sosyo-eleştirel özellikleri hakkındaki açık bilgiyi ifade eder.

Bilişüstü dilbilgisi öğrencilerin dili kullanması için dilin kurallarının ve işlevlerinin açık bir şekilde öğrencilere gösterilmesi esasına dayanır. Dil hakkındaki bilginin (meta dilbilimsel bilginin) insanın kavramlaştırma süreci ile aynı şekilde ele alınması gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır. Dil aracılığı ile insanlar dünyayı algılamayı, dilden oluşan kavramsallaştırma yeteneğini geliştirler (Fontich & Camps, 2014: 605). N. Ellis'e (2015: 14) göre bu açık bellek benzeşim süreçleri aracılığıyla yeni dilsel ifadelerin bilinçli yapılandırılmasında da kılavuzluk eder. Formüller, kalıplar, alıştırmalar ve pedagojik dilbilgisi kurallarının öğretiminin tümü, daha sonra örtük öğrenmenin oluşturulmasına katkıda bulunur. Bu anlayışta;

1. Dilin konuşma ve yazmadaki kullanımı ön plana çıkarılmalı,
2. Sadece edebi metinlerle yetinilmeyip her türlü metin öğretimde ele alınmalı,
3. Kuralcı değil, tanımlayıcı dilbilgisi öğretilmeli,
4. Kurallar sezdirme yoluyla değil, belirtik (açık) olarak öğretilmelidir (Hudson & Walmsley, 2004; Gelderen, 2006).

Günümüzde bilişüstü dilbilgisi kavramı psikodilbilim ve eğitim alanında farklı adlarla anılmaktadır. Alanyazında bilişüstü dilbilgisi ile ilgili olarak daha çok belirtik dilbilgisi (expilicite grammar), dil hakkında bilgi (knowledge about language), dil farkındalığı (language awareness), biçim odaklı dilbilgisi (focus on form) terimleri kullanılmaktadır. Bu çalışmada modern anlamda belirtik dilbilgisi öğretimi için dil farkındalığı ortaya konmaya ve Türkiye'de anadil eğitiminde uygulamada pek bilinmediği için açıklanmaya çalışılacaktır. Dil farkındalığı en basit şekilde dil hakkında açık bilgi, dil öğrenimi, dil öğretimi, dil kullanımında bilinçli algı ve duyarlılık olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Association for Language Awareness). Halliday'in kuramına dayanan dil farkındalığı sistematik ve işlevsel dilbilimi temel almaktadır. Halliday'e göre öğretimde yapılardan çok işlevlere, sözdiziminden çok anlama, belirli kurallardan çok esnek bir yapı olarak dile ve cümleden çok metin odaklı dilbilgisine gereksinim vardır. Bu yaklaşım; işlevsel amaçlı meta dil sunması, öğrencinin sözcük seviyesinden metin seviyesine kadar anlam üzerinde

konuşması, tartışması ile geleneksel anlamdaki dilbilgisinden farklılaşır (Jones & Chen, 2016).

Günümüzde alanyazında birçok yazar geleneksel dilbilgisinin öğrencinin dil ihtiyacını karşılamadığı, dolayısıyla buna alternatif olarak dil farkındalığını -bu görüşe karşı olanlar olsa da- temel alan bir yaklaşımın uygulanması gerektiğini ileri sürmektedir. Zaten dil farkındalığının ortaya çıkış noktası da anadili ve yabancı dil öğretimindeki başarısızlık olarak görülmüştür (Hudson & Walmsley, 2005). James and Garrett (1992), dil hakkında bilginin uygulanmasını haklı kılan beş ana alandan söz etmektedir:

(i) Duyuşsal alan: tutum oluşturma, motivasyon ve merak geliştirme;
(ii) Sosyal alan: çok dilli/çok kültürlü bağlamlarda sosyal uyumu teşvik etmek;
(iii) Güç: bireyin dil kullanımıyla ilgili baskı ve manipülasyonlardan kurtarılması;
(iv) Bilişsel alan: özellikle dil öğrenme ve kullanımı ile ilgili olarak dilsel ve genel becerilerin geliştirilmesi;
(v) Performans: etkili bir dil yeterliği geliştirme.

Dil farkındalığında;

1. Dil birbiriyle ilintili bileşenlerden oluşan bir sistemdir.
2. Dil durağan değil, değişen bir olgudur.
3. Dil bir anlamlandırma sürecidir.
4. Dil sadece yapısal değil, kullanım açısından da açıklanmalıdır.
5. Öğrenci dilin içinde bulunduğu toplumsal ve kültürel bağlamın ve dil çeşitliliğinin farkında olmalıdır.

Dil farkındalığında öncelikle dile birbiriyle ilintili bir dizge olarak bakılmaktadır. Bu dizgede dilin yapısı, anlamı ve kullanımı iç içedir. Dil anlamların yaratıldığı bir sistem olarak görülmektedir. Bu yaklaşımda dil durağan bir olgu olarak değil, değişen bir sistemdir ve bu değişim öğrenciye gösterilmelidir. Çünkü anlamlandırma da bu değişimin görülmesiyle somutlaşır. Ayrıca dil incelemesinde anlamlandırmanın nasıl gerçekleştirildiği öğrenciye açık bir şekilde gösterilmelidir. Dolayısıyla dilbilgisi öğretiminde tanımlamaya yönelik etkinlik ve bağlam dışı öğretimden kaçınılmalı, dile iç içe geçen, birbiri ile ilintili bir sistem olarak yaklaşılmalıdır (White, 2000).

Dil farkındalığında amaç, öğrencinin dilin işleyiş düzeninin bilinçli olarak farkında olmasıdır. Öğrenci etkili bir dil kullanıcısı olabilmek için dili doğru analiz edebilmeli ve betimleyebilme yeteneğine sahip olmalıdır. Dil farkındalığı öğrencilerin dili kullanması için dilin kurallarının ve işlevlerinin açık bir şekilde öğrencilere gösterilmesi esasına dayanır. Donmall'e (1985) göre, dil farkındalığı dilin doğasının ve insan yaşamındaki rolünün bilinçli olarak farkında olunmasına dayanır. Denilebilir ki dil farkındalığı diller arasındaki ilişkilerin, çocukların dil gelişiminin, sosyal ilişkilerin doğasının, kişilik ve dil tercihinin, bireysel ve sosyal iki veya çok dilliliğin, dil değişkelerinin, sosyal kontrolde dil kullanımının, anadil ve yabancı dil öğretimine katkının dikkate alınmasını içermektedir (Locke, 2010: 9-11). Carter'a (1994) göre dil farkındalığı,

1.   Dilin özelliklerinin farkında olmayı,
2.   Dilin kültür içindeki yerinin farkında olmayı,
3.   Kullanılan dil formları hakkında bilinçli olmayı,
4.   İdeoloji ve dil arasındaki ilişkilerin farkında olmayı içermelidir (Akt. Locke, 2010: 12).

Yukarıdaki açıklamalar dikkate alındığında dil farkındalığı sayesinde öğrenci öncelikle dilin işleyiş düzeninin ve kullanımının farkında olmaktadır. Dolayısıyla geleneksel dilbilgisi öğretiminden farklı olarak dilin işlevlerini gerçek yaşamla bağlantılı ve bilinçli olarak öğrenmektedir. Bu da dil hakkında konuşarak ve tartışarak yapılmaktadır. Dil hakkında tartışma öğrencinin eleştirel düşünme yeteneğine de katkı sağlamaktadır. Bununla birlikte dil farkındalığı sayesinde öğrenci dilin kültürel ve buna bağlı kullanım boyutunu da içselleştirmektedir. Öğrencinin kültürel ve sosyal açıdan farklı kullanımlara dikkati çekilerek bunlar üzerinde tartışma yoluyla farklı dillerin ve dil türlerinin (ağızlar, çok kültürlülük vb.) olduğunu, bunların kullanım alanlarını öğrenerek kültürel farklılıklara karşı olumlu tutum geliştirebilecektir. Kendi dil kurallarının, işleyişinin ve farklı dillerin değişik işleyiş düzeninin olduğunun farkındalığı yabancı dil öğretimine de katkı sağlamaktadır. Uygulamada dilin yazımını (imla), sözcük sesletim düzenini, anlamsal görünüşünü ve kullanım durumunu ezberlemeden işleyişinin bilinçli olarak farkında olan öğrenci; başka bir dil öğrenirken aynı veya benzer süreçlerin farkına varmakta, böylece dil öğrenme mekanizmasını bilinçli çalıştırabilmektedir (Gelderen, Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000).

Dil farkındalığına dayanan dilbilgisi öğretiminin içeriği, dili değişen bir olgu olarak görmekte, dile onun sosyal ve kültürel elementlerini de içine alan ses, yapı, anlam, kullanım alanlarından oluşan sistematik bir yapı olarak bakmaktadır. Bu içerikte yazım, resim, fotoğraf vb. görsellere de anlam taşıyıcısı olarak yer verilmektedir. Çözümlemede kişisel, sosyal ve kültürel bağlamı gösteren cümle ve metinler kullanılmaktadır. Dilbilgisinin bu bağlamlardan kopuk durağan, sıkıcı ve anlamsız çözümlemelerinin hiçbir anlamı yoktur. White (2000), dil farkındalığını temel alan bir dilbilgisi öğretiminin birbiriyle ilintili altı bölümden oluşması gerektiğini ileri sürmektedir: yazı bilmi, sesbilim, biçimbilim, sözdizimi, anlambilim, edimbilim. Modelde dilin kişisel, sosyal ve kültürel boyutu bu gruplamanın içine yedirilmiştir.

Dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili öğretmen, öğrenci, sınıf içi uygulamalar, ölçme değerlendirme sistemi (örneğin merkezi sınavlar) etkilidir, ancak bu faktörlerden en önemlisi programlar ve bunun altında yatan felsefedir (Anılan, 2014). Dil farkındalığıyla ilgili çeşitli ülkelerde farklı öğretim programları ve uygulamalar olsa da genelde kapsam yukarıda belirtilen konular üzerine yoğunlaşmaktadır. Buna örnek vermek gerekirse, Hollanda'da 1993'te dil farkındalığı yaklaşımına göre geliştirilen ilköğretim anadili eğitimi programında dil farkındalığı 5 kategoride sunulmuştur. 1. Dilin sesleri ve yapısı, 2. Çeşitli metinler ve dilin kullanımı, 3. Dil değişkeleri, 4. Söz varlığı ve 5. Sözcük sınıflamaları ve cümle çözümlemeleri (Gelderen, Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000). Yine İngiltere'deki ilköğretim programı da benzer içeriği destekleyecek şekilde oluşturulmuştur (Paterson, 2010; Clark, 2010).

Avusturalya'daki ilköğretim anadil programı edebiyat, okuma-yazma ve dil farkındalığı olarak üçe ayrılmış, dil farkındalığı bölümünde dilin yapısı ve anlamlandırma

sürecine kullanım, toplumsal ve kültürel açıdan bakılmıştır (Horarik, Love & Horarik, 2018). Hawkins (1984), "Dil Farkındalığı" (Language Awareness) adlı kitabında dil farkındalığına dayalı programın yararlarını şöyle sıralamaktadır:

(i) Öğrencileri dil hakkında tartışmaya ve soru sormaya teşvik etmek,

(ii) Öğrencinin merak ettiği dil kökeni, dilde değişme, ağızlar, ödünçleme vb. sorulara yanıt bulmasını sağlamak,

(iii) İlköğretim ile ortaöğretimde dil öğretimi açısından köprü oluşturmak,

(iv) Dil eğitiminin farklı yönleri arasındaki boşluğu kapamak (İngilizce/yabancı diller ve azınlık dilleri arasında).

(v) Dilsel çeşitliliğe saygıyı geliştirmek ve dile yönelik önyargıları azaltmak,

(vi) Öğrencilere dil kalıplarını analiz etme ve karşılaştırma becerisini kazandırarak yabancı dil öğrenme yeteneğini geliştirmek,

(vii) Yazım geleneklerini karşılaştırarak yazımı ve yazılı-sözlü dil ayrımını anlamayı sağlamak.

Günümüzde belirtik öğrenmenin dışında oldukça tartışılan bir anlayış daha vardır. Bu anlayış, dilbilgisinin örtük öğretilmesi esasına dayanır. Bu anlayışın çıkış noktası bireylerin anadil edinimini temel almasıdır. N. Ellis (2015), anadili ediniminin belirli bir öğrenme amacı olmadan örtük olarak gerçekleştiğini vurgulamaktadır. Anadil edinimi sırasında çocuk, dil kurallarını önce bilinçsiz olarak öğrenir ve bunu bilinçli hale getirdikten sonra farklı durumlara uygular. Ancak Ellis'in dil ediniminin belirtik öğrenme ile daha hızlandırılabileceğini savunduğunu burada belirtmek gerekir. Richards ve Schmid (2010: 274) örtük bilgiyi açıkça söylenmemiş, sezgisel bilgi, insanların (davranışları, dilbilgisellik hakkındaki yargıları vb.) sezgisel olarak sahip oldukları, ancak ifade edemedikleri bilgi olarak tanımlar. Bu anlamda örtük bilgi, sözelleştirilebilen açık bilgi ile tezat oluşturur. Gelderen (2006) belirtik dilbilgisi öğretiminin –ister geleneksel, ister kuralın farkına varma olsun- öğrencilerin dil kullanımlarına bakıldığında işe yaramadığını, bunun yerine örtük yolla dilbilgisi öğretimini savunmaktadır. Yazar, Hollanda dilinde küçültmenin beş ayrı formu bulunduğunu ve bunların okulda öğretilmemesine rağmen çocuklar tarafından düzgün kullanıldığına dikkat çekmektedir. Örtük dilbilgisi bilgisi bilinçsiz ve işlemseldir, yalnızca açık hâle getirilirse sözlü olarak ifade edilebilir. Örtük öğrenmenin hızlı ve kolay erişilebilir, akıcı iletişimi sağladığı düşünülür (Ellis, 2006). Burada işlemsel bilgi bilinçli olarak bilinmeyen bilgi anlamında kullanılmaktadır (Richards ve Schmid, 2010: 156). Wong (2004), deneysel çalışmasında, belirtik bilginin öğrenciler tarafından daha hızlı işlenip işlenmediğini ve bunun onların daha hızlı yanıt vermelerine katkısını araştırmış, kontrol grubuyla deney grubu arasında belirtik öğretim açısından fark olmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Tek başına belirtik bilgi alan deney gruplarının, yorumlama ve üretim testlerinde bir başarısı yoktur. Belirtik öğrenmenin yerine örtük öğrenmenin temel alınması gerektiğinin savunucularından Krashen'e (1981) göre, belirtik dilbilgisi öğretimi dil yapılarını kullanmada yeterli değildir. Dil, hakkında yapı bilgisi verilerek geliştirilemez. Bilgi ile edinim beyinde farklı sistemler olarak var olduklarından, bu iki bilgi türü arasında hiçbir

bağlantı yoktur. Dil öğrenme bir edinim sürecidir, zaman ve hazır oluşluluğu gerektirir (Krashen, 1981).

R. Ellis (1994: 355-356), iki tür örtük bilgi olduğundan söz eder. Bunlardan birincisi "hazır dil parçaları" olarak adlandırdığı kalıplaşmış bilgi ve kural tabanlı bilgi, bir diğeri ise içselleştirilmiş, genelleştirilmiş ve soyut yapılardan oluşan bilgidir. Örtük öğrenme ve belirtik öğrenmeye bağlı olarak tartışılması gereken bir durum da dilbilgisi öğrenmede tümevarım ve tümdengelim yöntemidir. Tümevarım yönteminde öğrenci önce dilbilgisi kuralıyla ilgili örneklere maruz kalmakta, sonrasında kuralla ilgili kendisinin bilişüstü genellemeye gitmesi beklenmektedir. Sonuçta ise kural açıkça ortaya konabilir veya konmaz.

Öğrenme bilinç dışıdır. Öğretimde biçimden çok anlama ve akıcılığa odaklanılmakta, dilin iletişimdeki fonksiyonlarına önem verilmektedir. Buradaki temel amaç öğrencilerin dilbilgisi kurallarının ne olduğunu, dil ögelerinin işlevsel ve iletişimsel amaçları gerçekleştirmedeki rolünü anlamaktır. Dilbilgisi öğrenirken bağlam önemlidir ve metin temelli yaklaşım temel alınır (Pongpairoj, 2004; Uyumaz & Bayat, 2020: 259-280).

Türkiye'de de dilbilgisi öğretimindeki anlayışa göre özellikle metinlerden hareketle dil bilgisinin sezdirme yoluyla öğretilmesi, bir başka deyişle dilbilgisi öğretiminde metinlerden, örneklerden hareketle kurala tümevarımla varılması temel alınır. Elbette Türkiye'deki uygulamada tümevarım yolu temel alınsa da uygulamada tümdengelim tamamıyla reddedilmemektedir. Güneş (2013-a), sezdirme yöntemini açıklarken, "Dilin yapısıyla ilgili bilgiler, işlemler ve kurallar öğrencilere sözel bilgiler gibi aktarılamaz. Öğrenciler onları tıpkı bilimsel bilgiler gibi çeşitli deneysel tipteki etkinliklerle keşfederler. Bu süreçte dilin işlevlerini ve genel kurallarını anlamaya çalışırlar. Bu işlemler tümevarım modeliyle birleştirilir ancak tümdengelimli düşünme de hissettirilir" demektedir.

Tümevarımın karşıtı tümdengelim yönteminde ise öğrenciye dil yapısı hakkında bilgi açıkça sunulur ve öğretim bilinçli ve sistematiktir. Dilbilgisi yapısının öğrenciye açıkça sunulmasından sonra olay durum ya da örneklere geçilmektedir (Güneş, 2013-b). Ancak günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminde tümevarım mı, tümdengelim yaklaşımı mı kullanılmalı çok net değildir. Bazı araştırmacılar tümevarım yönteminin başarısından söz ederken, diğerleri tümdengelim yönteminin yararını savunmaktadır (Ellis, 2006).

Sonuç olarak günümüzde gerek örtük gerekse belirtik öğretim ile ilgili farklı savlar hâlâ tartışılmakta, dil öğrenmenin doğasına ilişkin çalışmalar devam etmektedir. Kimi araştırmacılar örtük öğretim, kimi araştırmacılar da belirtik öğretimin lehine savlar ortaya koymaktadır. Bununla birlikte her iki savın da yanıtlaması gereken sorular hâlâ varlığını sürdürmektedir. Hulstijn (2015: 25-46), günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminin doğasını açıklamada ortaya atılan savların delillerinde yetersizlikler olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Dilbilgisi öğretimi açısından dilin karmaşıklığının, çocukların okulda bazı dil formlarını öğrenmeden kazanamadıklarının, dili edinmede bireysel farklılıkların olduğunun, beynin karmaşıklığının, öğrenme ile ilgili teorilerin gerçeği farklı görmesinin vb. bu konuda etkili olduğunu belirtmektedir. Tüm bunların yanında örtük ve belirtiğin yerine göre kullanılabileceğini belirten yaklaşım da söz konusudur. Derewianka (2012), iki yöntemin yerine göre birlikte kullanılacağı bir yaklaşımı benimsemenin daha uygun olacağını söylemektedir. Belirtik bilgi ile örtük öğretim bir arada kullanıldığında daha mı faydalı olur, sorusunun yanıtını, belki de arayüz hipotezinde (interface hypothesis) aramak gerekir. Bu

hipoteze göre üç durum söz konusudur. Arayüz yoktur savında açık ve örtük bilgi farklıdır, belirtik bilginin örtük bilgiye dönüştürülmesi söz konusu değildir. Arayüz vardır savı ise öğrencilerin çok miktarda iletişimsel uygulama fırsatı varsa açık bilginin örtük bilgi hâline geldiğini savunmaktadır. Bir diğer sav ise zayıf arayüz savıdır. Zayıf arayüz savında öğrencinin hedeflenen özelliği edinmeye hazır olması ve bir dizi temel edinimsel süreci fark etmesi durumunda açık bilginin örtük bilgiye dönüşebileceği iddia edilmektedir (Ellis, 2006). Pongpairoj (2004), iki yaklaşım ortak kullanıldığında, belirtik öğretme yaklaşımı öğrencinin belirli bir dilbilgisi yapısı ile ilgili farkındalığını artırırken örtük yaklaşımın öğrenciyi iletişimsel metinlerde biçimin nasıl kullanılacağını anlamaya teşvik edebileceğini vurgulamaktadır.

Öğretim Programlarının Yapısı ve Dilbilgisi

Öğretim programları, öğretimde kullanılan yöntem ve teknikler, araç ve gereçler, öğretmenin plan, uygulama ve değerlendirme stratejileri de etkili dilbilgisi öğretiminde önemli rol oynamaktadır (Anılan, 2014). Programın bağlı olduğu felsefe ve bunun bağlı olduğu öğrenme öğretme ve değerlendirme yaklaşımları dilbilgisi öğretiminde etkindir. Bir diğer önemli nokta da program tasarımı modelidir. Şöyle ki daimicilik, esasicilik, yeniden kurmacılık, ilerlemecilik eğitim felsefelerinden birine temel olan programların dilbilgisi öğretimine bakış açıları değişiktir. Örneğin daimicilik felsefesini temel alan programda dilbilgisi öğretiminde doğruluk, tek ve değişmez ölçünlü yazı diline dayalı bir yapı egemen olacaktır. Yine ilerlemecilik felsefesine dayalı bir programda dilbilgisi öğretimi yaşamla bağlantılı, dilin işlevsel yönlerinin ön plana çıkacağı bir yapı sunmalıdır. Bununla birlikte program tasarımı modelleri de dilbilgisi öğretimine etki edecektir. Konu merkezli bir programla, hedef merkezli veya yetkinliklere dayalı bir programda dilbilgisinin içeriği, öğretme ve değerlendirme yaklaşımlarıyla uygulamada sunduğu olanaklar farklı olacaktır. Bu konu örneğin Türkiye ölçeğinde değerlendirildiğinde 2000'li yıllardan beri uygulanan yapılandırmacılık anlayışı, programlardaki dilbilgisi öğretimine de yansımıştır. Dilbilgisi öğretiminin dil sorunları ve düşünce geliştirme amaçlı anlayışı, içerikte az, sezdirmeye dayalı, tümevarımlı bir yolun izlenmesi önerilen anlayışın yansımasıdır.

Gelderen (2006) dilbilgisi öğretiminde programlara bakıldığında iki tür programdan söz eder: Rastlantısal program ve sistematik program. Sistematik programda dilbilgisi ile ilgili içerik belirli bir sistematikle verilir. İçeriğin nasıl verileceği de sarmal veya doğrusal olarak önceden belirlenmiştir. Dilbilgisi öğretimine daha çok belirtik öğretim gözüyle bakılır. Rastlantısal programda ise dilbilgisi öğretimi ile ilgili sistematik daha esnektir. Konular bağlama göre gerçekleşir. Öğretimde daha çok sarmal bir içerik ve tümevarım yöntemi ön plana çıkmaktadır. Dilbilgisi öğretimi dil sorunlarını çözmeye yönelik olmalıdır.

Dünyada gelinen noktada resmî program ile uygulanan program arasında farklar olduğu birçok ülkede görülmektedir. Bu ayrımın iki temel nedeni vardır. Bunlardan birincisi programın altında yatan kuramsal anlayışın uygulamada iyi anlaşılmaması veya kuramın uygulamada geçerli olmamasıdır (Mulder, 2011; Fontich, 2014; Milian, 2015; Coppen & Rijt, 2017; Myhill, 2018; Benzer, 2019; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019). Bir diğeri ise bu kuramsal anlayışın politika, akademisyenler, öğretmenler, basın ve aileler arasındaki inanç fakları nedeniyle (Borg, 2003; Devos & Vooren, 2014; Crystal, 2017; Boivin, 2018; Horarik, Love & Horarik, 2018; Benzer, 2019;) resmî programın kâğıt üstünde kalmasıdır. Bunun sonucu olarak hem uygulamada hem de öğretim materyallerinde programa uygunluk

sağlanamamakta, uygulamada geleneksel anlayış hâlâ dilbilgisi öğretiminde yerini devam ettirmekte ve değiştirilememektedir (Couzijn & Hendrix, 2000; Fontich & Camps 2014; Gelderen, Hlebec, 2017; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019).

Sonuç

Dil öğretiminin en eski tartışma konularından biri olan dilbilgisi öğretimi tartışmaları, günümüzde de güncelliğini korumaktadır. Tartışmalar dilbilgisinin ne olduğu ve içeriği, öğretiminde nasıl bir öğrenme yolunun izlenmesi gerektiği üzerinde yoğunlaşmaktadır. Bununla birlikte dilbilgisi öğretimi politikası ile uygulama tutarsızlığı, program yaklaşımı, uygulama ve değerlendirme yaklaşımları dilbilgisi öğretiminde hâlâ tartışmanın odağıdır (Crystal, 2017). Bu tartışmalara öğretmenlerin mevcut uygulama hakkındaki bilgisi de eklenebilir (Borg, 2003). Ancak burada şu belirtilmelidir ki tarihsel süreçte dilbilgisinin dil öğrenmenin amacı olarak öğretilmesinden dilin işlevlerine odaklanarak okuma, yazma, dinleme ve konuşma becerileriyle çocuğun düşünme becerilerine katkı sağlamaya yönelik bir evrilme söz konusudur. Günümüzde hiç kimse artık dilbilgisi öğrenme ile dil öğrenmeyi eş tutmamaktadır. Bununla birlikte herkes işlevsel bir dilbilgisinden bahsetse de bu tür öğretimin ne olduğunun net olmadığı yönünde görüşler vardır (Crystal, 2017).

Dilbilgisi öğretiminde karşı karşıya kalınan bir nokta da kuramla uygulamanın tutarsızlığıdır. Kuramcıların ortaya koyduğu veriler her zaman uygulamada hayat bulamamaktadır. Çünkü kuramcıların beklentileri ile inançları, uygulamacının beklentileriyle inançları ve öğrenci gereksinimleri aynı doğrultuda değildir. Dolayısıyla kuramın ortaya koyduğu görüşler ya uygulamada soyut kalmakta ya da kuramın anlaşılamamasından ve bilinmemesinden dolayı kâğıt üzerinde kalmaktadır. Nitekim yapılan çalışmalar da bu düşünceyi desteklemektedir (Anılan, 2014; Crystal, 2017; Rijt, Swart & Coppen, 2019; Coppen & Rijt, 2017). Rijt, Swart & Coppen (2019), günümüzde dilbilgisi öğretiminin teorik dilbilimin verilerinin politika ve sınıf uygulamasıyla uyuşmamasından dolayı dilbilgisi öğretiminin sorunlu olduğunu söylemektedir. Kuramın uygulamada yer bulmaması hem işlevselliğin sınıfa uyarlanamamasına neden olmakta hem de geleneksel anlayışın sürmesine yol açmaktadır. Bu konuda yapılacak olan, eğitim bilimi ve dilbilimciler ile uygulamacıları bir araya getirerek bir çözüm yolu sunmaktır.

Ülkemizin anadili eğitiminde devam eden gelişmelere koşut olarak dünyadaki uygulamaların sentezlenip 21. yüzyıl insan yetkinliklerini dikkate alan bir yaklaşımla düzenlenmesi, bu yapılırken politika, öğretmen, öğrenci hatta velinin bu konudaki inançlarına dayanan bir öğretimin dikkate alınması en sağlıklı yol olacaktır. Özetle geleneği dışlamayan çağdaş bir dilbilgisi öğretimine ihtiyaç vardır. Geleneğin tümüyle dışlanması uygulanmayacak bir politikayı gütmek olacak, tersi geleneğe dayalı bir öğretim de günümüz dil yetkinlikleriyle donanmış bireyleri yetiştirmede etkili bir bir araç olmayacaktır.

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Review Article

Form-focused Foreign Language Teaching in Agglutinating Languages: The Case of Turkish

Betül ÇETİN*

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	There are on-going research studies and discussions on concepts such as "focus on form", "focus on forms", and explicit and implicit instructions in foreign language teaching. Basically, foreign language teaching methods and techniques show similarities in teaching different languages, but it is considered beneficial to take into account the typological features of the languages while the concepts are being discussed. This study covers form-focused foreign language instructions and language typologies in order to evaluate and discuss the concept of focus on form in terms of languages featuring distinct typological features and emphasizes that more effective and productive learning environments can be created with form-focused instruction in teaching Turkish as a foreign language.

* Dr, ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0287-2924, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, DEDAM, betul.cetin@deu.edu.tr

Introduction

The developments and changes in foreign language teaching methods and techniques are shaped by the classroom practices of researchers, as well as theories in two fields: linguistic theories and learning theories. Linguistics studies led to a shift in the perspectives on language from prescriptive approaches to descriptive approaches and to the emergence of research based on such studies as functional grammar and discourse grammar. The shift in learning theories from behavioral learning theory (behaviorist approach) to cognitive learning has also been reflected in methods and techniques for language teaching. In the light of these developments, a large number of studies have addressed focus on form, focus on forms, and explicit and implicit instructions especially in grammar teaching while discussing methods and techniques in language teaching and the superiority of any method, or more accurately, whether there is a method superior to others (Harley, 1989; Scott, 1989; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Robinson, 1996; de Graaf, 1997; Leow, 1997; Sanz & Morgan Short, 2004; Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Spada & Tomita, 2010; Shintani, 2013; Nassaji, 2015; etc.). These discussions take place largely on the teaching of English as a foreign language.

When language typologies are considered, languages exhibit differences and similarities in terms of formal and syntactic features, and distinct categories have been created within the framework of these features. The features of English, which is an inflectional language, differ from *isolating/analytic, agglutinating, inflectional/fusional, and polysynthetic/incorporating languages*. Although foreign language teaching methods and techniques share similarities in the teaching of each language in terms of basic principles, evaluating and discussing the concept of focus on form in terms of agglutinating languages is thought to be of utility with a view to developing new perspectives. In this context, this study poses the following questions:

• How can the concept of focus on form be evaluated in teaching Turkish, an agglutinating language, as a foreign language?

• How can grammar teaching be undertaken within the framework of the features of Turkish, an agglutinating language?

• How can preliminary studies be conducted in order to carry out focus on form activities in the field of teaching Turkish, an agglutinating language, as a foreign language?

Within the framework of these questions, the study aims to evaluate form-focused grammar instruction in the field of foreign language teaching within the framework of Turkish, which is an agglutinating language.

In this study, the section Conceptual Framework includes a review of the literature on form-focused language instruction and the typological features of languages, as well as some examples from Turkish in order to discuss the implications of typological differences on language teaching. The section Evaluation of Form-focused Language Instruction in the Context of Turkish as a Foreign Language discusses the focus on form in terms of teaching Turkish as a foreign language.

Literature review

Form-focused Language Instruction

Studies on grammar teaching are linked to studies that reveal how a language is learned. Evaluating second/foreign language learning, Fotos (2001) states that language learning basically takes place in three cognitive steps: (1) *input*, (2) *information processing,* and (3) *output*. Input is necessary to start information processing. For specific linguistic units that are targeted in teaching, the learner is provided with inputs through activities related to skills such as listening, watching, and reading. In order for the input to be processed and transferred to the long-term memory, the learner should carry out linguistic productions. These productions provide output for the hypothesis-testing process to run. While inputs approved for accuracy are stored in the course of processing, instances of incorrect usage allow for the repetition of processing as they are fed back into the process. In order for this process to work in language teaching, the learner needs to be provided with inputs and possibilities of production.

When we look at the studies on language teaching in general, they are observed to discuss subjects such as linguistic skills, individual differences, and language education. In addition, Ur (2011: 507) states that grammar teaching is at the center of research on language teaching. There are both theoretical and practical studies on how grammar teaching should be carried out. The development of linguistic theories and learning theories has found reflections in grammar teaching, and a new emphasis has been placed on the importance of designing activities to complete information processing rather than teaching focused on translation and rote teaching (Fotos, 2001). It is stated to be necessary to concentrate on function in grammar and to understand the importance of corpus-based studies that focus on meaning and usage (Widdowson, 1990; Long, 1991; Piber, et al., 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Ellis, 2005; Carter & McCarthy, 2006;). Long (1991) argued that in grammar teaching, an independent focus on forms will not lead to success and the primary focus should be on meaning; he added the concept of form-focused instruction to the literature. Within the framework of the concept of focus on forms, addressing forms independently of meaning and function and aiming only at teaching the target structure creates challenges for learners in their subsequent use of the language.

Ellis (2001) divides form-focused instruction into two areas, namely, focus on planned forms and focus on incidental forms. It is possible either to focus on formats in an enriched and planned manner in the form of an input flood or to focus on formats randomly emerging during communication activities depending on the needs and questions of the learners. Ellis et al. (2009: 237) evaluated the studies undertaken by Elis in 1998, 2001, and 2008 and reported that these studies presented four distinct groups under the concept of focus on form, namely, *input-based options*, *explicit options*, *production options*, and *corrective feedback options*. In the *input-based options*, the inputs are pre-organized for learners. Enriched input may be applied with different techniques including enhanced input and structured input and through the organization of both explicit and implicit learning activities. *Explicit options* cover both directly explicit instructions and indirect instructions that offer learners room for self-discovery. *Production options* are

employed to generate utterances for target structures. *Corrective feedback options*, on the contrary, are shaped around the goal of assessing learners through their own productions. Feedback may be explicit or implicit, the latter involving metalinguistic instructions (Ellis et al., 2009: 237). Ellis (2016) compared the concepts of "focus on form" and "focus on forms" in his article reviewing the available studies on focus on form and emphasized that experimental studies should be conducted to determine which of the two approaches, i.e., focus on form and focus on forms, provides for better teaching.

Nassaji (2015) compiled studies on form-focused instruction (FFI) and discussed the viewpoints that could be considered as mutual opposites in foreign language teaching, classifying the studies in the literature under the headings given in Table 1.

Table 1. (Nassaji, 2015) Timeline: Form-focused Instruction and Second Language Acquisition

A. Theoretical and background issues	
B. Definition of constructs	
C. FFI versus no instruction	
D. Types of instruction	1. Explicit versus implicit 2. Isolated versus integrated 3. Deductive versus inductive 4. Input enhancement 5. Processing instruction 6. Interactional or corrective feedback 7. Consciousness-raising tasks 8. Incidental FonF
E. Factors affecting the use and/or effectiveness of instructional strategies	1. Learner characteristics/Individual learner differences 2. Feedback characteristics 3. Types of tasks 4. Linguistic target 5. Linguistic/Developmental level
F. Learners' perception/Noticing	
G. Learners' and/or teachers' belief	
H. Context of instruction/interaction	1. Second language 2. Foreign language
I. Context of research	1. Classroom 2. Laboratory 3. Computer-assisted
J. Narrative reviews and/or meta-analysis of research	

As can be seen in Table 1, the studies in the literature cover FFI versus no instruction, explicit versus implicit instruction, isolated versus integrated instruction, deductive versus inductive instruction, input enhancement, processing instruction, interactional or corrective feedback, consciousness-raising tasks, and focus on incidental forms (incidental FonF). Studies such as Long (1983), Ellis (1984), Lightbown and Spada (1990), Day and Shapson (1991), and Spada and Lightbown (1993) are reported to examine cases of no instruction against FFI. The studies in which the explicit versus implicit instruction was discussed are in the first category under "D. Types of instruction" and include studies implemented by such authors as Harley (1989), Scott (1989), Carroll

and Swain (1993), Robinson, 1996), de Graaf (1997), Leow (1997), Sanz and Morgan Short (2004), Laufer and Girsai (2008), Spada and Tomita (2010), and Shintani (2013). The difference between *explicit learning* and *implicit learning* is based on cognitive psychology studies. *Implicit learning* takes place without the need for attention and does not require any explicit awareness, while *explicit learning* occurs consciously and with the learner being aware of the learning (Ellis, 2009:7). The differences between these types of learning and instruction have been discussed in numerous studies (Doughty and Williams, 1998; DeKeyser, 2003; Doughty, 2003; Ellis, 2005; Gass and Selinker, 2005; Isemonger, 2007; Ellis and Loewen, 2007). *Linguistic awareness* is defined by Crystal (1992: 215) as "an informed, sensitive, and critical response to the use of language by oneself and others" Schmidt (2001) mentions two types of awareness, namely, *perceptual noticing* and *metalinguistic awareness*, involving analysis. For implicit learning, it is argued that learning takes place without metalinguistic awareness and the author defines implicit learning as learning without metalinguistic awareness. Implicit instruction entails providing instructions to learners in a way that enables them to infer the meaning of the rules without awareness, and as a result, to internalize them without focusing on a structure explicitly (Ellis, 2009:15).

Language Typologies and Turkish as an Agglutinating Language

Özgen and Koşaner (2020) state that there are approximately 6000 languages, although there is no definitive consensus on the exact number of languages in the world. A review of morphology and syntax studies shows that languages are classified according to their common features. Commonalities in languages are called language universals (Uzun, 2006:107). Uzun (2006: 108) addresses languages in the following five basic categories in terms of their morphological characteristics: *Isolating/analytic, agglutinating inflectional, flectional/fusional, and polysynthetic/incorporating languages*. Some languages have been assessed with all their features and some languages with their dominant features to be placed under these categories. With respect to the similarities and differences of languages, The World Atlas of Language Structures Online (WALS) offers frequently updated findings.

Isolating languages are defined as languages that do not have bound morphemes and use free morphemes for each function. Languages in this category do not feature affixes (Uzun, 2006: 110). Crystal (2008:254) explains that all vocabulary items are immutable in isolating languages, and syntactic relations are determined according to word order, and exemplifies Vietnamese, Chinese, and many South-East Asian languages as isolating languages. In this type of language, there are no bound morphemes and there are versatile rules in syntactic sequence due to the absence of any affix-based signification (Uzun, 2006: 110).

Inflectional languages are languages in which the distinctions between roots and affixes and the root cannot be identified distinctively through an examination of formal changes (Uzun, 2006: 112). Languages such as English are among inflectional languages.

In *flectional/fusional languages*, it is impossible either to distinguish roots from affixes or to analyze free morphemes. In languages such as Arabic, which is typical in its

features, grammatical categories are demonstrated through flection (Uzun, 2006: 113). Fromkin, Rodman, and Hymas (2009:526) establish the differences among languages with statements similar to the following for fusional languages: "Many Indo-European languages are of this type, such as Spanish. In "hablo, hablan, hablé", meaning "I speak, they speak, I spoke," the affixes carry a fusion of the meanings "person" and "number," and "tense" so that -o means "first person, singular, present," -an means "third person, plural, present," and -e means "first person, past, singular. The affixes themselves cannot be decomposed into the individual meanings that they bear."

Polysynthetic/incorporating languages, where Eskimo is cited as an example, employ obligatory bound morphemes, and here, words are added together in a manner similar to affixes. Many North American Languages fall into this category, such as Mohawk, Cherokee, and Menominee. For example, the expression "paehtāwāēwesew" in Menominee means "He is heard by higher powers" (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2009: 526).

Agglutinating languages are languages that feature a large number of bound morphemes and generally employ one morpheme for each function. Here, many affixes are used in derivational and inflectional terms and these affixes may overlap (Uzun, 2006: 111). Languages such as Turkish and Japanese are shown as examples for these languages. When Turkish is evaluated in terms of its most basic features, word order is a subject–object–verb (SOV) language and is based on an agglutinating and regular case-marking system (Erguvanlı, 1984: 5). In order to establish the features of agglutinating languages more clearly, it would be appropriate to include some of the descriptive examples specified for Turkish with significance for language teaching.

Stating that one of the most important features that distinguish a language from others is vowel and consonant harmony, in other words, its sound system. Ergenç (2002: 18), indicates that assimilation occurs among the phonetic features of Turkish, which is categorized in the group of agglutinating languages. The vowel in the primary syllable carries its feature on to the next syllables in terms of the site of the origin and the style of articulation. This feature is among the subjects of morphophonology for Turkish and is of great importance in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. A review of phonology studies focused on all phonological features indicates that they also address prosodic features, such as intonation and accent, i.e., suprasegmental phonology. In Turkish, the last syllable carries the accent of the *basic or unmarked* word. Generally, the accent assumes the functional role in cases where morphemes with the same phonology, i.e., homonymous with each other, but with distinct functions are employed (Göksel & Kerslake, 2008: 26).

Example (1)

(1a) Öğret**mén**im → (ben öğretmenim) "I'm a teacher."

(1b) Öğretmen**ím** → (benim öğretmenim) "My teacher"

In Example (1), "*öğretmenim*" has different meanings in (1a) and (1b). In fact, -(y)Im in (1a) is the personal suffix added as a copula, and -(I)m in (1b) is a possessive suffix. In Turkish, it is possible to drop the pronoun. In other words, personal and possessive pronouns are not used in cases where there is no change in subject or when

there is no comparison and special focus (Kornfilt, 1997: 281-285). In this case, the difference between examples (1a) and (1b) in verbal production emerges only within context and with accent.

In Turkish, which is an agglutinating language, there are phonetic harmonies for both vowels and consonants with respect to affixes. Affixes change according to the root to which they are added (Yavuz, Balcı & Turan, 2000: 51-55). In Example (2), it is seen that the verb added by the {-DI} morpheme, which is termed the past tense suffix, has eight possible appearances depending on the last sound of the verb and the vowel in the last syllable.

Example (2): {-DI} (past tense suffix)

Verb	**{-DI} (past)**
yaz- *(to write)*	yaz**dı** *(He/she wrote…)*
gel- *(to come)*	gel**di** *(He/she came…)*
gör- *(to see)*	gör**dü** *(He/she saw…)*
oku- *(to read)*	oku**du** *(He/she rea…)*
at- *(to throw)*	at**tı** *(He/she threw…)*
iç- *(to drink)*	iç**ti** *(He/she drank...)*
yut- *(to swallow)*	yut**tu** *(He/she swallowed...)*
düş- *(to fall)*	düş**tü** *(He/she fell…)*

In Example 2, the {-DI} past tense suffix is only exemplified for the 3rd person singular. The suffix is used in the form of {-dı /-tı} if the vowel in the last syllable is /a/, /ı/, {-di/-ti} if the vowel in the last syllable is /e/ /i/, {-du/-tü} if the vowel in the last syllable is /o/, /u/, and {-dü/-tü} if the vowel in the last syllable is /ö/, /ü/. In addition, when the last sound is /ç/, /f/, /h/, /k/, /p/, /s/, /ş/, /t/, it is suffixed as {-tı/-ti-tu/-tü}, while it is used as {-dı/-di /-du/-dü} for vowels or any other consonants in the last sound.

Morphological features are considered independently as the knowledge of morphemes and the knowledge of the rules in sequencing morphemes (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2009: 83). There are varying uses and rules of use for morphemes in languages. For example, in English, an affix is not used to derive a noun from a verb. As can be seen in the examples of "I like to dance" and "There's a dance or two in the old dame yet," "dance" can be used in the same form both as a noun and a verb (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2009: 84). However, derivations such as noun from verb, verb from noun, verb from verb, or noun from another noun are possible in Turkish. In Example (3), there are derivations from verb to noun and from noun to verb.

Example (3)

(3a) dur- (verb)+ak durak (noun)

(3b) kara (noun)+la karala- (verb)

From the point of view of morphological features, in Turkish, a noun may be combined with several affixes including plural, possessive, and case-marking affixes, whereas a verb may be affixed with a voice, a negative marker, a tense, an aspect, a

modality, or a person marker (Göksel & Kerslake, 2000: 41-116). In Turkish, more than one morpheme may be added to a root and to a stem formed by the addition of a suffix to a root.

Example (4) (Yavuz, Balcı, Turan, 2000:67)

kitap

kitap-lık

kitap-lık-lar

kitap-lık-lar-ı-m

kitap-lık-lar-ı-m-da

Example (5) provides an example of the reciprocal action voice in Turkish. While the phrase "each other" is used for reciprocal action in English, this function is provided with morphemes in Turkish.

Example (5)

(5a) bak- (to look)   bakış- (to look each other)

(5b) anla- (understand)   anlaş- (understand each other)

Just as a morpheme has multiple functions, multiple morphemes are used for a function. Example (6) provides examples of the different uses of the -Abil morpheme in Değer, Çetin, Oflaz-Köleci (2021:4).

Example (6) -Abil (Değer, Cetin, Oflaz-Köleci, 2021:4)

(6a) *suggestion*   *Baloda giymek için mor elbise alabilirsin.* (You can buy a purple dress to wear at the ball.)

(6b) *ability*   *Matematik sorularını artık rahatça çözebiliyorum.* (Now, I can easily solve mathematics questions.)

(6c) *request*   *Pencereyi açabilir misin?* (Can you open the window?)

(6d) *probability*   *Dikkat edin, yolda taş düşebilir.* (Be careful, stones may fall on the way.)

(6e) *permission*   *Bugün erken çıkabilirsin.* (You can leave early today.) Yeterince çalıştın. (You've worked hard enough.)

Example (7) shows different morphemes used for a single function.

Example (7) suffixes for future reference

Yarın gel*eceğ*im. (I will come tomorrow.)

Yarın gel*iyor*um. (I am coming tomorrow.)

Yarın gel*ir*im. (I come tomorrow.)

Syntax deals with the rules governing the sequencing of phrases and clauses (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams 2009:118). Marked and unmarked sequences are seen in the syntax. An unmarked phase is the syntax most commonly used by native speakers, which does not have a pragmatic purpose and does not feature special marks (Whaley 1997: 106). Among the world languages, there are six word orders, namely, SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV, and Turkish takes its place among the SOV languages (Dryer, 2013).

Syntax deals with the rules governing the sequencing of not only sentences but also words. These are addressed in categories such as noun phrases, verb phrases, and preposition phrases and the sequence changes between languages that have head-initial and head-final features in phrase structures. In addition, it is normal to see prepositional phrases in a head-initial language and postpositional phrases in a head-final language (Özgen & Koşaner, 2020:15-16). Turkish is a head-final language and employs postpositional phrases.

Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2009) point out the examples of "The President nominated a new Supreme Court justice" and "*President the new Supreme justice Court a nominated" in English, stating that the first sentence is grammatical because the syntax is correct, but the second sentence is ungrammatical because the syntax is incorrect. They thus demonstrate the connection between grammar and syntax in subject–verb–object (SVO) languages such as English. The basic syntax of Turkish is SOV. However, as the words are marked in terms of their functions through suffixes, there may be variations in the syntax. The word order in the phrase shows that in languages with more flexibility in syntax, such as Turkish and Russian, tasks such as subject and object are marked with inflectional suffixes (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2009: 348). As seen in Example (8), words can be marked in terms of their function to be moved to other positions in a sentence. Erguvanlı (1984) exemplified the scrambling in the syntax with the sentences in Example (8), stating, however, that there are certain preconditions.

Example (8)

(8a) Ahmet   yedi   yumurtayı.   (SVO) (Ahmet ate the egg.)

Ahmet eat-pst egg-acc

(8b) Yumurtayı Ahmet yedi.   (OSV) (Ahmet ate the egg.)

Egg-acc   Ahmet eat-pst

(8c) Yumurtayı yedi Ahmet.   (OVS) (Ahmet ate the egg.)

Egg-acc   eat-pst Ahmet

(8d) Ahmet yumurtayı yedi.   (SOV) (Ahmet ate the egg.)

Ahmet   egg-acc   eat-pst

The direct object does not leave its position in front of the verb. Erguvanlı (1984) illustrates this case in Example (9).

Example (9)

(9a) Murat kitap okuyor.   (Murat is reading a book.)

Murat book read-prog

(9b) *Kitap Murat okuyor.

book Murak read-prog

As the object is not marked in Example (9b), the sentence is ungrammatical and is not acceptable as a sentence.

In subordination, clauses may be formed to assume the functions of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, and subordination is also structured through morphemes and the

transfer of features of harmony. Example (11a) features a noun clause (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005: 423) and (11b) a relative clause (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005: 442), while in (11c), there is a clause with an adverbial function, stating a cause (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005:472).

Example (11) clauses formed with -DIK and their functions

(11a) [Orhan'ın bir şey yap-ma-**dığ-ı**] belliydi.

   Orhan-GEN anything do-NEG-VN-3SG.POSS

It was obvious [that Orhan was not doing/hadn't done anything].

(11b) [Fatma-nın doku-**duğ-u**] halı

     Fatma-GEN weave-PART-3SG.POSS rug

the rug [that Fatma is/was weaving/wove/has wowen]

(11c) Sen [cumartesi burada ol-**ma-dığ-ın** için] Mehmet'le henüz tanışmadın.

You Saturday here be-NEG-Cv-2SG.POSS for Mehmet-COM meet-NEG-PSB-PF-2SG

[As you were not here on Saturday] you were not able to meet Mehmet.

As seen in the examples, especially bound morphemes are of great importance and affect the meaning in Turkish.

Evaluation of Form-Focused Language Instruction in the Context of Turkish as a Foreign Language

Answering and deliberating on the following questions is of significance in the context of teaching Turkish as a foreign language: "Considering the features of Turkish, an agglutinating language, how can grammar teaching be undertaken? Is it more appropriate to teach grammar explicitly or implicitly?" or "How can the concept of focus on form be evaluated in teaching Turkish, an agglutinating language, as a foreign language?" There are also further questions underlying the questions above such as "Should typological differences between languages reflected to language teaching materials?", "Do the observations and conclusions frequently formed for English teaching in the literature also apply for Turkish, an agglutinating language?" or "Is it appropriate for the Turkish language to focus on forms and use explicit grammar teaching practices?".

In order to be able to discuss the answers to these questions and make an assessment, it would be useful to present the findings from the error analysis studies conducted with productions from learners of Turkish as a foreign language. Uzdu-Yıldız and Çetin (2020) evaluated the error analysis studies undertaken with productions from learners of Turkish as a foreign language at different levels through a systematic review and stated that the errors identified in the studies they discussed were related especially to spelling and punctuation. The spelling mentioned here originates from harmonies, and as harmonies are processed for each suffix, it was observed that learners made numerous errors in this regard. Other error analysis studies also found frequent errors among learners in terms of grammar (see Subasi, 2010; Çetinkaya, 2015; Yılmaz and Bircan, 2015; Çerçi,

Derman, Bardakçı, 2016; Önder and Uzdu-Yıldız, 2017; Gezer and Sliver, 2018; Temizyürek and Ünlü, 2018;). Çetinkaya (2015: 173) conducted an error analysis study, which offers observations concerning the errors made by learners at the B2 level. It is stated in the study that 51.93% of the errors identified are morphological. An example of the uses specified in the study is shown in Example (12).

(12) (...) "Teknolojinin olumsuz yönleri vardır. Söz gelimi zaman kazandık" "(There are negative sides to technology. For example, we saved time" / should be 'we are losing time' (-DIK was used instead of -mAk)"

In the example, it is seen that -DIK is used instead of the correct nominalizing structure. There may be two reasons for the use of -DIK here: -DI+k may have been used as the 1st plural suffix in the past tense or -DIk may have been used as a nominalizing structure formed with verb+DIK+possessive suffix. As it is not known which of the two structures the learners chose with the use in Example (12), the reason for the error cannot be fully interpreted, but it is seen that the learner made an error in their morphological choice.

Boylu (2014:341) points out to an error of an A1-level learner as in Example (13).

(13) "Ben şirketda ders okuyorum. (şirkette)" ("I am studying at the company" / misspelled suffix after 'company')"

Example (13) is related to the use of a wrong harmony, and it is not an error arising from use, but from morphology.

Çerçi, Derman, Bardakçı (2016) indicates an error of a C1-level learner as in Example 14.

(14) Bu nedenle hayatımıza çok memnunum ve çok teşekkür ediyorum. (So, I am very happy to our life and I thank very much.)

In Example (14), the dative case suffix –(y)A is used in the word "...hayatımız-a..." (to our life). However, the verb "memnun ol-" (to be happy) needs to be used with the "-DAn" case (from). It is seen that the learner made an error in choosing the right case suffix.

Sonkaya (2019) in their study on the errors made by Turkish learners revealed that learners made the most errors in syntax. They state that syntax errors are especially common among native speakers of English. An error identified in the study is exemplified in Example (15).

(15) " O, onun tek şey dünyada" ("It is only thing for him/her in the world")

The correct use in Example (15) is expected to be "O, onun dünyadaki tek şeyi" ("It is the only thing in the world for him/her"). The word "dünya" ("world") is expected to be adjectivized as "dünyadaki" ("which is in the world") with the suffix "-ki" rather than being used as "dünyada" ("in the world") and sequenced as "dünyadaki tek şeyi" ("the only thing in the world"). Turkish is a head-final language and the adjective is used before the noun in a noun phrase.

In Turkish as an agglutinating language, there are also restrictions on the successive addition of morphemes. In the use of the word "kitap" ("book") in the forms of

"kitap, kitap-lık, kitap-lık-lar, kitap-lık-lar-ı-m, kitap-lık-lar-ı-m-da" ("book, bookcase, bookcases, my bookcases, in my bookcases") in Example (4), the word is observed to be combined with +lık (nominalizing suffix)+lAr (plural suffix) -Im (possessive suffix)+-DA (locative suffix), respectively, and case, plural, and possessive suffixes are functional suffixes in Turkish, which learners encounter frequently. Although this syntax is not demonstrated in the grammatical way, it is useful to consider such formal features in the learning materials and during the relevant instructions in a course.

In order to evaluate FFI in terms of Turkish as a foreign language, an example can also be given with respect to the features of subordination in Turkish. In Turkish, noun clauses, relative clauses and adverbial clauses are commonly used, and suffixes come into play in all of these clauses.

Göksel & Kerslake (2008: 438) exemplify the suffixes used in relative clauses as in Example (16).

(16) a. küçük kız

   "the little girl"

b. oyuncaklar-ı-nı kır-an küçük kız

toy-PL-2SG.POSS-ACC break-PART little girl

   "the (little) girl who breaks/has broken her toys"

c. her gün okulda gör-düğ-üm kız

every day school-LOC see-PART-1SG. POSS girl

"the girl whom I see at school every day"

d. annesiyle tanış-acağ-ım kız

   mother-3SG.POSS-COM meet-PART-1SG.POSS girl

  "the girl whose mother I'm going to meet"

e. başında sapka ol-an kız

   head-3SG.POSS-LOC hat be-PART-girl

  "the girl who has a hat on her head"

As seen in the examples, structures in the forms of verb+An, verb+DIK+possessive, and verb+AcAk+possessive appear in the use of subject relative clauses and object relative clauses. Subordination is structured not with an free morpheme, but through free morphemes.

Considering the error analysis studies conducted on productions from learners of Turkish as a foreign language and the typological features of Turkish, it is possible to conclude that FFI will provide a more effective and productive teaching environment. Although the choice of delivering instructions in an explicit or implicit manner is at the discretion of the teacher, who will make this decision with consideration for the individual differences of the learners, it will be useful to offer format-focused sequences with a view to minimize learner errors.

How can preliminary studies be conducted in order to carry out focus on form activities?

The modalities employed for FFI are important. FFI does not represent a teaching style in which the subjects are presented in a random order and everything is introduced one by one and clearly. Functional and use-related features should not be dismissed and form-focused efforts should be arranged in line with the findings arising from discourse grammar studies. Değer, Çetin, and Oflaz-Köleci (2021) state that the aim of grammar teaching is to transfer grammar rules to real life in communication. A morpheme has more than one function in Turkish. Although the context is very important in the selection of the correct morpheme, the primary step should be to address the functions of the morphemes. Discourse grammar approaches can be considered while determining functions. Discourse grammar is a field where grammar is addressed within the framework of its uses in communication (Crystal, 2008:148; Fidan, 2000; Hughes & McCarthy,1998). The findings from discourse grammar give rise to pedagogical grammar and allow teachers to determine what to teach learners in which context and to which extent. Uzun (2010) also emphasizes that grammar is an indispensable element of language teaching. Its sequencing may vary depending on who is teaching grammar to whom, in which environment, and for what purpose and that corpus-based studies are important for grammar teaching.

Discourse grammar studies make it possible to formulate curricula by identifying the correct sequences for commonly used structures, as well as the most commonly used functions and contexts. Corpus-based studies should be considered to identify the frequencies of morphemes in use (see Aksan, et al, 2012; Yıldız, Günay, Uzdu-Yıldız, 2014). According to the data obtained from the corpus, the features of the morphemes can be positioned in the form-meaning-use (Larsen-Freeman, 2014:259) scheme.

Figure 1. Three-dimensional Grammar Framework (Larsen-Freeman, 2014:259)
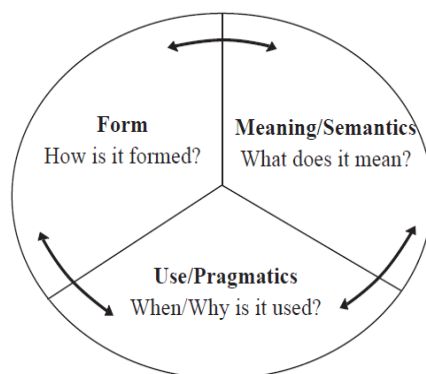
Çetin (2017, 193) presented the use of the question form of the -Abil morpheme as a means of asking permission in the three-dimensional grammar framework and indicated that grammar teaching materials prepared within the framework of the semantic and use-related features of the "verb+Abil+Ir MI+personal suffix?" form of the structure might allow learners to learn the target structure effectively and efficiently and contexts and the same form might also be employed to demonstrate the subjects that need to be addressed during the description of the structure before the preparation of relevant materials.

Figure 2. Demonstration of the "verb+Abil+Ir mI+personal suffix?" Structure in Turkish in its Function of Asking Permission in the Three-dimensional Grammar Framework (Çetin, 2017:193)
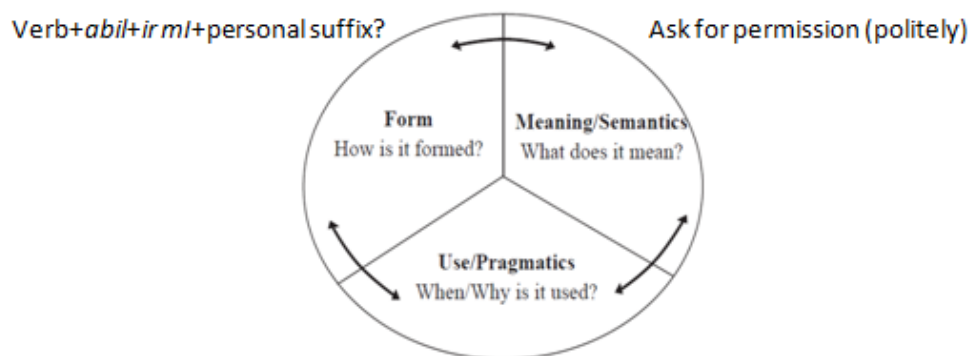
- In dialogues between strangers
- In formal and informal settings
- Politely
- Using standard language
- In dialogues
- Alongside phrases including "Sorry, thank you, have a nice day, leave it to me, and good luck!"
- To politely initiate, maintain, and end conversations with strangers

After performing an analysis similar to the one in the example, a teacher may choose a context and move on to an explicit or implicit presentation of the "verb+Abil+Ir mI+personal suffix?" structure for which an input has been provided in communication.

Undertaking similar exercises with all morphemes makes it possible to design functional FFIs.

Conclusion

In the field of language teaching, different approaches and methods appear to have emerged for grammar teaching based on a range of learning theories and linguistic theories. Considering the typological features of languages, there may be variations in perspectives of grammar teaching. Uzun (2013) states that the studies in the field of linguistics should provide sufficient and robust language descriptions for language teaching and indicates that studies on language typologies are among the primary studies that should contribute to language teaching. Aslan-Demir (2018:120) emphasizes that foreign language teachers should also be aware of typological differences.

The present study wishes to emphasize that it is necessary to focus on the forms in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. An extensive number of suffixes are necessary for proper uses, and most functions are marked with bound morphemes, i.e., suffixes. It is appropriate that these suffixes are given to learners in a spiral order and within examples of natural language use. The elements that matter are the functions of morphemes and it is necessary to demonstrate the use of structures in context and to undertake function-oriented studies. Grammar is best taught and practiced in context (Thornbury, 2000: 90).

Stating that learning a language is, in a way, to understand a language, Carters (1995: 12-13) specifies that language awareness will accelerate learning.

Grammar teaching is not the main purpose of language teaching. This is emphasized in numerous studies. However, while considering languages such as Turkish, an agglutinating language, it is impossible to deny the importance of formal features. Grammatical accuracy also has a direct impact on appropriateness and fluency. Awareness of forms is of great importance since being regarded as having learned a foreign language means having achieved competence in discourse, i.e., delivering appropriate productions in appropriate contexts. As stated in Değer, Çetin & Oflaz-Köleci (2021), providing input in an explicit or implicit way is not independently sufficient, and it must be complemented with activities targeting linguistic skills. The "there is no best method" perspective that has become prominent in foreign language teaching emphasizes the significance of individual differences and reveals the concept of "teachers' sense of plausibility" (Prabhu, 1990). It should be considered that there are differences in terms of languages, as well as in terms of learners, and it is possible to state "There is no best technique/method for grammar teaching" in most general terms.

Within the framework of these ideas, the following general conclusions can be put forward:

- Linguistic awareness is important for proper use.

- The main purpose of language teaching is to develop perceptual and productional skills.

- Formal features are of great importance in agglutinating languages, such as Turkish, for the accuracy and appropriateness of perceptual and productive skills.

- What matters is the delivery of forms in real-life contexts rather than the arrangement of the curriculum with a focus on forms or a focus on meaning.

- In the teaching of morphemes, or in other words, affixes, activities should be carried out to address the functions of forms.

- The form-meaning-use scheme is quite functional for material preparation in teaching agglutinating languages.

- The findings obtained through discourse grammar studies are important in terms of their use in foreign language teaching and in the planning of curricula.

For agglutinating languages, such as Turkish, studies should be conducted to implement explicit and implicit practices and compare their levels of achievement. It is necessary to carry out similar studies for other languages with distinct typological features in order to formulate general comments in the field of foreign language teaching.

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