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9th INTERNATIONAL METU POSTGRADUATE CONFERENCE ON LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

9th INTERNATIONAL METU POSTGRADUATE CONFERENCE ON LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

December 14-15, 2013

SELECTED PAPERS

Editors (written in alphabetical order):

Banu Çiçek Başaran
Behice Ceyda Cengiz
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This book includes selected papers presented at the 9th METU International Postgraduate Conference on Linguistics and Language Teaching organized by Middle East Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education on December 14-15, 2013 at METU Cultural and Convention Center, Ankara, Turkey.

FOREWORD

Having a background of 12 years, the International METU Postgraduate Conference on Linguistics and Language is an academical event where postgraduate students, researchers and scholars contribute to the English Language Teaching and Linguistics literature through hard work and collaboration.

We feel very proud to have had the opportunity to organize the 9th International METU Postgraduate Conference on Linguistics and Language Teaching at Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey. The Conference included 2 plenary speeches, 37 paper presentations and 8 poster presentations from various areas in Linguistics and Language Teaching presented by participants from around the world.

We feel obliged to express our sincere gratitude towards the people who made valuable contributions during the preparation of conference and the proceeding book. Firstly, we would like to thank our keynote speakers Assoc. Prof. Dr. Belma Haznedar and Assist. Prof. Dr. Sedat Akayoğlu for their insightful plenary speeches. We would like to thank Prof. Dr. Gölge Seferoğlu and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nurten Birlik for their invaluable guidance during this process. We wish to thank all the presenters whose contributions turned this event into a fruitful and an enjoyable conference. Furthermore, we are also grateful to the students of the Department of Foreign Language Education and İbrahim Yaşa for their admirable efforts and assistance in the organization of this conference. Last but not least, we would like to thank our friends and colleagues, Gülden Taner, Ufuk Ataş, Gözde Balıkçı and Esranur Efeoğlu for their endless support and understanding throughout this long process.

It is genuinely hoped that the Proceeding of the Conference will contribute to the English Language Teaching and Linguistics literature and will inspire researchers and scholars to enhance the effectiveness of the huge body of knowledge and pose various questions for the developments of the field.

Banu Çiçek Başaran
Behice Ceyda Cengiz
Fatma Gümüşok
Duygu Fatma Şafak
Editors
Conference Organizers

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Benefits and Challenges of Blogging For ELT

Seda Aydan, TED University

Abstract

Using blogs for various purposes and in various aspects of language teaching and learning have attracted a great deal of attention recently. As blogs are mostly favored by teachers and their benefits for the learners are supported by plenty of research, many institutions have started to integrate blogs in their process of language teaching. The University of Turkish Aeronautical Association has been one of the institutions benefiting from the blogs every semester. However, although blogs have been a part of the English preparatory program in this university, the opinions of the teachers and students have not been investigated and the effect of using blogs has not been revealed. In addition, there has been a need to investigate the challenges of blogs to be able to use them more effectively. The researcher of this study has been inspired from these needs and conducted a study to reveal the benefits of blogs in reading classes, the challenges that teachers and students may face while using blogs in these classes and possible solutions for overcoming these challenges. To investigate these various aspects of using blogs in reading classes, a questionnaire developed by the researcher have been administered to 100 students. The questionnaire includes sections to investigate useful sides of the blogs, challenging parts of the blogs, general perceptions of the blogs and demographic information about the students who have used blogs in their reading classes. The questionnaire has provided extensive information on the aspects that students find useful about blogs especially blogs' contribution to students' reading skills and revealed problems that students encounter while using blogs. In addition to the questionnaire, 5 teachers have been interviewed to investigate the topic from teachers' perspective as well. Their opinions are asked about advantages of using blogs and challenges that they face while using blogs in reading classes. Results show that blogs contribute to various skills of students especially their reflective skills and it is enlightening to see through the open ended questions of the questionnaire

that students find blogs particularly useful as they contribute to their vocabulary knowledge and help them to understand the reading texts better as they think about the texts more to write a blog entry. In addition, the difficulties that students have encountered in this process are shown in detail via this research. For this reason, the study has significant results revealing extensive information about the contribution of blogs to reading classes.

1. Introduction and Background to the Study

A weblog, generally known as a blog, can be defined as an online diary which allows people to publish their experiences, thoughts, videos, pictures etc. on the internet for other people to read or see. It also enables people to write comments on other people's blogs which form the interactive side of the blogs. Blogs have been used for teaching purposes for only recent years, but it has been gaining popularity as it is a suitable method for using for such purposes as providing communication and sharing resources between the teacher and students. The fact that everyone can create a blog in a short time for free and the blog can include a wide variety of sources makes blogs good tools for teaching. In addition, blogs have been noted by many studies as they are beneficial to enhance learning (Bartlett-Bragg, 2003) in terms of critical thinking, reflectivity and knowledge construction. While students write comments to other students' entries on the blog, they need to analyze the topic from different points of view and suggest their idea. Therefore, blogs create an encouraging environment for students in order to achieve critical and analytical thinking and also provide opportunities for communicating with other participants and using different learning sources like images, videos and links. For these reasons, blogs are getting more and more popular in English Language Teaching field.

Blogs have been a popular topic in research recently and they are valued for their benefits such as promoting collaboration, higher order thinking, problem solving skills and communication skills of students (Zawilinski, 2009). Blogs have been exploited by teachers with so many different agendas that there has been a need to categorize blogs according to their function. Zawilinski (2009), has created 4 different categories of blogs namely classroom news blog, mirror blogs, showcase

blogs and literature response blogs. According to the categorization, the blog type used in this study is a literature response blogs. This type of blogs are used to encourage students response a text that is read in class. Teachers post an entry about the text and invites students to comment on the text. Thus, blogs are used as a tool to make a bridge between a school and out-of-school activity. The blogs used in the present study employs this strategy. For this reason, the study investigates whether the benefits of this kind of a blog mentioned in the research are valid in a private university context in Turkey as well. Besides, although benefits of blogging are often mentioned in research, it is hard to find studies investigating the challenges of such blogging presenting possible solutions to this problem. For this reason, this study presents a comprehensive view of blogs exploring their advantages, difficulties and resorts to these difficulties.

The present study investigates whether the benefits of the blogs mentioned in the literature are perceived in similar ways by English preparatory school students and instructors of English at a private university in Turkey. The study especially focus on benefits and challenges of using blogs in reading classes and aims to give a perspective of using blogs effectively in these classes by determining the contribution of blogs to reading classes and difficulties that teachers and students face while using blogs and possible solutions to overcome these difficulties.

2. Research Questions

In this study the following research questions will be explored:

Based on the opinions of instructors and/or alpha (beginner/elementary) level students in the

English preparatory school of the University of Turkish Aeronautical Association:

1. What are the benefits of using blogs in reading classes?

2. What are the challenges of using blogs in reading classes?

3. What are the possible solutions to overcome the challenges of using blogs in reading classes?

3. Methodology

In order to collect the data for this study, two types of data collection instruments were used. Students were administered a questionnaire developed by the researcher and they were expected to share opinions and experiences about the various aspects of blogs via the questionnaire. The questionnaire contains 5 parts which have Likert scale, true-false, open ended questions and demographic information formats. Thus, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected through the questionnaire. Then when the data collected from students were analyzed, interview questions were developed by the researcher in order to do in depth interviews. These interview questions were prepared paying particular attention to what students had stated in the questionnaires in order to learn the teachers' opinion about the issues that students raised in the questionnaire.

3.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed by the researcher considering the issues about the use of blogs and technology mentioned in research. In order to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, it was firstly given to 3 teachers and they were asked to give feedback to the questionnaire based on their opinions and experiences. According to the feedback of the teachers, the questionnaire was revised and some of the items which had the potential to lead ambiguity were clarified. After receiving the feedback of the teachers, the researcher of the present study conducted a pilot study and gave the questionnaire to 10 students. These students completed the questionnaire and gave feedback to the teacher about it. After the pilot study, the questionnaire was revised again and some minor changes were made such as paraphrasing and simplifying some vocabulary. When the questionnaire was revised, it was approved by the supervisor of the study. Then it was administered by the researcher to 104 students.

3.2 Interview Questions

Semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to make in depth exploration of the topic. The interview questions that were asked to the teachers were prepared in two steps first. In the first stage, a framework of questions was prepared and themes that are parallel to the ones in the questionnaire were created. The questions that were firstly prepared were closely related to the issues concerning the blogs mentioned in research. However, in order to make the questions more in depth for the research of the present topic, the second stage of preparing questions was only realized after the data were collected from students and they were analyzed. When the results of the questionnaire were analyzed by the researcher, the final version of the interview questions was formed including issues raised by the students in the questionnaire. Thus, interview of questions of this study were prepared based on the research about the relevant topic and the analysis of the data collected from students.

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The questionnaire was administered to the students after they used blogs in reading classes for two semesters. The foreign languages department of this university consisted of 3 semesters. In the first two semesters, a skill based program was applied in which blogs were used in reading classes. The last semester was based on a TOEFL preparation program in which only an integrated TOEFL course was given. The data was collected after students use blogs for two semesters and when they were studying the third semester. All the questionnaires were given at once on the 16th of May, 2013. The data were collected from randomly selected 5 classes. There were 18 alpha classes in total in the foreign languages department and 3 of them were high achievers while 16 of them consisted of randomly selected students. The data were collected from one high achiever and 4 other classes. There were about 20 students in each class and so the data were collected from 104 students in total. Once the data were collected from students, the data analysis process were started in order to make the in depth interviews more effective.

The interviews were conducted in a semi-structured way with English language instructors in the foreign languages department. All the

interviews were conducted face to face and questions related to teachers' experiences with blogs and the issues raised by the students were investigated. As the interviews were semi-structured, various topics about the blogs were raised during the interviews and teachers were asked to elaborate and exemplify the issues they raised during the interviews which contributed to the data of the present research. All the teachers were given consent forms which were in Turkish. However, the interviews were conducted in English as the teachers stated before the interviews that they preferred to speak English because the terms they intended to use were in English and they did not want to speak a language that was a mixture of Turkish and English. For this reason, the interviews were conducted in English and they were conducted after the teachers used blogs in reading classes for two semesters and completed all the grading process related to blogs. 25 questions were asked the teachers. The questions were related to blogs' contribution to reading classes and reflective skills of the students, their benefits, and challenges for teacher and students, its comparison with traditional methods and ideal blog environment for them. All the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed for data analysis.

3.4 Data Analysis

In this study both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered and analyzed. Qualitative data were collected through the open ended questions of the questionnaire that is the 4th part and in depth interviews. The quantitative data were collected through the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and the 5th parts of the questionnaire.

In order to analyze the open ended questions and the semi structured interviews, the constant comparative method that is a method for analyzing qualitative data was implemented. The constant comparative method was described by Maykut and Morehouse (1994) as:

> a method of analyzing qualitative data which combines inductive category coding with a simultaneous comparison of all units of meaning obtained. As each unit of meaning is selected for analysis, it is compared to all other units of meaning and subsequently grouped (categorizing and coded) with similar units of meaning. If there are no similar units of meaning, a new category is formed. In this process, there is room for continuous refinement; initial categories are changed,

merged, or omitted; new categories are generated; and new relationships can be discovered (p. 134).

The answers of the open ended questions of the questionnaire were collected in a table and they were categorized under different categories. The number of the answers that were collected under the same category was noted in order to analyze the qualitative data. More categories were added as students gave various answers to the open ended questions in the questionnaire. The number of the answers that were given to each category was noted in the same table. In order to analyze the qualitative data of the interviews, all the answers of the teachers were transcribed and they were coded according to their content. Every answer was taken as an item and they were coded considering their theme. A coding table was created using these codes and their frequencies and numbers that they occur in the transcriptions. In addition, in order to have a better analysis of the data, color coding for the transcriptions were made. The answers related to the benefits of the blogs were coded green, the answers related to the challenges of blogs were coded yellow and suggestions to overcome the challenges of the blogs were coded gray. Color coding helped the researcher to see a general picture of the answers in terms of the content and contributed to the better analysis of data. The quantitative data were collected from the questionnaire and they were analyzed using the Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS 20.0).

4. Results and Discussion

The present study enlightens the students and teachers' opinions and experiences about benefits and challenges of using blogs for English language teaching purposes and presents solutions to overcome the challenges mentioned in the study. In addition, it has implications about the use of technology in language teaching and education in general terms. As stated before, a questionnaire was used to collect data from students and in the 4th part of the questionnaire, four open ended questions were asked to students in order to collect qualitative data and to have a better idea about their opinions about their blogging experience. These four questions were parallel to the research questions of the study. These questions are the following:

1. What were the benefits of blogs in reading classes? Please, give specific examples.

2. What were the challenges of blogs in reading classes? Please, give specific examples.

3. What are your suggestions to improve the use of blogs in reading classes? Please, give specific examples?

4. If there are other things you like to add or comment on, please specify.

This part of the questionnaire was very effective to collect data from students which were not explored before. The answers that students gave to these questions were collected in a table and it is shown below:

Table 1

Benefits of the Blogs	**N**
Blogs improve writing.	28
Blogs improve vocabulary.	25
Blogs improve reading.	20
Blogs improve my knowledge.	16
Blogs improve grammar.	13
Blogs improve my research skills.	12
Blogs improve critical thinking skills.	10
Blogs are not useful.	7

Table 1 (ctd.)

Benefits of the Blogs	N
Commenting on the blog is useful.	3
Receiving feedback from the teacher is faster on the blog than	3
Blogs take less time than writing by hand.	1
There is no risk of losing blogs as they are not exam papers.	1
Receiving feedback from the teacher is faster on the blog than	3
Blogs take less time than writing by hand.	1
There is no risk of losing blogs as they are not exam papers.	1
Blogs have a lot of advantages.	1
Total	145

As seen in Table 1, students find blogs helpful to improve their writing, vocabulary and reading skills. Students also find blogs useful to improve their knowledge and as they translate this word from Turkish, it is logical to say that they state their knowledge of English is facilitated by blogs. In addition, critical thinking skills and research skills are skills that were stated to be improved by blogs. It is also interesting to see that blogs' contribution to the concentration of the students was also mentioned in the study.

In addition to the benefits of the blogs mentioned in Table 1, students also stated some challenges on the blogs. It is interesting to see in the results that although students agree on some benefits of the blogs, the challenges are varied and students stated many different challenges in their answers. These challenges vary according to student profile namely level of proficiency, interests, learning styles and multiple intelligences of the students. It is important to consider the challenges shown in Table 2 in order to address each and every student and different learning styles while using blogs:

Table 2

Challenges of the Blogs	N
Blogs are a problem when the internet connection is slow.	9
It takes time to organize my ideas and find a topic to write on the	9
I cannot find enough time to write on the blog.	8
There is no challenge.	6
It is a waste of time.	6
It is hard to write more than one comment.	4
Sometimes, it is hard to understand what teacher means on the	3
I have to try hard to be better than the other students on the blog.	3

Table 2 (ctd.)

Challenges of the Blogs	N
It is hard to read the passages again and again to write a comment	3
I have to write a comment on the blog even though I do not like the	2
I cannot find ideas to write in a short time.	2
I am not interested in blogs.	2
I write a comment on the blog for my grades even though I do not	2
There are too many tasks to complete.	2
Topics are sometimes boring.	2
When I have difficulty in finding correct grammar structure and vocabulary, writing a	1
I get bored in reading classes.	1
It is hard for me to understand the topic and comment on it. Sometimes, I do not have	1
I have difficulty in finding a topic.	1
I have difficulty in writing a comment when the topic is hard.	1
Sometimes, it is hard to imagine.	1
I often make spelling mistakes on the blog.	1
I get a low grade even though I do everything that I am supposed	1
We should do the homework by pen and paper.	1
It is difficult for us when the number of blog comments that we	1
Unknown words are big challenge on the blogs.	1
Total	74

As seen in Table 2, some of the answers of the students are related to proficiency level while some of them are about blogs' being time consuming and out of their interest. It is also important to state that although internet connection are taken for granted by many people, students are still facing some problems about internet connection while they are doing their homework on the blog. In addition, when we consider their answers, it is appropriate to say that they find blogs challenging partly because they want to do better on the blog as they stated that it takes time for them to organize their ideas, find correct words and grammar structure on the blog and most importantly, they stated that they have to try hard to be better than the other students on the blog. Therefore, although several challenges such as the number of the blog entries, the topics, grading system of the blogs and the workload of the students should be taken into consideration, it is interesting to see that some challenges faced by the students are because they want to do better than other students on the blog.

On the other hand, when students were asked to write their suggestions to improve blogs, they have suggested many different solutions that can be applicable while using blogs in English language teaching classes. When we look at students' suggestions about the blogs, we see that there are a great number of suggestions about grading of the blogs. While some students (7) believe that blogs should not be graded, some students (2) stated that the percentage of blogs on their grades should be increased. In addition, the other common topic among students' answers is the topics they should write on the blogs. Some of the students (2) stated that topics can be more interesting and some of the students (3) suggested to do more research on the internet and to write about the news they read. Writing about the news on the blogs can be a good idea to apply in English language classes as this is already what students do on Facebook or Twitter and this suggestion can make blogs a more interesting and attractive for students. Table 3 shows many more examples of students' suggestions to improve blogs.

Table 3

Suggestions to Improve Blogs	N
Blogs should not be graded.	8
We can have more reading and more blog comments.	5
Students should not write this much on the internet.	4
Teachers can write an example for each topic.	3
Blogs should not be used.	3
We should write blog comments on every passage we read.	3
Students can be encouraged to do more research and to write about some news on the	3
They are good enough for us now.	2
Teachers should be more careful while giving grades on the blogs.	2
Writing only one paragraph can be better on the blog.	2
I want to learn the level of my blogging skills.	2
Blogging is perfect.	2
Topics can be more interesting.	2
The percentage of blogs on our grades should be increased.	2
We should pictures and videos as well.	2
I believe our teachers do their best to improve blogs.	2
There should be a word limit for blog comments.	1
More writing practice can improve our grades.	1
Students can discuss the topics in the class as well as blogs to	1
There should be more than one topic on the blog.	1
We can have more time to write on the blogs.	1
Blogs are not useful.	1
We should use traditional methods instead of blogs.	1
Students should give feedback to each other and they should add	1
We should be free to choose the topic we comment on.	1
Blogs can be used in writing class as well.	1

When we compare Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3, we can clearly see that the number of the benefits (145) that students stated is far more than the number of the challenges they mentioned and the suggestions they brought (56). Students stated that blogs improve a lot of skills such as writing, critical thinking, research, vocabulary, grammar and they are useful for getting quick feedback from the teacher. Excessive number of

the items that are related to the advantages of the blogs shows that blogs are useful tools to support students' learning experience and it can be effectively used in reading classes to help students reflect on what they have read on the class and to give feedback to students about their comments and how reflective they were on the blogs. Besides, it is a very efficient tool to integrate reading and writing skills and creating a platform for students to practice both. On the other hand, there are still improvements that can be made on the blogs. Two important issues to pay attention on the blogs are grading and choice of topics. As grading is a crucial issue for students' performance, it is important to grade blogs in a way which satisfies both teacher and students. Expectation of the teacher on the blog should be clearly informed to students so that students because the result of the present study shows that there are students stating they get a low grade even though they do all the requirements on the blog and suggesting that teacher should be more careful while grading the blogs. Therefore, grading is an important issue to handle on the blogs. In addition, the choice of topics is important as when students do not find the topic interesting, they have difficulty to write something on it. A good strategy to solve this problem can be suggesting more than one topic to write on the blog and as students stated they can also write about the news they read on the internet. To summarize, blogs have several benefits that make them a handy tool for English language teaching, and it has also some challenges that can vary from one class to another. This brings us the notion that as every class has its own needs and skills, every class blog should be shaped according to these needs and skills and its rules should be designed to address the learning skill of the each student and to make the class blog an effective learning environment for every member of the class.

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Teaching Gender and Language in the EFL Classroom in the Arab World: Algerian Students' Awareness of Their Gender Identities from New Perspectives.

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Abstract

Gender and language is a moot and miscellaneous arena in the sphere of sociolinguistics, which has been proliferated so widely and rapidly in recent years. The dawn of research on gender and foreign language education was against the feminist researchers who allowed space for the bustling concourse of voices and perspectives in the arena of gender and language differences, in the early to the mid-1970. The objective of this scrutiny is to explore to what extent teaching gender and language in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom plays a pivotal role in learning language information and skills. And the gist of this paper is to investigate how EFL students in Algeria conflate their gender identities with the linguistic practices and scholastic expertise. To grapple with the full range of issues about the EFL students' awareness about the negotiation of meanings in the classroom, we opt for observing, interviewing, and questioning later to check using 'how-do- you do' procedure. The analysis of the EFL classroom discourse, from five Algerian universities, reveals that speaking strategies such as the manners students make an abrupt topic shifts, respond spontaneously to the teacher, ask more questions, interrupt others to seize control of conversations and monopolize the speaking floor through denying what others have said, do not sit very lightly on 80.4% of female students' shoulders. The data indicate that female students display the assertive style as a strategy of learning to subvert the norms of femininity, especially in the speaking module.

Key words: community of practice, EFL classroom, gender identity, teaching gender and language.

1. Introduction (A succinct history of language and gender)

A host of threads of research conducted in the arena of gender and language studies tackled the relation between language and gender as a binary opposition from the essentialist perspective, which resulted in an oversimplification of the role of genders at the level of the linguistic practices. The most influential theories that constituted the bedrock of the early gender and language works are the 'deficit theory' and the 'dominance theory'.

The former theory expresses dwell in the fact of perceiving women as handicapped, maladaptive, and needing remediation. Besides, the 'dominance theory' portrays women as being inferior and weak in comparison with men. Its advocates promulgate the idea that male dominates females by virtue of the former's biological strength, and the latter's physical weakness. A ponderous evidence of the negative attitudes towards women's modes of speaking are detected in the Algerian society, they are delineated as callow and empty- headed. Lakoff (1975) portrays women as having been taught to employ language in ways that relegate them to subservient status in society. Following the essentialist character of the speech community in scrutinizing male/female EFL students' linguistics practices and learning process, one can easily acknowledge that the speech community (in the case of EFL learning) is split into two fixed binary oppositions, viz. groups of students who are blatantly underprivileged or deprived and the other group would be, of course, the potent and the powerful one. For this very reason, we try to move away from the bipolarization perception of gender to a more reliable view of gender identities and the linguistic performances of women and men. We have purposefully adopted the 'community of practice' framework to elucidate how students (males and females) in the Algerian university strive to mutate particular modes of speaking and phonetic choices for the sake of negotiating a myriad of meanings and gender identities when learning English as a foreign language. Accordingly, teaching gender and language from the new perspective of the 'community of practice' framework matters in the EFL education, it allows us to understand how learners readjust the meanings of masculinity and femininity, to negotiate their identities, not as a bundle of fixed binary rules, but as a tractable practice to convey their status-quo in the EFL classroom.

2. EFL Students' Negotiation and Performance of Gender through the Speaking Strategies

Studies of interruptions reveal that women and men adopt different manners in interrupting. In their examination of conversations from both private residences and public places, Zimmerman and West (1975) find that the great majority of all interruptions that occurred in male – female conversations were men interrupting women. Overall, popular stereotypes usually see that males interrupt more than females. This popular opinion stems, in sober fact, from the notion that men gain the lion's share of societal and conversational power than women and that interruptions are, by default, a strategy to seize control of conversations. The interruptions we intend to mean are those brusque and unexpected interjections which may plague the conversational flow. The results of this investigation carry a factual tone about the fact that it is prevalent in present time, that EFL female students in Algeria are more likely to hinder or obstruct the continuity of the conversation by either questions, interjections or even comments, with both male and female teachers. The analysis of the EFL classroom discourse, from five Algerian universities, reveals that speaking strategies such as the manners students make an abrupt topic shifts, respond spontaneously to the teacher, ask more questions, interrupt others to seize control of conversations and monopolize the speaking floor through denying what others have said, do not sit very lightly on 80.4% of female students' shoulders.

Besides, it is not bizarre that male students attempt to be the head and in the lead of the conversation especially with their female counterparts, but what it seems to require elucidation is the claim of female respondents that they intend to control the topic of conversation. Unlike men, this can be achieved by manipulating a bundle of linguistic and conversational strategies such as making interruptions and asking questions as empowering devices to further embed their presence as EFL students in the department of English.

On average, the results of question (3) seem to tally with the view that reads that women display a greater tendency to ask questions especially in female-male conversation. These conversations fell into a question answer pattern with the female asking the male question which makes Fishman

(1978) comments that "at times I felt that all women did ask questions". In support of this, a sheer number of teachers from different universities in this study report that female students are more likely to unleash to their questions more than their male classmates. Females ask more questions and involve themselves more often in classroom discussions. Not in all cases, but this may fall under the umbrella of their great tendency to attract attention and exhibit their educational level and accentuate their scientific background. Moreover, results of question (4) seem to endorse the view that male students tend to use questions as requests for information, whilst females employ them for conversational maintenance. 91, 67% is weighty enough to reckon that men generally share the tendency to ask questions for the natural and the conversational goal; demands and requests for a piece of information and swapping news. Our ethnographic analysis of EFL students' talk demonstrates that the great majority of female students tend to display the assertive styles which will enable them to answer spontaneously, speak with a conversational tone and volume and looking at the other person. So what we intend to mean by the assertive style is speaking to the issue, openly express the feelings and opinions, and mainly the most momentous point is to value yourself equally to others, and hurt neither yourself nor other interlocutors. Algerian women are generally brought up in a Muslim traditional environment which venerates patriarchal values, but this does not mean that women, especially educated ones tend to accommodate the image of an obedient housewife with a carrier, modern and independent women (Sadiqi, 2003). Our data conspicuously illustrate that Algerian EFL female students' linguistic agency is portrayed in their classrooms through creative and supple use of language strategies, which are per se a potent side of resistance.

3. Gender Identities and Phonological Variants in the EFL Community of Practice:

Identity merely means how individuals come to construct themselves, of course with respect to those surrounding cohorts. Gender researchers have recognized, across the social sciences, that gender cannot be assessed as fixed or stable category because this would be generalizing the myriad experiences of women and men. In this line of thought, individuals contribute in various communities of practice and those communities are nested in a host of ways with other communities. Inasmuch as these

processes of participation and interaction are continuously changing, members of the community of practice constantly reshape any sort of individual's identity, including gender identity.

The analytical framework of the examination draws on Eckert and Mc Connell-Ginet's (1992) paradigm of "communities of practice"; gender is constructed through the social practices that people display in the miscellaneous communities in which they are members. Gender is, furthermore, what individuals' do, not what they have (Wardaugh, 2009). It is a set of social practices and behaviors emanated from certain ideas about what a particular

culture at a particular moment in time reads as "masculine" or "feminine". Thanks to the concept of "community of factice", we gain the opportunity to canvass the EFL students' co- construction of the identity from the calibration of day to-day social membership and activity within their classrooms in the department of English. Along this line of thought, Wenger (1998) defines identity as spatio-temporal, which means that identity is constantly constructing in a social context and through time.

In her study of a nerd identity, Bucholtz (1999) elucidates the construction of a nerd identity in the students that she dissected. In her scrutiny, she finds that the students' identification as nerds has to infiltrate a process of negotiating their identity via a complex and dynamic set of activities and practices. Adopting the community of practice perspective as a framework to analyze gender identities in EFL classrooms, the findings force us to claim that the great majority of female students tend to access the ne plus ultra of other students (particularly their male counterparts), via outperforming in the articulation of certain sounds. In an endeavour to negotiate the nerd identity, 53.12% of female students adopt the intelligibility and the mastery of the phonological characteristics of sounds such as: /ə/ /3:/ /a:/, dark /l/, the glottal stop and especially the diphthong /əʊ/, as a suis generis of their identity, to demarcate themselves, not solely vis-à-vis other male counterparts, but vis-à-vis other females as well. Albeit we cannot confirm a total superiority of females in English pronunciation accuracy, the results reveal that the quality of the schwa /ə/ does not usually present difficulties to female students. By way of contrast, 93.66% of males substitute the accurate pronunciation of the /ə/ by the French (i, a, o) in the words (possible, woman and oblige), respectively.

Female students, at the Algerian universities under study, blatantly prefer to reinforce /p, t, k/ by the glottal closure, i.e. the glottal stop which, de facto, precedes them. A great number of male students articulate words such as cream and road with the Arabic rolled /r/, which by nature require a back articulation. Without a rapt attention, you can notice that in female students' pronunciation of the above words, the tongue is raised and directed towards the post alveolar region area with some tilt backwards. Besides, the answers of question (7) and (8) show how the learners' gender ideologies and stereotypes influence their motivation or resistance to the foreign language learning, which eventually affect their success, particularly in the area of pronunciation. This study elucidates the fact that EFL female students are very much in favor of modernity and openness to western values, in comparison to their male counterparts. The attempt to native-like pronunciation of English is per se a language of empowerment, a possibility that may not be obtainable when they speak Arabic. The low level of males' pronunciation accuracy may be interpreted as the echo of the resistance to the transformation of learners' gender identities. This study exhibits that male students are reluctant to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from Arabic language forms. By this token, learning English as a foreign language goes far beyond learning a bundle of grammatical, lexical and phonological forms of the language. More interestingly, it is a 'reconstruction of selves' (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). As reported by the findings, there is a testimony that because of what the concept of femininity calls for, female students tend to indulge in prestige variants to a greater extent than their male counterparts. Males are, on the other hand, forced by the concept of masculinity not to worry about prestige or standard rules of speech.

4. The Relevance of Teaching Gender and Language in the EFL classroom

It should be borne in mind that gender identities are not at odds with the foreign language learning process. Unfortunately, the conflicts of contradictory beliefs about being males and females fluctuate in and out the EFL classroom (in some Algerian universities), and this may inter alia engender language learning handicaps. To nuance the picture, a host of EFL male students think that learning a foreign language may often necessitate a modification of one's gender identity and performance or

denying the Arabic culture, in order to guarantee participation and reification in the new culture, which is the English one. Wishing to move towards a dynamic, not just a static analysis, and to make the argument relevant to practice, I strive in this investigation to move away from a reliance on the binary categorization and the generic fixed statements about all the students (males and females) to a more malleable and clear-cut accounts about specific groups of women and men. Within this framework, women and men construct a variety of gender identities responding to particular circumstances that come about in different loci. EFL teachers need to imbue their students with the idea that language can be perceived as constructing gender rather than reflecting it, and that this arena of research is now concerned with concepts such as communities of practice, identity, discourse and performativity. These issues need, in sober fact, to be addressed and tackled critically. To grapple with the full range of issues about gendered identities, EFL students should first painstakingly recognize that the CofP is "an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in an endeavour" (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1992, p. 464). The concept of the community of practice permits a rich, vital and supple tool for the close examination of the interaction of language and society and; therefore, "for

studies of female's and male's gender variations" (ibid, p. 465). The basic premise that the community of practice framework posits that individuals develop the manners of doing things together in the enterprise they engage in; being a family, teaching, learning, or playing music…etc. They develop the activities through refreshing common knowledge and beliefs. Of course, the communities of practice do not invent their way of speaking out of the whole cloth (Talbot, 2010), but orient to the different practices of larger speech communities, refining the practices of those speech communities to which individuals aspire. In comparison with the aforementioned theories such as the speech community one, the community of practice theory was more comprehensive which allows for a penetrating examination, because it is based on psychology, sociology, anthropology and women studies.

5. Conclusion

The current findings demonstrate that Algerian female students are in a constant process of reincarnating the selves and constructing a myriad of gender identities as they are nested in the EFL classroom as a community of practice. Teaching gender and language from the new perspective of the 'community of practice' framework matters in the EFL education, it allows us to understand how learners readjust the meanings of masculinity and femininity, to negotiate their identities, not as a bundle of fixed binary rules, but as a tractable practice to convey their status-quo in the EFL classroom. We cannot deny that both masculinity and femininity mediate the EFL classroom in the Algerian universities. Thus, EFL teachers should take the onus to teach their students that the access to English as a foreign language can be applied neither by the strict binary opposition of gender difference nor by the damaging role of stereotypical prejudices.

In an endeavour to reconcile my modest gender and education background, I tremendously believe that EFL teachers are the mediator between EFL community of practice and the communities of practice whose language students learn. One way to boost teachers' awareness is by incorporating issues of gender identities and EFL learning in teacher educational programs.

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Appendix: The Questionnaire

-Does the nerd identity have a relation with your English pronunciation accuracy?

- Can you rate your English pronunciation as good?

- Who tend to ask more questions? Men or women?

- Do you ask questions as requests for information or as a mean to maintain the conversation?

- Do you think that you should deny L1 culture to assimilate into the mainstream of the English academic discourse?

- Is it important to you as an EFL student to pronounce English in a good way?

- Do you think that females are superior EFL learners?

- Do you think that your gender identities influence your English pronunciation and communication strategies?

Evaluating Attitudes towards METU-Online: A Study of Instructors of FLE Department

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Abstract

Lately, through the rapid expansion of technology into the social branches of life, education has also taken advantage of the opportunities that technology provides for educational purposes. In all levels of education, the integration of computer technologies has not only been limited to the school hours but also off -school time. This recent trend is adapted for enabling instructors to share the documents necessary for the courses, promote communication between teachers and students, etc. (Lonn & Teasley, 2009). Eventually, Learning Management Systems (LMS) which are "integrated computer systems" have consistently been introduced and implemented for its most effective utilization in learning and teaching at universities (Coates, James & Baldwin, 2005, p. 19) . METU is one of the pioneer universities employing its own LMS, METU-Online to fulfill the e-learning needs of METU academicians and students. Feeling the need to reveal the challenges and benefits of METU- Online, the researchers conducted a study using qualitative and quantitative research methods to examine the extent METU-Online is used in the Department of Foreign Language Education (FLE), and to investigate the attitudes of instructors toward it. As a data collection tool, the researchers administered one questionnaire to nine instructors. To the open ended questions of the survey, the instructors brought forth twenty two suggestions on how to make METU-Online better for learning and teaching purposes in the FLE department. Additionally, statistical analysis of the four point Likert scale type questions revealed that instructors believe in the necessity and efficiency of using METU-Online actively. However, instructors also believe that there is an advancement need for METU-Online to be more practical, user- friendly, applicable and interactive. Findings of this study will be valuable in terms of seeing the needs of instructors in the use of an LMS and can help METU and the other education institutions to develop perspectives.

1. Introduction

In the last two decades, humanity has witnessed in amazement the fast spread of knowledge thanks to the technological development. While some of the people are strong supporters of this technology in education, others have shown doubts, raising questions like to what extent technology should be fused with education, whether students should use all the facilities technology offers, whether there should be a restriction on their technology employment, to what extent teachers are competent at technology, to what extent they should integrate technology into their lessons or to what extent students should be engaged with technology off-school time and what kinds of effects technology has on students ' learning styles, psychology, what teachers and students think about it. While these questions about the role of technology in education keep on puzzling people's mind, instructional innovations are continuously introduced. Consequently, web-based learning has become a distinguished implementation as one of the off-springs of technology-education marriage.

2. Review of Literature

It is well-known that the web-based learning systems have been studied not only in educational but also non-educational institutions for a long time (Wang & Wang, 2009). The same position is supported in that vein by Liaw, Huang, and Chen (2007) that the internet and information technologies are being extensively used in educational environments. This extensive employment has made online-learning course websites quite popular (Chang & Tung, 2008). In the area of learning and teaching, a prominent acknowledgement has been attributed to Learning Management Systems (LMS) for their frequent utilization in order to deliver education with the immediate advancement of instructional technology.

Learning Management systems are defined as "integrated computer systems" (Coates, James & Baldwin, 2005, p. 19) and "one of the major technological innovations to support e-learning programs" (Coşkunçay & Özkan, 2013: pg. 13). Lonn and Teasley (2009, p. 686) elaborate on LMSs as they are "web-based systems that allow instructors and/or students to share materials, submit and return assignments, and communicate online".

In most of the studies, it is supported that LMSs as implanting education technology resources functioned to assist faculty to conduct courses and design content to involve learners and manage time, thereby fostering the quality of instruction (Ayers & Doherty, 2003; Jafari, McGee, & Carmean, 2006; Oliva & Pawlas, 2005). LMSs enable instructors to save time and energy to process the classwork in a fruitful way by uploading class materials, reading handouts, assessing papers (Pittinsky, 2004). According to Coates et al., (2005) LMSs are "enterprise- wide and internet-based systems, such as WebCT and Blackboard that integrate a wide range of pedagogical and course administration tools" (p. 19). Coates et al., (2005) add a further point by stating that systems like LMSs could be used to build virtual learning environments in a campus, even to form whole virtual universities creating a new perspective not just for universities with updated systems but also for traditional campus -based universities. Pituch and Lee (2006) argued that being motivated and willing enough to make use of web-based learning systems carries utmost significance to avoid the hindrances that would prevent the practical and effective usage of LMSs. For this reason, it is pivotal to reveal the factors that influence the way the web-based learning systems are adopted to help instructors and curriculum designers in higher education in terms of facilitating their use.

Regarding this context, there have been a number of studies conducted especially on the usage of web-based learning systems. Gautreau (2011) conducted a study, the purpose of which is to examine the factors affecting motivation and analyze demographics among faculty staff in a university. The aim here is to make sense the reasons of what motivated them in deciding on an LMS used as a part of face-to-face teaching in which online courses are to be included. In this study, it is revealed that LMS use is directly related to faculty motivation. The findings of this study are in alignment with prior studies and illustrated that the usage of an LMS has a relation to motivating factors specified by the faculty. The prominent factors that motivate the faculty who participated in this study were listed as salary, responsibility, achievement, advancement, company policy, the work itself, and recognition.

Another study conducted by Hamat and Embi (2011) examined the LMS related needs of ESL instructors in Malaysian institutions of higher learning. The findings of the study suggest that the participants mostly

demand an LMS specially addressing to their needs as language teachers. Additively, communication and collaboration is evaluated as indispensable factors in LMSs, even though collaboration is placed to the second position. Also, LMSs should be designed according to the needs of the target users to be fulfilled and of the various educational settings it would be implemented in.

METU-Online, the subject of the present study, is an educational tool which was created to meet learners' and instructors' e-learning needs. METU-Online website can be visited for further information about NET-ClassR (https://online.metu.edu.tr/help/help_english/Help.html). NET-ClassR is the learning management system of METU. Since its introduction in 1997 by METU Informatics Institute, it has been immensely used. In the spring term of the academic year, 2012 -2013, nearly 25000 students and 1500 instructors are registered to it (https://online.metu.edu.tr/netclassR/viewTermInfo.do). NET-ClassR provides students and instructors with a mechanism through which they communicate synchronously and asynchronously in an educational environment. NET-ClassR offers various tools which enable learners and instructors to follow and manage their courses: Lecture Notes, Syllabus, Schedule, Forum, Online Exam, Announcements, Tips, Links, Contact, Assignments, and Gradebook.

To the researchers' knowledge, there exist a limited number of studies conducted about the use of METU-Online. While Köseler (2009) and Durmaz's (2009) studies employed students as their participants, only Coşkunçay and Özkan (2013) tried to make instructors' voice heard as for exploring the motives behind why instructors make use of METU-Online.

In this study, the reasons behind the instructors' adoption of learning management systems in higher education were evaluated by identifying the key factors and proposing a new model. For this study, a questionnaire was administered to 224 academicians, registered to METU- Online, from different faculties at METU. They concluded that belief system, application characteristics, technological factors and individual factors are significant in clarifying the behavioral intention of instructors towards the LMS, in this context, METU-Online.

In a department students of which are often reminded of the importance of employing technological devices as for reaching the learning outcomes in their after -college life in which they will be instructors as well, exploring the attitudes of the FLE instructors toward METU - Online carries an utmost importance.

Based on the call for such a research, this study tried to find preliminary answers to these following questions:

1) To what extent is METU-Online utilized by the instructors of three sub-disciplines of FLE (methodology, linguistics and literature) at METU?

2) What are the attitudes of the FLE instructors toward challenges and benefits of using METU-Online?

3) What are the suggestions of the FLE instructors about how to improve METU-Online for teaching and learning purposes in the FLE department?

3. Methodology

In this study, the mixed methods research was used as it involves both quantitative and qualitative data since it provides an in-depth comprehension of the phenomenon which is the subject of the study and compensates for the drawbacks of the only one method to validate the findings (Sandelowski, 2003).

3.1. Participants

The aim of the present study is to analyze the instructors' use of METU-Online and their attitudes toward it. The department of FLE is composed of three different sub-disciplines: methodology, linguistics and literature, which offers an opportunity to the researchers as to exploring the needs and opinions of instructors in the same department from a broader panorama. Therefore, the number of the participants from each sub-discipline was kept equal. Three instructors from each discipline were included in the study, yielding 9 instructors in total.

The mean of the courses the instructors offered through the spring semester in the 2012 -2013 academic year, in which the study was

conducted is 3, 67 while the mean of the courses METU-Online was used is 3, 56. This statistics clearly show that in almost all the courses given in the term the instructors used METU-Online.

Almost all the instructors who participated in this study have teaching experience and have been using computers for more than 10 years. Four of the instructors who participated in this study have taken a formal training or attended a workshop or conference on computer and internet technologies. Almost all the participants use computers more than four hours a day.

In terms of METU-Online use, five of the participants have been using METU-Online for more than four years while four of the participants between 2-4 years. In addition, three participants use METU-Online for more than six times a week, four of them use 3 -6 times a week, one of them uses 1-3 times a week and one of them said that it is not applicable since this participant indicated that s/he uses METU-Online 1-2 times just at the beginning of each semester.

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, the data gathering tool is a questionnaire which enables the researchers to collect a huge number of data "in a systematic and disciplined way" from a large number of participants (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 101). The comprehensive questionnaire includes three sections: questions about instructors' demographics, statements on use/benefits/challenges of METU- Online, questions regarding how to improve METU-Online. The section on the use/benefits/challenges of METU-Online is designed via four-point Likert scale with values ranging from 1 to 4. The scorings for the statements were as follows: Strongly Agree = 4, Agree= 3, Disagree = 2, Strongly Disagree= 1.

3.3. Data Anal ysis Methods

In this study both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered and analyzed. Qualitative data via open-ended questions were coded by the two researc hers in order to increase the reliability of the analysis. The quantitative data collected from the questionnaire were statistically analyzed using SPSS, version 17.0. Descriptive statistics were calculated. For the four-point Likert scale questions in the use, benefits and challenges

part, frequency was computed. With regard to how many courses participants were teaching and in how many of them they were using METU-Online, mean was calculated.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. The reasons why participants use METU-Online

The majority of the participants (p=88, 9) stated that they are using METU-Online to share lecture notes with the students, which is the mostly indicated reason by the instructors. Apart from that, the instructors stated they use METU-Online to communicate with the students (p=11, 1), use the email list (p=33, 3), track the students (p=11, 1), use forum (p=22, 2), reach the archive of the old courses (p=11, 1), announce the grades(p=22, 2) and updates of the courses(p=11, 1), give assignments(p=11,1), and post the useful links of the sites(p=11, 1). In addition, one participant mentioned that s/he uses METU-Online since it is reliable and practical (p=11, 1). Percentages of the instructor use of METU-Online indicate that majority of the instructors do not use most of the tools frequently. They generally use METU-Online to share the course materials with the students.

4.2. Frequency in use of METU-Online tools

Analyzing the statistics it is clearly shown that the tools which were mostly used by the instructors are lecture notes (88, 9%), announcements (55, 5%), email list (77, 8%), gradebook (55, 5%) while syllabus (33, 3%), schedule (11, 1%), forum (11, 1%), online exam (11,1%), student tracking (44, 4%), tips (11, 1%), links (33, 3%), contact (22,2%), and assignments (44, 4%) are the least used tools of METU-Online.

4.3. Participant's responses to use/benefits/challenges of METU-Online

In order to explore FLE instructors' attitudes toward METU-Online, the survey questionnaire which has four-point Likert type questions is divided into three subheadings: 1) The extent METU-Online is utilized, 2) benefits of METU-Online, and 3) challenges of METU-Online.

4.3.1. The extent METU-Online is utilized

The responses of the participants (p=88, 9) mostly illustrated that the majority of the instructors actively use METU-Online for their courses although 77, 8% of the instructors stated that they often run into technical problems. All of the instructors believed in the necessity and sufficiency of METU-Online for their courses, and they expl ained that they do not use a different learning support system such as blogs, wikis, and drives.

In addition, the instructors thought that the course content and the tools are the predictive factors for the extent of their METU-Online use. 88, 9% of the participants stated that the duration of their use of each METU-Online tool depends on the tool itself. Also, more than half of the participants (p= 55, 5) believed that the extent of their METU-Online use differs according to the course content while the rest of the participants (p=44, 4) state just the opposite.

The instructors believed that they need a learning management system like METU-Online to manage their courses online; thereby, they use METU-Online actively for each lesson although they stated that they run into technical problems frequently. Additively, they supported the idea that they use some of the tools more than the others according to their purposes.

.3.2. Benefits of METU-Online

Most of the instructors believed in the benefits of the METU-Online. They thought that METU-Online is very useful since it provides access to class materials (p=88, 9) and a better organized course content (p=77,7). Moreover, it addresses the diverse needs of its users (p=77, 7), it is easy to use and upload materials (p= 66, 7), applicable and adaptable to each course (p=77, 8), and it also enhances the autonomous learning (p=66, 7). In addition, the instructors believed that thanks to METU-Online, they can reach the students at any time they need (p=77, 7) and do not waste time with clerical work like photocopying (p=77,8).However, for one of the instructors, some of these items were not applicable since s/he did not frequently use METU-Online for the whole semester. These items that were not applicable to one of the instructors are related to METU-Online's usefulness, namely, its tools being easy to adapt and apply for each course,

its enhancing the communication among its users and reducing time for clerical works.

From the results obtained, it is clear that the instructors made use of METU-Online for its usefulness and practicality in organizing their courses.

4.3.3. Challenges of METU-Online

The responses of the participants implied that the instructors feel competent enough to use the functions and services of METU-Online (p=77, 8); therefore, further technical assistance is not necessary (p=66,6). On the other hand, they thought that some functions of METU-Online is time consuming and irritating (p= 55, 5) and it is hard to navigate among the tools (p= 44,4) although the number of the participants who stated the exact opposite is also very high. More than half of the participants agreed on that METU-Online, besides its being not motivating and well-designed enough (p=55, 5), does not meet the course purposes from time to time and falls behind the advancements in technology (p=66, 6). Also, the majority of the instructors (p=77, 8) stated that they cannot upload all the course materials since METU - Online does not permit the video and audio uploads. It is pretty clear from this result that the instructors were not aware that METU-Online permits video or audio uploads. Three of the participants stated:

> "METU-Online should be developed further to allow uploading video and audio materials." Participants 2 and 3

> "It would be useful to be able to upload videos." Participant 9

This shows that the tools of the METU-Online were not used effectively and frequently.

The statement on which all the instructors agreed presented that METU-Online does not put a physical distance between instructors and students; therefore, it does not create a face -to-face communication problem between both parties.

4.4. Participant suggestions for how to improve METU-Online

According to the analysis results of this section, the suggestions to improve METU-Online mentioned by the instructors (n=9) are mentioned below:

The participants (n=3) stated that METU-Online should have a more attractive and colorful design with more visuals and it should allow uploading videos and audios. The participants (n=3) also mentioned that help page should be improved for its users intending to solve the problems. On this issue two of the participants stated:

> "The web page is not at all user-friendly. There is no live (online or via emails) help. A hotline needs to be installed." Participant 7

> "Help page should be improved for the instructors and learners." Participant 2

Another suggestion mentioned by the participants (n=2) is that student tracking should be improved and made more detailed with downloadable log files. For instance, which items and how many of them are accessed by the students should be seen by the instructors. In addition, the notification emails should be sent to the students for the recent changes and uploads (n=2). Also, the participants (n=2) stated the student IDs should be integrated with the student photos and the uploading process of the documents should be made easier and simpler. One of the participants stated that both the instructors and students should be given formal training on how to use METU-Online. Although only one participant indicated this suggestion, the researchers themselves as students of METU wanted to include this suggestion to the paper considering its importance.

As it can be seen above, mostly mentioned suggestions by the instructors are summarized. Considering the suggestions, METU-Online needs improvement for the instructors to manage their courses online under updated and practical conditions.

With regard to the suggestions, the researchers could highlight that instructors demand for training, resolutions of technical problems, a more interactive and engaging environment and changes in its design.

5. Conclusion

The present study tries to investigate perceptions about the LMS of Middle East Technical University, namely METU-Online, at a departmental level, in the Department of Foreign Language Education, by including the instructors of three different sub-disciplines of FLE. The answers to the following questions: to what extent METU-Online is utilized, what instructors think about using METU-Online, about challenges and benefits of its use were collected through a questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to nine instructors and was composed of four-point Likert scale items with which participants agreed or disagreed and open-ended questions which were formulated to gain participants' suggestions for how to improve METU-Online. The results indicated that participants believed METU-Online is quite beneficial although it has some challenges which need to be dealt with. As for suggestions on how to improve METU-Online, participants stated numerous proposals, varying from its design which can be more attractive and colorful to a demand for more effective technical assistance.

Although the present study claims that it was carried out at the departmental level, there is a limitation which should be highlighted. The number of the instructors who participated in the study could have been increased, in this way; a more comprehensive input can be gathered from the participants. Additively, since this study was conducted at FLE department, further studies can be replicated in other departments in order to seek for their own needs and suggestions for METU-Online.

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Using Web 2.0 Tools to Teach Corpus Based Lexico-Grammar

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Abstract

It is a fact that language learning has gained another dimension with the introduction of technology as a learning tool. The use of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) in the classroom can be said to ease the job of the teacher to a certain extent. One of the practicalities of CALL could be the application of web 2.0 tools in teaching lexico grammar to language learners.

Since teaching young learners requires a curriculum that does not heavily rely on grammar, but not without grammar itself, technology can serve as an ideal tool, for it provides input without raising the grammatical knowledge to the consciousness level of the learner. The aim of this study is to show an application of using web 2.0 tools to teach lexical bundles as lexicalization patterns (Talmy, 1991); namely, the verbs and their collocating particles. The British National Corpus has been used to provide the concordance data for the collocating particles of the verbs, and the educational material has been designed using web 2.0 tools (e.g. cartoon softwares, portfolios, e-books).

The study has been conducted on 40 students at a private university on the experimental group, with the control group being given no treatment. The findings after the achievement test of the same lexico grammar content reveal that students of the experimental group have benefitted form the application, and that there is a meaningful difference between the achievement levels of the learners of experimental and control groups.

1. Introduction

It is a fact that language learning has gained another dimension with the introduction of technology as a learning tool. The use of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) in the classroom can be said to

ease the job of the teacher to a certain extent. One of the practicalities of CALL could be the application of web 2.0 tools in teaching lexico-grammar to language learners.

Moreover, Corpus as a collection of running text stored electronically offers an advantage to the language teacher in the classroom. The combination of these two practicalities has brought about some innovative applications in language teaching, and has introduced new, exploratory teaching experiences for the parties involved in language.

Since young learners are classified to be holistic learners who basically learn from chunks, the language teaching for this group mainly relies on skills rather than basic components of the language such as grammar and vocabulary. In this respect, the curriculum is designed such that it does not heavily rely on grammar, but not without grammar itself, at least as the implicit acquisition of the sentence structure. Under the circumstances, technology can serve as an ideal tool, for it provides input without raising the grammatical knowledge to the consciousness level of the learner. In the same vein, the same procedure can be used for teaching lexico-grammar to adults, despite the fact that this group of learners is featured as analytical learners.

Therefore, the aim of this study is to show an application of using web 2.0 tools to teach lexical bundles (lexico-grammar hereafter) in the corpus (in our study, British National Corpus) (see the References) as lexicalization patterns (Talmy, 1991); namely, the verbs and their collocating particles as well as other word class items. The basic assumption is that teaching lexico-grammar through semantic prosody principle can be applied to both groups of learners without much concern about the age factor, and that the triangle of disciplines of linguistics as the basic ground, corpus as the database for teaching lexico-grammar and web 2.0 tools as technology innovations make contemporary language classrooms extremely outstanding compared to those with traditional modes of language teaching.

2. Corpus, Semantic Prosody, and Lexico-Grammar

Although they all seem relatively independent, in practice, the terms, “linguistics”, “technology” and “corpus” can be gathered together, the

output of which inspires the innovative language teaching. Since language teaching is not an end in itself; it borrows means from other sources that can be adopted for the classroom practice.

2.1. The Use of Corpus in Language Teaching

In broader terms, O'Keefe et al., (2007) define a corpus as a compilation of texts that is stored on the computer relying on a principle. More specifically, corpus linguistics serves as a field which ELT (English Language Teaching) as well as other disciplines can exploit for better practice. According to Biber et al. (1998), corpus-based analysis has the features of being empirical, analyzing the real patterns of use in natural texts, utilizing a large and systematic collection of natural texts, making use of computers for analysis through automatic and interactive ways, and depending on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques. These essential features of the corpus research lay the foundation for the use in the classroom. This can be done by making a connection between classroom practice and the theory of corpus linguistics. Römer (2008, p.84) states, it would suggest that they ask themselves what they know about the circumstances of teachers and that they focus more on the interface of corpus research and teaching practice. It also remarks that the crucial task in this situation is to explore what could be done for language teaching practitioners.

The basic function of the corpus language teachers can use is that it has a large sum of data to be brought to the attention of the learner. Huang (2011) underlines the fact that researchers have determined the data of the corpus as their resources which supply descriptive views suitable for the way people use the language and as a means that make it possible for teachers and learners to analyze both the way different language forms are used at various levels of formality, and the way language fulfills many speech functions across contexts. Moreover, Granath (2009) draws attention to the fact that integrating corpora into language lessons can have many purposes, the most crucial of which, could be to let students come across 'authentic language' instead of created examples. Besides, corpora are invaluable for teachers in that they can be used in many ways such as producing exercise, showing variation in grammar, showing how syntactic structures are used to signal meaning distinctions, and discussing near-synonyms and collocations. For more diversity in the language content,

Conrad (2000) states that corpus-based research has consistently shown that patterns of grammar vary in a systematic way across varieties of English. Therefore, she states, since findings from corpus linguistics are integrated with the grammar pedagogy; the variety of the register will become a crucial part of grammar tasks and materials.

In practice, if specified by the language teacher, the corpus can be used for many fields of language teaching such as grammar, vocabulary, and the combination of both, lexico-grammar. Stubbs (2008) emphasizes, the main findings that have resulted from the "vastly expanded empirical base" (Kennedy, 1998, p. 204, cited in Stubbs, 2008) which is supplied by the corpora concern the association patterns that relate item and context in an inseparable way. These are lexico-grammar units as the items that frequently (or never) co-occurs within the scope of a few words, and style and register as what frequently (or never) co-occurs in texts.

As regards corpus and grammar, Conrad (2000, p. 548) remarks that three changes which are prompted by corpus based research have the potential to revolutionize the grammar teaching.

1. Register specific descriptions of English grammar will take the place of monolithic descriptions

2. The teaching of grammar will become more incorporated into the teaching of vocabulary.

3. Emphasis will change from grammatical precision to suitable conditions of use for other grammar productions.

This innovative approach to grammar teaching is also supported by O'Keefe et al., (2007) who state that as a corpus strategy, when looking at concordance lines, a "lexico-grammatical profile" of a word and its contexts can be created. This profile describes typical contexts in terms of collocates, chunks and idioms, syntactic restrictions, semantic restrictions, prosody and other relevant and recurring features. In the same vein, Conrad (2000), highlights the integration of grammar and vocabulary, and states that corpus based studies of grammatical features suggest complex connections between grammar and the lexicon. This lexico-grammatical connection is shown through the association between specific verbs as

their lexical choice, and two types of complement clauses in speech. Conrad (2000) also emphasizes that such lexico-grammatical findings propose that specific constructions of grammar should be taught as related to lexical items in the case that the complement clauses should be associated with its preferred verbs. Likewise, vocabulary teaching can be considered to be in the same line as grammar teaching. In other words, it would be possible for the teacher to consider the possible structures that co-occur with specific word by observing data from the corpus.

2.2. Semantic Prosody and Lexicalization Patterns

As the scope of this study involves integrating corpus-based research into language teaching and the approach it has adopted is a linguistic point of view to analyze the lexico- grammatical units in the corpus, semantic prosody or semantic preference emerges as the key issue.

To Evans (2006), the traditional view of meaning-construction assumes that words have sense units, or 'meanings', which are commonly perceived as static 'lexical entries', and these entries are thought to be tagged with syntactic, semantic and morphological properties. She also states that the traditional view of meaning construction assumes the lexical entries to combine together with the grammatical structure of the sentence in order to produce sentence-meaning; namely, 'proposition' as it is known technically. This property of the language that enables the 'integration' of word 'meanings' with sentence structure producing sentence meaning is referred to as the principle of compositionality. However, she underlines that there are some clashes of thought as to the word behavior in this straightforward manner as considered in the traditional fashion (Clark, 1983; Coulson, 2000; Croft, 2000, Evans & Green, 2006; Sweetser, 1999, cited in Evans, 2006). She further clarifies the point stating that the meaning associated with a word in a given utterance seems to be a function of the specific 'linguistic context in which it is embedded'. This can be interpreted as that word meaning has a semantic contribution which is sensitive to and dependent on the context it produces partially.

As the context is considered to be the basis for semantic relations, meaning based interactions in the context becomes the key issue. Zethsen (2006) cites Sinclair (1996) stating that he proposes the hypothesis that units of meaning are largely phrasal, and the model Sinclair suggests

consists of four types of co- occurrence relations as is stated by Stubbs (2001b, p. 64, cited in Zethsen, 2006) in extended lexico-semantic units, being collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. Relying on the examples from Stubbs (2001b, p. 64, cited in Zethsen, 2006), Zethsen (2006) gives a brief definition of these extended semantic units. To Zethsen (2006), collocation is the frequent co-occurrence of word forms, and these verb forms are directly observable in textual data; colligation is the co-occurrence of grammatical choices, a one step more abstract phenomenon than collocation, for it is the outcome of long sequences of analysis. On the other hand, semantic preference is a lexical set that occurs as collocates sharing a semantic feature such as words from the same lexical field e.g. large number, scale, part, amounts, etc., and semantic prosody, being word forms that are generally followed by words with specific connotations, mainly positive and negative.

This study relies on the principle of semantic prosody, which is defined by Sinclair (2004a, cited in Bednarek, 2008) as follows:

> The semantic prosody of an item is the reason why it is chosen, over and above the semantic preferences that also characterize it. It is not subject to any conventions of linguistic realization, and so is subject to enormous variation, making it difficult for a human or a computer to find it reliably. It is a subtle element of attitudinal, often pragmatic meaning and there is often no word in the language that can be used as a descriptive label for it (Sinclair, 2004a, pp. 144-145, as cited in Bednarek, 2008).

Bednarek (2008) uses the term, semantic preference as a cover term to refer to a specific type of collocational phenomenon that can be observed through the examination of corpus evidence. However, the labels that are assigned to the semantic subsets that the collocates belong to are left to the analyst as the decision maker for the semantic interpretation, categorization and classification of these items. Semantic preference "is probably shared among speakers of a given speech community" (Partington, 2004, p. 152, cited in Bednarek, 2008), semantic preference is probably “context-, genre- and domain-dependent and it interacts with syntactic patterning (colligation), word class and meaning” (Bednarek, 2008).Moreover, different meanings have different collocation patterns (Bublitz, 1995, p. 12, cited in Bednarek, 2008).

As a related research conducted to see whether semantic prosody is acquired consciously or unconsciously, Guo et al. (2011) point to the acquisition of word meaning generally, and underline the fact that acquiring the semantic knowledge is not a one-to-one word mapping process, nor is it a once- and- for- all learning event. As another concept of semantic preference specified to verb meaning and its reflections on the syntax is by Talmy (1985; 1991). He shows that elements of meaning are combined both in single words and across phrases, and that they are typically combined and conflated into the verbs and verb phrases.

The starting point of this study is to see if semantic preference can be applied to language teaching by using the corpus data through discovering and inferring the word meaning consciously. Therefore, the study is based on lexico-grammar acquisition, and it makes use of semantic prosody, or as a cover term, semantic preference.

3. Methodology

The study was conducted with 80 preparation class students of a private university, all with the same linguistic background (20 of them participated in the piloting). As the teaching material, a list of the selected words of the same chapter in the course book was prepared on the principle of lexico-grammatical profile. The random search for each word (see Figure 1) on the British National Corpus (http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/) was obtained to provide the concordance data for the collocating particles of the verbs as well as the other word class items through the frequency and keyness of any item in a particular corpus (O'Keefe et al., 2007).

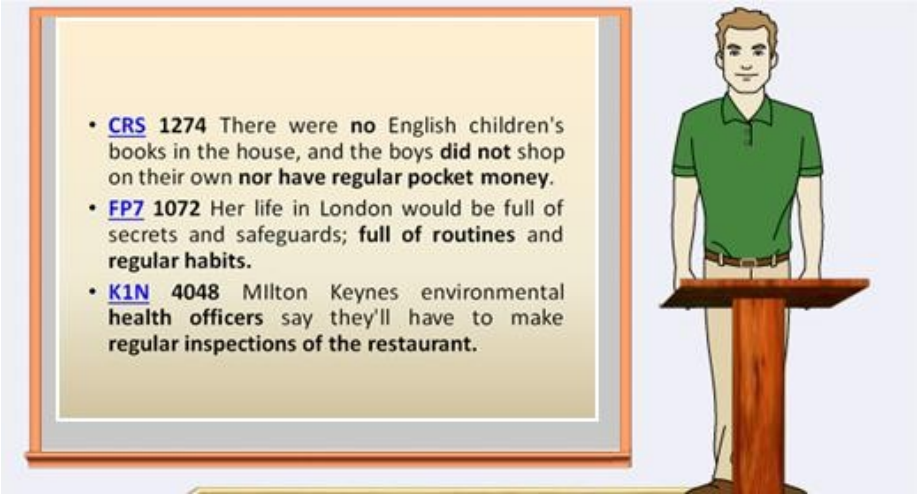

Figure 1. The screenshot of the web 2.0 tool used to teach lexico-grammar

Sample concordancing data for the target word was designed by observing the word meaning to avoid any different word preference due to variations in meaning, and thus instances that might lead to different "collocational behavior" (Stubbs, 2008). Moreover, the teaching material of the experimental group was arranged in line with the background knowledge of the learners through the piloting and the instructor's views. While the experimental group was instructed with the corpus data which was shaped as the course material (see Fig.1), using Web

2.0 tool (see the References), the control group was instructed through the usual practice of the book in more traditional ways. After the application, both groups were given a test checking their vocabulary achievement levels. The quantitative data were processed using a statistical pack, while the qualitative data were processed through content analysis, and the findings were grouped under themes.

4. Results and Discussion

Table 1. Lexico-grammar achievement test results of the independent samples t-test

Lexico-grammar achievement level	N	X	t	Sig. (2tailed)
Control Group	30	7.1667	-2.3119	
Experimental Group	30	8.1000		.024

Regarding the mean score of the control group (=7.1667) and the experimental group (=8.1000), it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($p<0.05$) as for the lexico-grammar achievement levels. Therefore, it can be seen that the incorporation of the corpus into lexico-grammar teaching serves as an effective teaching procedure.

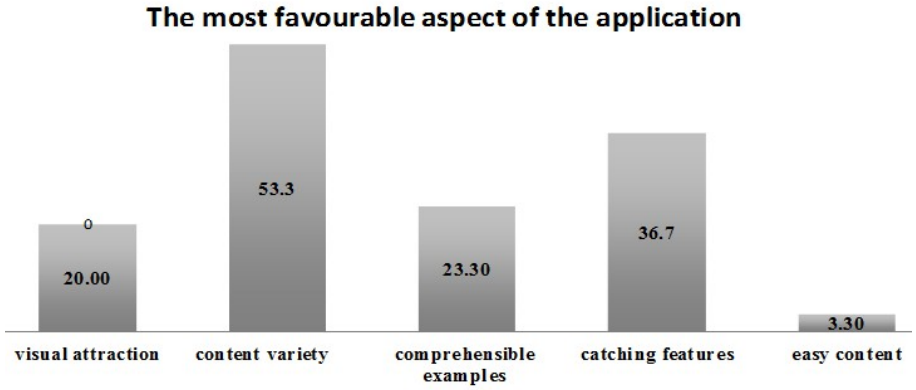

Figure 2. The range of learner views on the favourable aspect of the corpus application

When the learners were asked about their views of the features of application, as it can be seen in Figure 2, the feature of "content variety" turned out to be the most favourable one (53.3%) while "easy content" (3.30%) was chosen as favourable by very few participants, which means

that they did not find the corpus sentences easy to comprehend. On the other hand, "catching features" (36.7%), "comprehensibility" (23.30%) and "visual attraction" (20%) received average rates in the responses. Despite finding the application items deprived of visual attraction, it is pleasing that, the learners found the application to be rich in content, which implies that if given the chance, they will choose to learn new items through more examples.

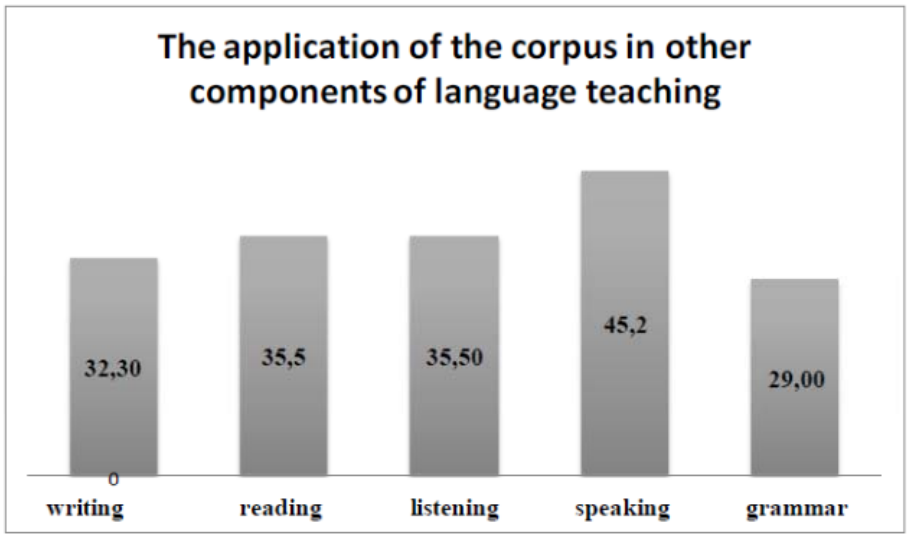

Figure 3. The range of student views on the application of corpus in other components of language teaching

Figure 3 shows the choices of the students about the application of the corpus in other components of language teaching besides lexico-grammar. While the speaking skill (45.2%) ranked as the first component of language teaching with which the corpus can be used, the skills of writing (32. 30%), reading (35.50%), listening (35. 50 %), and grammar (29.00%) were identified at a similar range.

The participants in the experimental group were also asked whether they would like to learn with this technique, and to state the reason for their response. It can be said that all of the participants responded positively, and they pointed out that the technique forced them to analyze items, make predictions, and think more. Also, they indicated that since they encountered one word at least twice, it was not hard them to recall it.

This goes hand in hand with the view that 'input' becomes 'intake' in language learning, and that learners feel they learn more easily when language is used through input enhancement (Sharwood-Smith, 1993). On the other hand, as a point to be improved, some of the participants wished that there were visuals, and in that case the application would be more effective. Moreover, some of them stated that the sentences used to guess the meaning could be easier.

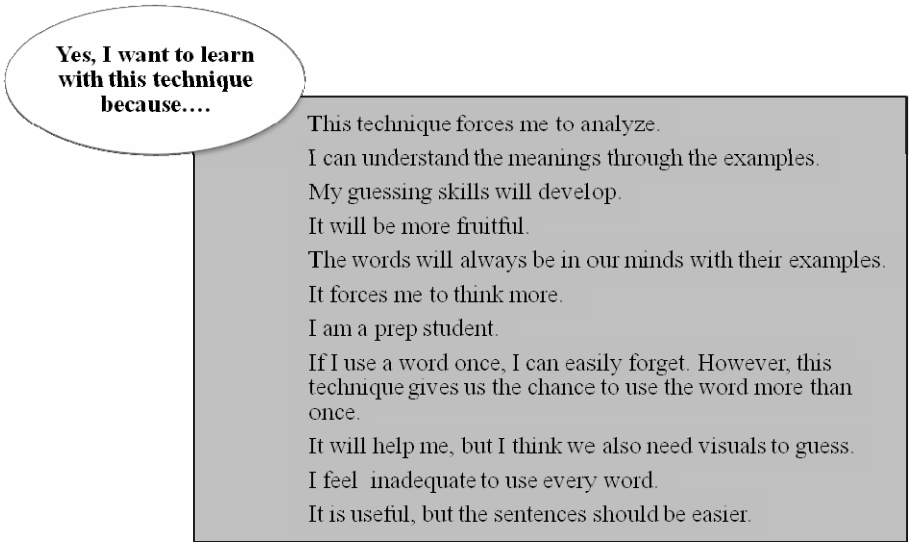

Figure 4. The responses of the students about the corpus-based application for learning lexico- grammar

5. Conclusion and Implications

The application conducted as a classroom procedure aims to highlight the outcomes of learning lexico-grammar through the corpus and Web 2.0 tools. In this respect, it embodies theory and practice by applying the theory in the classroom by exploiting the facilities offered to language teaching by other disciplines. However, the problem is that not many teachers are aware of these facilities, and that they confine themselves to traditional approaches. Therefore, if language teachers get familiarized with the rich source of data of the corpus, their classroom practice also becomes enjoyable and laden with innovative experiences of teaching.

When applied, corpus-based techniques make the teacher to feel at ease, for the learning proceeds in a smooth way by eliminating loads of work to do otherwise, such as the repetition of the same word, making artificial sentences to show the context. On the other hand, since corpus offers authentic language, it also presents the possible grammatical roots in the form of phrases spread on the sentence structure. By highlighting the semantic preference of each word, and by raising the awareness of the learner, the teacher creates a low anxiety environment, as all left to the learner is to discover the meaning and observe the possible uses of the item.

Finally, It can be observed through the corpus data that meanings of words vary across the contexts they take place. Language is not used as it is specified in grammar books (Biber & Reppen, 2002, cited in Huang, 2011). As pedagogic applications, if possible, learner lexico- grammar should be produced as learner specific corpora with a cross-linguistic point of view. As is stated by Flowerdew (1998), most of the text annotation has been done at the grammar level, and if more tagging were done on the learner corpora in the syntax-semantics interface or lexico- grammar, more observable data could be obtained.

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L1 Phonology Transfer To L2 Phonology: The Effect Of Phonological Environment

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Abstract

In the last fifty years, there have been many studies concentrating on L1 phonology transfer to L2 phonology and its effects on the production and the pronunciation of sounds. Some of these researches have shown that different phonemic status of a sound in the native and the target language creates problems for the learners and speakers of that language [Lado (1968), Briere (1966) and James (1988)]. Taking the findings of these studies into consideration, this paper aims at shedding some light upon the pronunciation problems of Turkish speakers of English in terms of the production of /w/. Despite the common belief in its non-existence in Turkish language, the study has found out that [w] (voiced bilabial glide) sound exists in Turkish as an allophone of the sound /v/ (voiced labiodental fricative) in certain environments. Since they have different status in Turkish and English, Turkish speakers of English tend to transfer their native language pronunciation habits to the target language which leads to pronunciation errors. This novel finding has practical implications for such problems and contributions to the areas such as second/foreign language teaching/learning, material development and pre-service teacher training.

Key words: Phonology, allophone, phoneme, second/foreign language teaching

1. Introduction

The relationship between the phonology of L1 and L2 is an interesting and not fully comprehended issue, which has drawn the attention of many researchers in the field. This situation led some researchers to conduct studies on the phonological interaction of Turkish and English. However, those studies concentrated mostly on the acquisition of English vowels that are nonexistent in

Turkish (Demirezen, 2006) or the difficulty of acquisition and production of [θ] and [ð] (Sarıçoban & Kuç, 2010). On the other hand, there is not any research dealing with the perception and production of English sound /w/ by Turkish speakers of English (TSE). Considering this, this research paper aims at shedding some light upon the pronunciation problems of TSE in terms of the production of /w/ as sound [w] (voiced bilabial glide) exists in Turkish as allophone of the sound /v/ (voiced labiodental fricative), revealed by the results of a test which was a part of this study.

Previous studies conducted on the phenomenon by Lado, (1968), Brière (1966), James (1988, cited in Eckman et al., 2003) have resulted in that the different status of the same phone in native and target languages, namely allophone in the native language and phoneme in the target one, is what makes the sound difficult to acquire. This was also supported by the study of Kenstowicz (1994, cited in Eckman et al., 2003), in which he examined the distribution of /d/ and /ð/, which are allophones of the same phoneme in Spanish and different phonemes in English.

In order to understand the issue better, it is beneficial to look at the distinction between "phoneme" and "allophone". According to Fromkin et al. (2003), phonemes are the contrastive units in the sound system of a particular language and they serve to distinguish between the meanings of the words. Allophones, on the other hand, are the actual realizations of those abstract units in different environments. A phonological environment is the environment in which a phoneme finds itself, that is what other sounds surround it.

Phonemes create a change in meaning; allophones, however, do not cause any change. The sounds /t/ and /n/ are situated in the same environment in the words /kæt/ and /kæn/, they change the meaning of the words; therefore, they are phonemes. On the other hand, the word tick can be pronounced either as /tık/ or /tʰık/. Different /t/ sounds, one aspirated and the other not, do not cause any change in the meaning. This phenomenon results just from the fact that /t/ is pronounced as an unaspirated /t/ before or after /s/ like /stık/ and as an aspirated /tʰ/ before a stressed vowel.

It has been observed that Turkish speakers of English tend to pronounce /w/ as /v/ in their speech. Taking this observation into account, this research aims at answering the question "Why do Turkish speakers of English pronounce /w/ as /v/? This issue has not been studied previously, which makes this research distinctive and important, and it will bring a new approach and understanding to the phonology of Turkish language.
Hammerly (1982, cited in Eckman et al., 2003) says that "…the production of native language allophones in new environments is more difficult than acquiring novel target language phonemes." Taking this finding as its base, this paper will concentrate on the environments of /v/ and /w/ as allophones of the same phoneme in Turkish and as different phonemes in English.

This research is interested in the environments where [w] takes place in medial position; therefore, it is appropriate to write down some of the environments of the sound [w] in English and Turkish.

Table 1: The list of the environments of English phoneme [w] in word-medial position

Always	**/l _ e/**	[alveolar lateral tense mid front]
Between	**/t _ ɪ/**	**[**voiceless alveolar stop __ tense high front]
Swim	**/s _ ɪ/**	**[**voiceless alveolar fricative lax high front]
Bewail	**/ɪ _ e/**	**[**lax high front tense mid front]
Awake, aware	**/ə _ e/**	**[**lax mid central tense mid front]
Twin	**/t _ ɪ/**	**[**voiceless alveolar stop __ lax high front]
Reward	**/ɪ _ ɔ/**	**[**lax high front lax mid back rounded]
Bewilder	**/ɪ_ ɪ/**	[lax high front lax high front]
Cowboy	**/a_b/**	[tense low back_ voiced bilabial stop]
unwooed	**/n_ ʊ/**	[alveolar nasal_ lax high back]

Below are the environments, where /w/ in Turkish exists as an allophone of /v/ in medial position.

Table 2: The list of the environments of Turkish allophone [w] in word-medial position

Kavun, tavuk, bavul, avuç, çavuş, etc. (melon, hen, suitcase, palm, sergeant)	**/a_ u/**	[lax low central tense mid front]
Kovuk, kovulmak, ovunmak etc. (cavity, get	**/ o_u /**	**[**tense mid back tense high back]
Avlu, havlu, davlumbaz etc. (backyard, towel, range	**/a _l /**	**[**lax low central alveolar lateral]
Dövünmek, övünmek dövüş, etc. (bewail, boast,	**/ö _ ü/**	**[**lax low front lax high front]

After looking at words and analyzing their pronunciation it has been suggested that it is not the preceding, but the following sound that plays an important role for the realization of the allophone [w]. The words avuç (palm) and dalavere (deception) can be given as examples for this situation, in which the first is pronounced with /w/, while the latter with /v/ even though the proceeding sound in both cases is [a]. Taking this into consideration, the notion environment is referred to as the following sound. Therefore, it is plausible to propose that grammar of Turkish contains the following rule:

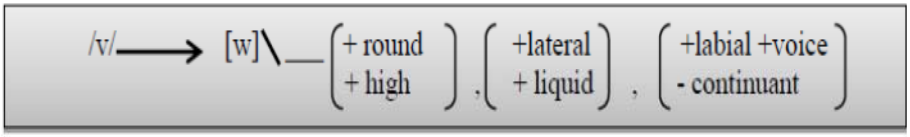

Figure 1: Structural Description where [w] occurs

It is also useful to state that these word-medial environments were defined and listed after a detailed database search for both of the languages. While doing this, the Oxford English Online Dictionary, Miriam-Webster Online Dictionary and Thesaurus and Turkish Language Association-Online Great Dictionary were used as the basic sources.

Considering the environments shown in the tables above, and the structural description proposed by the research, I hypothesize that Turkish

speakers of English will pronounce sound [v] as [w] in word-medial position in the environments where it is followed by [u], [l] and [b].

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted with 20 participants studying at Middle East Technical University (METU). They were from different department and their ages ranged between 19 and 23. Out of 20 participants, 10 of them were males and the 10 were females. Their native language was Turkish and they all spoke English as L2. 9 of the participants said that their English level is advanced, 6 said intermediate and 5 said to have native-like English level.

2.2. Data Collection Tools

In this study, lists of words in Turkish and English were used. Nokia N8 smartphone was used to record the voices of the participants.

2.2.1. The List of Turkish Words containing [w]

This list included 12 Turkish words, in which [v] is followed by [u], [l], [b] and [ü]. This test was implemented to reveal [w] as an allophone in Turkish. The words that were in the list are as follows:

Table 3: List of the Turkish words containing [w]

Kavun *(melon)*	**Avlu** *(yard)*	**Kavuk** *(quilted*	**Tövbe** *(repentance)*
Bavul *(luggage)*	**Havlu** *(towel)*	**Kavurma** *(fried meat)*	**Dövüş** *(fight)*
Davul *(drum)*	**Kovuk** *(cavity)*	**Avuç** *(palm)*	**Dövünmek** *(bewail)*

2.2.2. The List of Turkish Words not-containing [w]

This list, on the other hand, consists of 6 words that did not include the structure described in Figure 1. It was just used to show that in the environments different from the one described above, /v/ is pronounced as [v]. The words that were in the list are as follows:

Table 4: List of the Turkish words not-containing [w]

Dava *(case)*	**Cilve** *(coy)*	**Çerçeve** *(frame)*
sıva *(coating)*	**Evet** *(yes)*	**Telve** *(coffee*

2.2.3. The List of English Words

This list included 12 words, all of the m containing [w]; 6 of them were the words that did not meet the structure described in Table 3 while 6 of them did. Out of 6 words that met the structural description 4 words were nonce words. In this test, the aim was to find out the difference between the pronunciation of words that met the structure described in Table 3 and the ones that did not meet it.

Table 5: List of the English words

	Real Words		**Nonce Words**
Structural Description met (SDM)	Unwooed Cowboy		Travoose Caravoo n Towler
Structural Description non- met	Always Between	Aware Bewilder	 ---

2.2.4. Nokia N8 Smartphone

This instrument was used to record the voices of the participants while they were articulating the words. The record were later transferred to computer and grouped under the names of the participants.

2.3. Design and Procedure

The participants were asked to read the words from the sheets in front of them. They first read Turkish words which contained the sound [w], then Turkish words containing the sound [v] and later English words. The recordings were done in a silent room. All the participants were voluntary in the study and they were informed about the aim of the research after the recording was over.

2.4. Data Analysis

I assigned 1 point to utterances that contained [w] and 0 to those that did not. The results were transferred to the program SPSS version 20.0. For each list of the words, different means were calculated. In the list of Turkish words containing [w], the mean was calculated holistically since all words met the structural description in Table 3. For the list of English words, not only the whole mean but also different means for different group of words were calculated. Those different groups were the words that met structural description and the ones that did not meet it. Later the means obtained from both test were changed into percentages.

The percentages, then, were compared using paired-sample t-test since two different groups of words which are produced by the same people are compared. Results obtained from the lists were compared in order to see the relation between Turkish words containing the structural description and English words containing the structural description; Turkish words not-containing the structural description and English words not-containing the structural description; English words containing the structural description and English words not- containing the structural description.

3. Results

The results obtained from the list of Turkish words containing [w] show that there is a high percentage for the production of [w] in Turkish words. For the words in this table the results are as follows:

Table 6: The percentages of /w/ production in Turkish words

	[w]	**[v]**		**[w]**	**[v]**		**[w]**	**[v]**
Kavun	85% **(17)**	15% **(3)**	**Havlu**	100% **(20)**	---	**Avuç**	90% **(18)**	10% **(2)**
Bavul	100% **(20)**	---	**Kovuk**	85% **(17)**	15% **(3)**	**Tövbe**	70% **(14)**	30% **(6)**
Davul	95% **(19)**	5% **(1)**	**Kavuk**	80% **(16)**	20% **(4)**	**Dövüş**	85% **(17)**	15% **(3)**
Avlu	95% **(19)**	5% **(1)**	**Kavurma**	75% **(15)**	25% **(5)**	**Dövünmek**	90% **(18)**	10% **(2)**
Total percentage of all words				**87.5**				

The results obtained from the list of English words are as follows:

Table 8: The percentages of /w/ production in English words

Structural Description Met			**Structural Description not-**		
	[w]	**[v]**		**[w]**	**[v]**
Travoose	100 % **(20)**	**---**	**Always**	55% **(11)**	45 % **(9)**
Caravoon	95% **(19)**	5% **(1)**	**Between**	20% **(4)**	80% **(16)**
Unwooed	95% **(19)**	**5% (1)**	**Awake**	40% **(8)**	60% **(12)**
Cowboy	85% **(17)**	**15% (3)**	**Aware**	45% **(9)**	55% **(11)**
Towler	95% **(19)**	5% **(1)**	**Bewilde**	20% **(4)**	80% **(16)**
Cravber	90% **(18)**	10% **(2)**	**Bewail**	40% **(8)**	60% **(12)**
Total	**93.33%**	**6.66%**	**Total**	**36.6**	**63.4%**

a) The paired-samples t-test revealed that the scores of the Turkish words containing [w] (M=87.50; SD=10.295) and the scores of the English Words meeting the structural description (M=93.33; SD=9.971) are not significantly different from each other since the significance value is greater than .05. (p=.054).

b) The paired-samples t-test revealed that the scores of the Turkish words containing [w] (M=87.50; SD=10.295) and the scores of the English Words not-meeting the structural description (M=40.00; SD=23.817) are significantly different.

c) The paired-samples t-test revealed that the scores of the English Words meeting the structural description (M=93.33; SD=9.971) and the scores of the English Words not-meeting the structural description (M=40.00; SD=23.817) are also significantly from each other in which the significance value is less than .05 and equal to .000.

These results support the hypothesis of this research since there is a highly significant difference between the pronunciations of [w] in groups of words having different structural description. No significant difference was found between the pronunciations of [w] in groups of words having similar structural description.

4. Discussion

The hypothesis that was made at the very beginning of the paper, that the sound [w] exists in Turkish as an allophone, turns out to be true as shown by the results obtained from the list of Turkish words containing [w], where the total percentage of pronouncing /v/ as /w/ in word-medial position in the described structure in Table 3 is 87,5 %. This high percentage of the sound [w] shows the existence of /w/ as an allophone in Turkish only in certain environments where [v] is followed by the sounds [u], [l], [ü] and [b] thinking that students pronounced the words in List 2 with /v/ (100 %).

The hypothesis of this research claiming that pronunciation of [w] in English takes place in word-medial position where the structural description in Table 3 is met is supported by the results in Table 8 where there is a high percentage of /w/ production (93.33%). This result indicates that when TSE face an English word which has the sound /w/ followed by [l], [u] or [b], they are going to pronounce it as [w] since this is the environment in their L1 grammar where [w] occurs as an allophone. This also shows that if the environment is not met, they are going to pronounce [v] where they are supposed to pronounce [w].

It is also notable that there is a 36.6% of /w/ production in the English Words not- meeting the structural description. This most probably results from the fact that the English level of the participants is quite high (14 of them advanced or Native Like) and it shows that those participants with high level proficiency level have pronounced some of these words with /w/ since they have acquired those words with their actual pronunciation. This shows that TSE have the sound [w] as an allophone in their native grammar, and when they start to learn English they need to change this knowledge because /w/ is a phoneme in English. It seems that in earlier stages it is problematic to split the sound into two different realizations but as they progress to further stages they start to differentiate between Turkish allophone [w] and English phoneme /w/. Finally, when they are advanced in the proficiency, then they do not depend on L1 grammar any more.

Furthermore, this finding might support the Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis (FTFA) as it is stated in White (1989) "… its claims that the initial state of L2 acquisition consists of the steady state grammar of L1 acquisition, which is Full Transfer; in the light of L2 input, in further

stages of the acquisition revisions are made in L2 grammar, which is the Full Access." These two claims can be supported by the finding of this study since TSE, whose proficiency is not high, apply their L1 knowledge of grammar to L2 at initial stages and later when they become more proficient in the language then they will reduce or totally stop to transfer from L1 grammar knowledge to L2 grammar.

Looking at the results of paired-samples t-tests, we can see that there is a significant difference between the percentages of the words having different environments, namely the ones meeting the structural description in Table 3 and the ones not meeting it. The results also show that there is no significant difference between the percentages of the Turkish words containing [w] and the English Words meeting the structural description. This means again that TSE transferred their L1 knowledge (pronouncing [w] in the environment where it is followed by [l], [u] or [b] in word medial position) to L2 grammar. Therefore, the hypothesis of the research that TSE will pronounce sound [v] as [w] in word-medial position in the environments where it is followed by [u], [l] and [b] is strongly supported by these results.

When the Tables 1 and 2, which show the environments of the sound [w] in Turkish and English, are examined, it is certain that the environments of Turkish allophone [w] and English phoneme /w/ are very different from each other. As a result, this hinders TSE to pronounce English word-medial /w/ sound as it is supposes to be pronounced. This means then there is a negative L1 phonology transfer to L2 phonology. However, if the appropriate conditions are provided, that is, if the same environment where [w] is pronounced in Turkish happens to be present in English, as in the derived or compound words unwooed (from woo), unwooded (from wood) and cowboy (from cow+boy), then it is not surprising that those words are going to be pronounced with [w].

The results mentioned and discussed above concentrated on the pronunciation of the sound [w] in word-medial position. Considering the data and the results of the study, it seems probable that similar results might be obtained for the word-initial environments since it has been found that the following sound plays an important role for the realization of the allophone [w] in Turkish. The results for the word-final environments, however, different results may come about since there is no sound that is going to follow [w]. I leave this for further research.

To sum up, considering all the findings above, it can be said that there is quite a strong and significant positive relation between the words with the same or similar environments in Turkish and English, and this supports the hypothesis of the paper. However, in order for the results to be more generalizable, the number of the participants in this study should be increased and a more detailed database search should be done. There is also a need to include nonce-words which do not meet the structural description in the list of English words in order to make comparisons between the production of nonce-words and real words in English.

Although the research has some limitations and needs some further research, the results have some implications for English Language Teaching. There is a common belief among Turkish speakers (of English) that the sound [w] does not exist in their grammar; therefore, they think that they are not going to able to pronounce it. However, introducing them the fact that it exists in Turkish grammar (as an allophone) might make them more confident about their pronunciation leading to a psychological boost condition (Dalton, 1997). Moreover, while preparing pronunciation activities, we might make use of nonce-words (such as the ones mentioned in this paper) to promote the pronunciation of this particular sound. Finally, making our prospective EFL teachers aware of the existence of [w] in Turkish grammar might create a snowball effect in terms of breaking the affective filters against the pronunciation of sound [w].

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The differences between the occurrences of "*ki*" in Turkish and "*ke*" in Persian: A corpus-based approach

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Abstract

Persian is an Indo-Iranian language that is a branch of the Indo-European languages. In written Persian, "ke" (means *that*) is mostly used as a complementizer or relative clause marker. Indeed, some words in Turkish are loaned from other languages such as French, Persian and others. One of these words is "ki" that has Persian origin. In Turkish, "ki" is one of the clitics that mainly can be used as subordinator or discourse connective (Göksel & Kerslake , 2005). The aim of this study was to investigate the differences between the occurrences of the word "ke" in Perisan and "ki" in Turkish. **Method:** Since this study is the first work toward this issue, as the first step, I found how frequently "ke" and "ki" occurs and how they differ in terms of their collocations. In order to reach to this goal, I chose Hamshahri corpus and METU Turkish Corpus as my data source for Persian and Turkish, respectively. It should be mentioned that the size of these two corpora is not the same as well as their genres. Thus, in order to provide same and comparable condition for both languages, I used same size of text files from each of these corpora which was 848,378 words. **Results:** The results showed that the frequency of the word "ke" is 13,704 which has higher rate in comparison with the word "ki" by frequency equal to 671. Furthermore, the results revealed that the most often frequent word which occurs before "ke" is the verb "ast" (is) with 1,995 times of occurrence. However, the most frequent word before "ki" was "yazik" with 55 times of occurrence. In sum, the results of the most collocated words with the word "ke" confirmed the functions of "ke" in theoretical grammar of Persian. On the contrary, what the results showed as the most collocated words with "ki" seems to be affected by other factors such as adverbial or inferential constructions in Turkish. In

other words, the function of the word “ki” as subordinator or relative clause marker was not confirmed clearly by corpus analyses.

1. Introduction

Persian is an Indo-Iranian language that is a branch of the Indo-European languages. There have been three types of Persian, namely; Old Persian, Middle Persian and Modern Persian, which also can be considered as a historical development of Persian language. Indeed, three kinds of Modern Persian are spoken in Iran (i.e. Farsi), Afghanistan (i.e. Dari) and Tajikistan (i.e. Tajiki), (Karimi, 2005). The type that we focus in the current study is Modern Persian which is specifically spoken in Iran (i.e. Farsi). The word order in written Persian is SOV, however, the word order can be rearranged in the colloquial dialects. Moreover, it should be mentioned that although Persian has SOV word order, it behaves like head-initial in noun phrases (NP) and preposition phrases (PP) (Amtrup, Rad, Megerdoomian & Zajac, 2000, p.22; Karimi, 2005).

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: first, we briefly introduce Persian and the word *ke* ‘that’, which is our main focus in the current study. Then, we continue with a short introduction about the functions of the word *ki* in Turkish. Next, we explain our method as well as how we analyzed the results. Lastly, we will summarize and discuss our findings.

1.1.Persian and the word *ke*

According to Taleghani (2008), the role of *ke* ‘that’ can be explained in terms of descriptive and theoretical studies. Taleghani (2008, p.84) states that from descriptive point of view, *ke* ‘that’ can be used as a complementizer; or to introduce a relative or appositive clause. Furthermore, as syntactical function of *ke* ‘that’, Megerdoomian (2000) has mentioned that *ke* ‘that’ in Persian is mostly used as relative clause marker whose function is independent of animacy, gender or function of the head noun. It should be mentioned that the occurrence of *ke* ‘that’ as a complementizer is optional, in contrast to relative clauses in which the appearance of *ke* ‘that’ is obligatory. The last function of *ke* has been mentioned by Taleghani (2008) is as an adjunct particle, as shown in example:

1.	Man	naraftam	Alman	chon ke	be	man	visa	Nadadand.
	I	not-went-1_{SG}	Germany	because that	to	me	visa	not-gave-3_{SG}

'I did not go to Germany because they did not give me a visa (they did not provide visa for me)'.

According to Megerdoomian (2000, p.13), there are some relative clause constructions in Persian in which "the head noun is the indirect object or is extracted from a prepositional phrase adjunct in the clause". In these cases, a resumptive pronoun that agrees with the head noun occurs after the prepositions. Moreover, in non-restrictive relative clauses the head noun links to the relative clause (i.e. the clause after *ke* 'that') by adding an enclitic morpheme (Encl) to the head noun, as shown in example:

2.	Kase-i	ke	dar	an	soup	rikhte boodi	shekast.
	Bowl-Encl	that	in	it	soup	served-2SG	Was broken-3SG

'The bowl that you served soup in it, was broken.'

In addition to the functions of ke mentioned so far, the issue whether ke is a complementizer or a clitic to mark the subordinate clause is controversial (Darzi, 2005; Ghomeshi, 2001; Taleghani, 2008).There are two pieces of evidence that have been stated against the clitic function of

3.	Man	mitunam	(ke)	ba	u	sohbat	konam	amma	to	Nemituti (*ke).
	I	DUR-know.1SG	(that)	with	him	talk-to	do-1SG	but	you	not-DUR-be able.2SG.

'I can talk with him but you cannot' (Darzi 2005, 11, 62; as cited in Taleghani, 2008)

ke in Persian. The first one is ellipsis that is possible with CPs but not TPs. As shown in example , ke appears at the end of the sentence cannot be considered as clitic since its presence or absence should not have any effect on the grammaticality of the sentence (Darzi, 2005; as cited in Taleghani, 2008, p.86).

The second issue against the role of "*ke*" as clitic is the distribution of temporal adverbs in Persian. For instance, if we consider example in which the temporal adverb *hamishe* 'always' follows "*ke*", the absence of

it can lead to an ambiguity in understanding the temporal adverbial phrase:

4.	Man	fekr mikardam	ke	hamishe	u	to-ra	Dar moghabel-e	digaran	Sarzanesh mikone.
	I	thought-DUR-do.PAST.1SG	that	always	he	you-ra	Front-EZ	others	blame-DUR-do-3SG

'I always thought that he would blame you in front of others' (Darzi 2005, 11, 66; as cited in Taleghani, 2008)

In sum, in written Persian *ke* is mostly used as a complementizer or relative clause marker. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, its role as clause marker is not dependent on animacy, gender or function of the head noun (Megerdoomian, 2000).

1.2. Turkish and the word *ki*

In the following, we explain the functions of *ki* in Turkish, mainly, based on what Göksel and Kerslake (2005) state in their book "Turkish: A comprehensive grammar". Indeed, some words in Turkish are loaned from other languages such as French, Persian and others. One of these words in Turkish is *ki* which has Persian origin. In Turkish, *ki* is one of the clitics that mainly can be used as subordinator or discourse connective. Göksel and Kerslake (2005) divide the functions of *ki* into two major areas. The first one is *ki* as a stressable suffix that generally can be used as nominal inflectional marker. It should be mentioned that the function of *ki* as a suffix is not in the scope of this study. The second major appearance of *ki* is its cliticized function as subordinator or discourse connective. Göksel and Kerslake (2005, p.102) described five different functions for *ki* in Turkish: as a subordinator which connects a noun clause to a superordinate clause; as a subordinator which connects an adverbial clause to a superordinate clause; as a repudiative discourse connection; as an exclamation in which *ki* comes after *o kadar* 'such/that/so much' or *öyle* 'such/so'; and lastly as relative clause marker.

The last function that mentioned was ki as relative clause marker. Göksel and Kerslake (2005) have defined four different occurrences of *ki* as relative clause marker. The first one is *ki* as comment that introduce a cause that supplies a comment, as shown in example . Moreover, "ki" can be used as marker for either non-restrictive or restrictive relative clause, as shown in example 6 and 7, respectively. Lastly, as relative clause marker,

"ki" can follow the demonstrative pronoun *şu* to present the content of a fact, belief, desire, etc., as shown in example 8 (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.102-103).

5. Bugün hava açarsa, [ki açacağını pek sanmıyorum,] bahçede mangal yakacaklarmış.

'If the weather brightens up today, which I don't really think it will, apparently they're going to have a barbecue in the garden.'

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.102)

6. Semra [ki partileri sevmez], o bile eğlendi.

'Even Semra, [who doesn't like parties,] had fun.'

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.103)

7. Bir şöför [ki park etmeyi bilmesin], ona güvenip arabasına binilmez.

'A driver [who doesn't know how to park a car] isn't to be trusted to drive one around.'

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.103)

8. [Bildiğim] şu [ki, herkesin tatile ihtiyacı var].

'All [I know] is [that everyone needs a holiday].'

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.103)

Based on what reviewed, there are many common points about the functions of *ke* in Persian and *ki* in Turkish. However, investigation of all these common points was not possible in the current study. Therefore, our main research question was just investigation of the differences between the occurrences of *ki* in Turkish and *ke* in Persian. In other words, as the first step, we tried to find the frequencies of these words in their related corpus as well as analyzing their collocated words.

2. Method

In the current study, we have used two corpora, one in Turkish and one in Persian. It was possible to carry out this study with a single bilingual Turkish-Persian Corpus, but, unfortunately it seems that such a corpus does not exist (at least, based on our knowledge). Thus, we had to choose one corpus among other corpora for both of these languages (i.e. Persian and Turkish).

We chose METU Turkish Corpus (MTC) for the Turkish part of our study. METU Turkish Corpus is a written corpus consists of two million words that are collected from 999 samples after 1990, in terms of 10 different genres such as news, novels, story, article, essay and so on. Moreover, it should be mentioned that news genre contains 42% of MTC which is actually the biggest part in comparison with the other genres (Pishwa, 2009; Say, Zeyrek, Oflazer & Özge, 2002). For the Persian part, we chose Hamshahri Corpus which is a written corpus based on the online newspaper (i.e. Hamshahri). This corpus has two versions but the latest version whose contains more features is a collection of 323616 Text Stories in 3206 XML files that have been gathered after 1996. Moreover, different topics of news have been categorized semi-automatically in hamshahri Corpus (AleAhmad, Amiri, Darrudi, Rahgozar & Oroumchian,2009).

As mentioned earlier, the size and genres of these two corpora are not same. Therefore, in order to provide same and comparable condition for both languages, we planned to use same size of text files from each of these corpora. First of all, it should be mentioned that we only chose and analyzed the "news" genre from MTC since it was the only genre of Hamshahri Corpus. Moreover, as explained, the size of Hamshahri corpus was reasonably more than the size of MTC. Hence, we considered the number of words in news genre of MTC, i.e. 848378, as the original amount of words in this corpus study.

We tried two ways in order to extract the data of news genre of MTC, first through METU Turkish work-bench and then manually. METU Turkish work-bench provides us the opportunity to have a quick and easy search over MTC (Ozge & Say, 2004). However, it was not possible to extract one genre without any specific query (e.g., ki, ve, var. etc.) and

this leads to extract just limited number of samples and not all of them. Therefore, we had to extract the files manually from METU Turkish Corpus in non-tokenized format. As a result, the number of all the files in news genre of MTC was 419 as it was also reported by Pishwa (2009) (as shown in Table 1). Although the number of words was reported by Say et al. (2002) and Pishwa (2009), we also counted the words by using a concordance tool. The number of the words in news genre of MTC was 378. Therefore, we used this number as the amount of the words that should be extracted from Hamshahri corpus.

As mentioned earlier the original genre of Hamshahri corpus is news and it was the deal to extract only the news genre from MTC. However, the number of words in news genre of MTC is that is much less than the number of words in Hamshahri corpus. In order to deal with this second issue, we tried to choose manually almost the same number of words from Hamshahri corpus as MTC's news genre. In total, 33 files were selected only from the year 1996 of the Hamshahri corpus that contained almost 850210 words.

Table 1. The number of the words which was extracted from particular genre, year and samples of MTC and Hamshahri corpus.

	Genre	**Years**	**Samples**	**Words**
METU Turkish	News	1990-	419	848,378
Hamshahri	News	1996	33	almost 850,210

Lastly, AntConc tool was selected in order to analyze Persian and Turkish corpora with regard to our research question. AntConc tool is a freeware concordance program with the property of generating word and keyword's frequency as well as cluster and lexical bundle analysis (Anthony, 2004). Moreover, it has the property to be used in different platforms as well as different languages.

3. Results and Data Analyses

In Introduction and Method sections, we explained why METU Turkish Corpus and Hamshahri Corpus were chosen and how we reached to the number 848,378 words for Turkish and 850,210 for Persian words. In the following, we explain the data analyses first for Persian and then for Turkish corpus.

3.1.Persian

The results showed that the frequency of the word *ke* (in Persian alphabet: ""ﮐ") among 33 XML files of Hamshahri corpus with almost 850210 words is equal to 13704. In addition, we tried to find the collocations that come exactly before or after the word *ke* with regard to their frequencies among all of 13704 appearances.

In order to interpret the data more significantly, we chose ten most frequent collocations in both left and right side of the word *ke*. Moreover, we included the results of the statistical T-score for each of them indicating significant collocates that have been occurred frequently (as shown in Table 2). As the results show, the most frequent collocation word associated with *ke* is *ast* 'is' that occurs 1995 times before *ke* out of 13704 times (i.e. the frequency of "ke" was 13704). The word *ast* is a verb in Persian and means 'is'. Therefore, we can conclude that the word *ke* is mostly occurred after a sentence is finished (Since Persian word order is SOV and *ast* is a verb, it shows the end of the sentence). In other words, it is in line with what we explained in the Introduction section as the complementizer function of the word *ke*.

As shown in Table 2, the next three most frequent words besides *ast* are *dar* 'in/at', *beh* 'to' and *az* 'from' with 1693; 782 and 656 frequency of occurrence after the word *ke*, respectively. All of these three words are prepositions in Persian grammar. As explained in the introduction section, when the head noun is extracted from a Prepositional Phrase adjunct in the clause, a resumptive pronoun is used (Megerdoomian, 2000). This point is confirmed with the evidence that these three prepositions are mostly come after the word *ke* in a sentence. In addition, this fact also can be seen for the preposition *ba* 'with' that has been presented 447 times after the word *ke* (see example 2 in the Introduction section).

Table 2. The first ten words that occur significantly more often with *ke* and their statistical T-score.

Row	Collocate	Frequency in total	Frequency (Left/before "ke")	Frequency (Right/ after "ke")	T-score statistics
1	*Ast* (ست) /'is'	1995	1995	0	41,02917
2	*Dar* (در) /'in or at'	1693	0	1693	31,17503
3	*Beh* ("ب)/ 'to'	782	0	782	15,57876
4	*Az* (از)/ 'from'	656	0	656	15,09230
5	*In* (ین)/ 'this'	466	96	370	12,97497
6	*Ba* (با)/ 'with'	448	1	447	14,97126
7	*Bood* (ود)/	393	389	4	18,11553
8	*Kard* (کرد)/ 'did'	327	327	0	15,49105
9	*Ra*(را)/'object	310	308	2	8,96361
10	*Shavad* (شدو)/ 'be'	275	275	0	13,35029

3.2 Turkish

I this part, we report the results related to METU Turkish Corpus analyses. As mentioned in the Method section, we only chose news genre from MTC which contains 848378 words that were collected from 419 different samples between the year 1990 and 2000. Same as hamshahri corpus, AntCon tool was used. The results of the concordance showed that there are 671 *ki* among all 848378 words. Then, we tried to find the collocations which come exactly before or after the word *ki* with regard to their frequencies among all of the 671 appearances. Similar to what was explained for Hamshahri corpus, we have chosen 10 most frequent collocations in both left and right side of the word *ki* with the results of the statistical T-score for each of them (as shown in Table 3).

The first two rows of Table 3 show that the word *yazik* 'unfortunately' and the word *tabii* 'of course or naturally' occurs 55 and 44 times before the word *ki*, respectively. However, it seems that these two words are more collocated with *ki* since both *ne yazik ki* and *tabii ki* are adverbial constructions in Turkish (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). Therefore, it shows that although these two words are mostly collocated

with *ki*, it is somehow unrelated to the function of *ki* as an independent word.

Table 3. The first ten words that occur significantly more often with *ki* and their statistical T-score.

Row	Collocate	Frequency in total	Frequency (Left/before "ki")	Frequency (Right/ after "ki")	T-score statistics
1	*Yazık/* 'shame'	55	55	0	7.41023
2	*Tabii/* 'Of	44	44	0	5.46312
3	*bu/* 'this, such'	43	0	43	5.97894
4	*var/* 'available'	38	36	2	6.00069
5	*Demek/* 'so,then'	14	14	0	3.73847
6	*Türkiye/*	13	0	13	2.75272
7	*Oyle/* 'such,so'	9	9	0	2.99064
8	*Kaldı /*	9	9	0	2.99766
9	*Bir/* 'one'	9	0	9	-0.14118
10	*Ben/ 'I'*	9	0	9	2.92204

Furthermore, the word *bu* 'this one' with 43 occurrences after the word *ki* is the third most frequent word associated with it. According to Göksel & Kerslake (2005), the demonstrative pronoun *bu* plus *ki* ("*bu ki"*) can be used followed by a relative clause marker. In contrast to this point, the results showed that the occurrence of *bu* is mostly after *ki* ("*ki bu"*) which means that these two cases are not the same. However, it seems that the occurrence of "*ki bu*" can be interpreted most probably as the usage of *ki* for introducing a comment, as illustrated in example 9:

9. Ziya beni görmek Istemiyorm [ki bunu daha önce Söylemişti].
uş,

'Apparently Ziya doesn't want to see me, which he said before.' (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p.397)

Moreover, the word *var* 'available/existing' with the frequency of 36 times before *ki* is the most frequent word after all the items that mentioned above. However, it seems that the construction *ne var ki* 'however' causes this amount of frequency similar to *yazik ki* 'unhappily' and *tabii ki* 'of course'. This issue also happens for the word *demek* 'so/then' which occurs 14 times before *ki*. According to Göksel &

Kerslake (2005), when *demek ki* 'that means' or 'so' occurs at the beginning or end of the sentences, it has an inferential role between the sentence that is occurred and the previous sentence that already has been uttered. Lastly, the other five most frequent word (e.g. *Türkiye, Öyle, Kaldı, bir, ben*) seem to have normal functions as clitics.

4. Summary and Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate the differences between the occurrence if the word *ke* in Perisan and *ki* in Turkish. Since this study was the first work toward this issue, we found how frequent *ke* and *ki* occur and how they differ in terms of their collocations. In order to reach to this goal, we chose Hamshahri corpus and METU Turkish Corpus as our data source for Persian and Turkish, respectively. Hamshahri corpus is a collection of 323616 Text Stories in 3206 XML files which are gathered after 1996. Similarly, METU Turkish Corpus is a written corpus consists of two million words that are collected after 1990 in terms of 10 different genres. As mentioned, the size of these two corpora was not the same as well as their genres. Thus, in order to provide same and comparable condition for both languages, we used similar word number from each of these corpora. The number of the words of news genre of MTC (i.e. 848378 words) was used as the base for the number of the words that should be extracted from Hamshahri corpus. Consequently, 33 data files were selected from Hamshahri corpus that contained almost 850210 words. Then, we tried to find out the frequency of *ke* and *ki* among 850210 and 848378 words that were selected from Hamshahri and MTC, respectively. The results showed that the frequency of the word *ke* is 13704 which was more in comparison with the frequency of the word *ki* equal to 671. Furthermore, the results revealed that the most often frequent word which occurs before *ke* is the verb *ast* 'is' with 995 times of occurrence. However, the most frequent word before *ki* was *yazik* with 55 times of occurrence.

In sum, the results of the most collocated words with the word *ke* confirmed what was reviewed as its functions in theoretical grammar of Persian. On the contrary, what the results showed as the most collocated words with *ki* seems to be affected by other factors such as adverbial or inferential constructions in Turkish. In other words, the functions of the

word *ki* as subordinator; discourse connective or relative clause marker were not confirmed clearly by our corpus analyses. In brief, the current study can be considered as the first step toward future studies in this area. It should be mentioned that the lack of my Turkish knowledge was a limitation in this study that might cause misleading in some points. Nevertheless, working on this topic needs linguistic knowledge as well as complete mastery on both of the languages.

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Effectiveness Of Using Authentic Websites And Tasks In EFL Classes

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Abstract

The primary aim of this study was to learn intermediate EFL students' general perceptions of using authentic websites and tasks in EFL classes at a private university in Turkey. With this study, perceived advantages and disadvantages of using authentic websites and tasks were investigated. Convenience sampling was used and the participants of the study were 30 intermediate level students at a private university. Different data collection instruments were used. Before being given six authentic tasks, students were given pre-survey questionnaire so that the websites that they use and frequency of using these websites and demographic features of participants can be determined. After the completion of six tasks, students were asked to fill in post-survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were also conducted. The analysis of the study was done using SPSS IBM 20 for quantitative part and content analysis for the qualitative part. According to the findings of the study, students found some tasks more significant than the others. Furthermore, contributions such as improving English in general, providing interaction with real life or use of language for real life purposes, acquainting students with new information by broadening their horizons, providing enjoyment in class and attracting students‟ interests were appreciated by the students. They also stated possible drawbacks of use of these websites and tasks as homework in language classes by giving rational reasons. Students also advocated their preferences of use of similar websites and implementations in EFL classes by giving further suggestions for new practices.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

With the development of technology, language teaching materials and tools require some adaptations to meet the needs of 21st century students. As the use of technology has become a common theme in our students' everyday lives, we need to adapt our courses so that we integrate the use of technology as language teachers. We can use many ESL-EFL websites for our learners; for example, as Taylor (2009) states there is a number of acknowledged benefits of purpose-built language learning websites. However, students will benefit more from the use of authentic websites in EFL classes since learners will learn by doing tasks that are parallel to real life experiences. Furthermore, with the help of a well-prepared authentic task on the Internet learners will be able to determine their own preferences and the process of their own learning. Addressing a variety of learning styles with a number of teaching tools such as audio-video material, pictures and text, various links can enable interaction and offer multiple input channels with the help of the World Wide Web (Taylor, 2009). In addition, authentic projects can decrease the stress on the process of learning as discovery and assist students in improving necessary critical thinking skills as well as the skill of discovering the right information and enhancing collaboration (Windham, 2007).

1.2 The aims of the study

In order to maximize the benefits of instructional technology in combination with authentic tasks, we need to investigate the impact of online authentic materials in language learning/teaching in English as Foreign Language (EFL) settings where the exposure to authentic language is generally considered as to be limited. The study presented here is a step taken towards meeting this need and there was one main research question that was investigated:

1) Based on the experiences and perceptions of students at intermediate level EFL class at a private university in Turkey, what are the advantages and disadvantages of using authentic websites and tasks for language learning and teaching?

2. Literature Review

Before describing the study in detail, it is important to give an overview of the topic to provide background information in relation to the literature. Thanks to the development in technology and online environment, the use of websites in language classes is common in most of the language classes. Online authentic websites can decrease the students' anxiety and increase their motivation when students are exposed to authentic materials in a context where the pace of the authentic language input, control over foreign language and culture, online authentic websites are determined by the learners. Moreover, students can also determine how and when they deal with the authentic websites (Erbaggio, Gopalakrishnan, Hobbs, & Liu, 2012).

There are some research studies including the use of websites in language classes and students‟ perceptions after the experience of using these websites. First of all, in the study conducted by Erbaggio et al. (2012) websites were used and students were exposed to the authentic materials in French, Italian and Chinese courses. Teaching evaluation, activity evaluation and course evaluation forms were used to get students' perceptions of the process in different cases. According to the teaching evaluations, students in this course continually gave higher scores for contentment with the course compared with initial willingness for taking the course. In Son's (2007) study pre and post- questionnaires, interviews and also observation data collection tools were used as data collection instruments. This study included not only authentic tasks but also pre-created web activities including grammar, vocabulary, reading, and listening activities. The study drew a conclusion that the students' attitudes towards the use of websites were positive. Herrington, Oliver and Reeves's (2006) study is also similar to the Erbaggio et al.'s (2012) study and it included three different cases in three different courses such as "Research Methods", "North American Fiction", and "Film and Writing in Organizations".

Furthermore, Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) study centered on Business Informatics and Finance Economics students' attitudes towards authentic materials in 2010. According to the findings obtained through a questionnaire, advanced authentic learning materials were valued more by

the full-time students whereas traditional Internet-based language learning tools were cherished by the participants from the part-time study mode. (Vaiciuniene & Uzpaliene, 2012). As a result, in some studies like Erbaggio et al. (2012) study, Son's (2007) study, Herrington et al. (2007) study, case studies were done and effectiveness of the use of authentic online materials and tasks were investigated. The results were overall positive since the attitude tests used revealed that students' perceptions were positive and students gave high scores for contentment with the courses including online authentic materials. Another study included students' perceptions of using authentic online sources, which is Vaiciuniene and Uzpaliene (2012) study. As it is stated in the study carried out by Herrigton et al. (2002), authentic learning environment seems to supply assistance in the first stages of language learning and make students overcome the initial challenges that they go through in language learning.

3. Methodology

3.1 Demographic features of participants

Participants of the study presented in this paper were intermediate level foreign language learners studying at a private university and they were in preparatory school. 11 of the participants were female and 19 of them were male students. Their ages ranged between 18 and 20. They had basic computer and language skills. Regarding the time that they spent with their computers in a day, almost three quarters of the participants used computers for one or two hours and approximately one third of the students used three to four hours every day. Sixty percent of the students used the Internet for one or two hours and over a quarter of the students used computers for five or six hours a day, which implied that in general participants spent considerable amount of time online. It was necessary for the students to access the Internet so that they could do the tasks at school or at home. All participants had a personal computer and an Internet connection either at home or at school.

3.2 Data collection tools

1st step	pre-survey
2nd step	Administrating online authentic tasks + on-task forms (task worksheets)
3rd step	post-survey
4th step	semi-structured interviews

Figure 1: Steps for collecting the data

In the present study, there were four steps to collect the data. One pre-survey was used to gather data on participants' accessibility to the Internet and computers and also on the preexisting experiences of students with the use of local and international websites. After the pre-survey, participants were given online authentic tasks to expose them real life use of English. In on-task forms which were given with each online authentic task students used activity worksheets to comment on the tasks. The participants in general carried out the tasks outside class; however, teacher-researcher scaffolding was present when learners needed. After the completion of the tasks, students were given a post-survey in which students answered questions on the level of difficulty of authentic websites and tasks, contribution of authentic websites and tasks to language learning, the level of enjoyment while they were engaged in these websites and tasks, students' perceptions of importance or necessity of the authentic websites and tasks, and the reasons for their choices. Except for the reasons for their perceptions of importance or necessity of authentic tasks, students answered the questions according to a continuum (from 1: the least important to 10: the most important). As a last step in the study, there were short semi-structured interviews consisting of similar questions in the post-survey on students' perceptions of advantages and disadvantages of using authentic websites and tasks in EFL classes. Semi-structured interviews were carried out to achieve triangulation of the data collected via other data collection instruments.

3.3 Data Analysis

SPSS IBM statistics 20 version was used to get the data analysis for pre-survey and post-survey results. Some items like the frequency of using

the websites are calculated using Microsoft Excel program. Answers to the open ended questions in the post-survey were analyzed using content analysis. The last data collection tool, which was a semi-structured interview, was analyzed with the help of the transcriptions of the interviews. Again, via content analysis, selective coding was used to analyze the transcriptions.

4. Results

4.1 Pre-survey

In the study, pre-survey was conducted to get information about the types of websites the students are using in their real lives and identify the frequency of using these websites. There were two parts in the survey including the same categories for authentic Turkish and English websites.

4.1.1 Use of authentic Turkish websites

According to the results of the survey study, there were some authentic Turkish website categories that were used more than the others. University websites and social networks were the most commonly used authentic Turkish websites. 90 percent of the participants were using university websites and also social networks. However, there were some websites that were rarely used. Only % 13.3 of the participants were using Turkish hotel websites and just over a quarter of the students used Turkish hospital websites. These were the least used authentic Turkish websites.

4.1.2 Frequency of use of authentic Turkish websites

The most frequently used authentic websites included social network (823.83 times in a year), online games (359.73), university websites (125.30) and food ordering websites (84.97) while the least common ones included plane ticket reservation (1.4) and hotel room reservation (1.9).

4.1.3 Use of English authentic English websites

When we consider the use of authentic English websites, movie review websites and social networks are the most commonly used items. 56.7% of the students in the study stated that they used movie review

websites. In addition, half of the participants expressed that they used social networks in English. However, there were some authentic websites which were seldom used by English language learners. For instance, none of the participant used an English hospital website or bus ticket reservation website. There was just one participant using English plane ticket reservation website. There were only two students using book review or ordering websites in English among thirty students.

4.1.4 Frequency of use of authentic English websites

The most frequently used websites were online game websites (307,10 times in a year) and social networks (114,70) as it was the same case in Turkish websites. Websites related to hotel room reservations and bus ticket reservations were not used at all by the language learners.

4.2 Post- survey

4.2.1 Students' general attitudes toward the use of authentic websites and tasks

In order to get the students' general perceptions of predetermined authentic tasks, there was a question asking students to rate the level of importance of six authentic tasks they engaged in. Task 5 (mean: 7.30), which was choosing a book, was the activity that was regarded more important than the other activities while Task 6 (mean: 6.70) online shopping was the least important one according to the language learners. Participants' answers to the open ended questions in the post survey revealed that participants' attitudes were generally positive toward the use of authentic tasks and websites. For example, most of the participants stated that the tasks were both significant and essential by giving some reasons for their choices. One common reason was overall improvement of participants' English learning with the help of tasks and websites. Moreover, helping the daily life issues and contributing to getting information in real life were also some reasons for students' positive attitudes. Some participants also stated that with these tasks and websites, they learned new vocabulary and enhanced their comprehension of an English text. A few of the participants also gave a reason that they had a chance to contact with the real language which is written by native

speakers and they stated that in case they have a chance to be abroad, they will be acquainted with the language itself. Some found them much more enjoyable and better than the stereotypical grammar exercises. Not being difficult, the tasks were considered as important and also necessary by some students.

However, there were also some students who believed that the tasks were unnecessary or insignificant. These students were few (4) in number, yet they gave some reasons that might be helpful for further studies or applications. To illustrate, two of the students stated that fifth and sixth tasks did not contribute since the level of the language in tasks was too easy, which did not require a high level of English. Two of the participants stated that Task 3 was unnecessary and boring since they could not find what they were looking for. One of the students claimed that there was no need to work on a restaurant and hotel website since she could not go there. Another student made a comment on the tasks which required buying something like a book or clothing and stated that they did not contribute to learning English. All in all, students gave some reasons for finding the tasks necessary or unnecessary and significant or insignificant, which was noteworthy for prospective studies.

4.2.2 Students' level of enjoyment in authentic websites and tasks

One of the questions in post survey asked students how much participants enjoyed completing the given tasks. According to the findings of the study, Task 2 and 6 (choosing a movie and online shopping) were the most enjoyable activities among all of the tasks.

4.2.3 Level of contribution of authentic websites and tasks to language learning

When the results were taken into consideration, students gave high scores for the contribution of the Task 4 and 5 (getting information on a hotel website and choosing a book) more than the other tasks such as online shopping and choosing a restaurant.

4.2.4 Difficulty level of the authentic websites and tasks

Students stated that they did not have much difficulty while carrying out the authentic tasks. The most difficult activity was Task 3 which was looking for information on a university website. Two of the participants among 30 stated in the open ended question part that the third activity was unnecessary since they could not find what they were looking for. Thus, it may be concluded that students' perceptions of level of difficulty of the activities may result from the fact that the website was not easy to navigate through, which was suggested by one of the participants of interviews.

4.2.5 Students suggestions for websites and tasks

Students were asked to make further suggestions for the websites and also tasks that could be used in language learning. Participants suggested online game websites or funny websites in English. Three of the students recommended that there might have been online monthly magazine websites and journals of technology websites while some others also suggested that there could have been speaking websites on which students could talk with the native speakers of English. Students also gave suggestions for different topics for the websites such as sports, media, and art. The tasks that were recommended by the students included online games and watching videos, movies, TV series and news in English on authentic websites. Participants also stated that the use of movie reviews in class and adding their own comments could be effective in language classes. One of the students also suggested the difficulty of the activities could have been increased. As a result, the tasks and materials can be improved with the help of the student's suggestions on authentic websites and tasks by adding more difficult tasks, integrating websites providing more audio visual materials and including a website for speaking activities.

4.3 Semi-structured interview

4.3.1 Students' general ideas on the use of authentic websites and tasks

According to the findings of the interview, each and every student attending to the interviews stated that they found the tasks and websites

both effective and useful. All of the students held positive attitude towards the use of authentic websites and tasks.

4.3.2 Students' perceptions of the advantages of using authentic websites and tasks

From the analysis of the interview data, students introduced some main benefits of using these websites and tasks in language classes such as improving learning English in general and vocabulary and grammar, providing interaction with real life or use of language for real life purposes, being familiar with new information and broadening their horizons, attracting students' attentions and enjoyment in class.

4.3.2.1 Contribution to language development

Students stated that these websites and tasks contributed to their English in terms of language contents. Only one student, Participant 1, claimed that activities did not contribute to grammar or an exam like TOEFL but they helped vocabulary learning while other three participants thought that websites affected their learning of structure and vocabulary in English positively.

4.3.2.2 Providing Interaction with real life or use of language for real life purposes

One of the students stated that the tasks contributed a lot in terms of using English in daily life. When they come across a foreigner, they would be able to use them easily. One of the participants also stated that he could get information about the daily life of native speakers with the help of these websites. Moreover, another participant believed that the websites were relevant to their real lives directly.

4.3.2.3 Acquainting students with new information and broadening their horizons

According to the analysis done with the interviews, participants thought that they could gain knowledge with these authentic websites and tasks. They indicated that they got information about the daily life of native

speakers of English and they learn many different places and people from all around the world.

4.3.2.4 Providing enjoyment in class and attracting students interests

According to the students, one advantage of the use of authentic websites and tasks was that they could motivate students in class and they could make classes more enjoyable. The willingness of the students is clearly observable in their answers since they all stated that they did the activities willingly or voluntarily.

4.3.3 Students' perceptions of disadvantages of using authentic websites and tasks

Regarding the disadvantages of the tasks and websites, students did not mention any negative thoughts using them. Only one of the students stated that one of the websites was over the level of their proficiency.

4.3.4 Students' feelings while doing given authentic websites and tasks

Students gave positive reactions to the tasks while they were completing the tasks by expressing the enjoyment and the feeling of learning something new. Only one of the interviewees stated that she had difficulty in doing Task 3, which was related to a university website.

4.3.5 Students' perceptions of difficulty of authentic websites and tasks

Tasks were found quite simple by the students except for the Task 3, which was looking for information on a university website. This task was regarded as challenging by one of the participants claiming that the use of the website was strenuous while the other websites were considered very easy. Just one participant asserted that English used in websites were challenging since they were authentic. While he regarded websites difficult, he thought that tasks were easy.

4.3.6 Students' willingness to do similar tasks and further suggestions

Most of the students stated that the tasks and websites should be used in class not given as homework. They mentioned some negative effects of giving the tasks as homework stating that students could regard them as usual homework and they might not be interested in doing them alone at home. When they were used in class, the teacher could guide students and there could be more comments and discussion on the websites and tasks.

5. Conclusion

Since the language itself is a part of real life, it is essential that authentic materials and tasks be used to make students familiar with the target language. Integrating technology in language classes is vital for language teachers to bring in authentic tasks and materials that are extensively available on the Internet. Some essential issues that language teachers and researchers need to consider are what kinds of technology we need to integrate, how we can do it and how we can make the most out of it to expose our learners to authentic use of language. The study presented here aimed to have an insight into using authentic websites and tasks in language classes and to get the perceptions of the students after the completion of tasks to determine the benefits and drawbacks of the integrating online authentic tasks in language classes.

According to the results of this study, students' general attitudes towards the use of authentic websites and tasks were positive, they found the websites and tasks easy and enjoyable and they thought that tasks contributed to their language development in general by providing access to information in real world and broadening their horizons. They also stated that the use of these websites could be helpful in achieving their real life purposes. When compared with the results of Son's (2007) study, the results of the present study were in parallel in terms of students' general attitudes. In Son's (2007) study, students also found the tasks as valuable in that they could have access to information. Erbaggio et al. (2012) concluded that the students were content with the course more than their first willingness to take the course with the help of authentic materials. Moreover, students also stated possible drawbacks of using these websites

as homework for language learners in this study. Students also advocated their preference of using similar websites and implementations in their English classes. As it was the case in the study conducted by Herrington et al. (2006), the use of online authentic tasks integrated and fostered significant synergies among trio: technology, task and learner.

As a result, the study conducted here aimed at investigating the impact of authenticity in language classes through the integration of websites. Using the idea and integrating different tasks providing more audio visual websites can be utilized and the effectiveness of the implementation can also be supported with further studies that can be done with different levels of EFL learners and in different educational settings.

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The Formation Of Professional Teacher Identity By Pre-Service Teachers: What Matters?

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Abstract

Although much research has investigated the construction of professional teacher identity, the personal and social factors and emotions that contribute to or interrupt initial phases of identity construction by pre-service teachers are still little studied. This study employs a sociocultural approach and an interpretive inquiry into the experiences of four pre-service EFL teachers in Turkey. Data include transcripts of interviews and answers to a questionnaire. The participants' accounts of their initial experiences in assuming the role of a teacher at a real school/classroom setting highlight four overriding factors in professional identity formation of pre-service teachers: mentors, students, school context and practical experiences. The author concludes by situating these factors in the existing literature.

1.Introduction

1.1. Identity

Teacher identity and the processes beginning teachers go through in their metamorphosis from students to teachers have been the subject of much recent research (Hoban, 2007; Olsen, 2008; Zembylas, 2004, 2010). Clearly various factors can be influential in shaping a new teacher identity such as the school environment, the beginning teachers' own experiences as learners in schools, the classroom context, the communication and interaction between the beginning teacher and colleagues, among many others. As all these factors indicate, beginning teachers need to undergo a shift in identity in stepping out of teacher education programs and assuming the role of a teacher. However, even if it is clear that in assuming the role of a teacher, beginning teachers identify themselves with a different role and responsibilities, a clear definition of identity is not easily reached. The construction of identity in becoming a teacher is, as a

corollary, a more complex and multi-faceted process, because it necessitates not only developing a conceptual understanding of identity per se, but also investigating the various factors that contribute to the dynamic nature of identity construction.

Because identity (1) is influenced by personal, social and cognitive factors, (2) is an ongoing process, and thus (3) is dynamic rather than stable, and (4) is constantly being constructed, a wide array of ways, definitions, and methods have been utilized in the investigation of identity in teaching. For example, Mitchell and Weber (1999) emphasize the processes through which teachers constantly reinvent themselves; and Floras and Day (2006) investigate the influence of various contextual factors on teachers and how these influences exert themselves in practice. Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) note that identity involves a person and a context in that individuals make meaning of professional characteristics in their own way, and the context provides the environment where teachers can acquire these professional characteristics. The formation of teacher identity is regulated through factors internal to the individual as well as those external to the individual.

1.2. Sociocultural Accounts of Identity

Despite all these complications, certain frameworks provide us with the necessary conceptualizations that can shape our understanding of identity and identity development, at least in particular contexts. In the first place, it should be noted that identity is generally acknowledged as being multi-faceted and dynamic. For example, Gee (2001) proposes four different ways of conceptualizing identity: 'nature identity (stemming from one's natural state), institution-identity (derived from apposition recognized by authority), discourse-identity (resulting from the discourse of others about oneself), and affinity-identity (determined by one's practices in relation to external groups)' (as cited in Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Of these, I will be focusing mainly on institution- identity. Moreover, I will make use of the socio-cultural approach on identity formation to conceptualize teacher identity for the purposes of the current study. In this approach, individual development cannot be understood only with reference to the individual, but instead the social and cultural processes which exert influence in the construction of individual

mental/emotional functioning should be given emphasis. Emotions, according to this approach, are also socio-cultural constructions. Beijaard, Verloop and Vermund (2000) argues that professional identity is shaped and preserved through interactions in social situations and negotiation of roles in a particular context. Thus, 'if an individual interacts in a particular setting on a daily basis, then he or she is more likely to handle the meaning in the interpretive framework shared by the people in that setting' (Hong, 2010, p.1531). For this reason, student teachers may be expected to shape their teacher identity in relation to the interactions that take place in the immediate setting where they are educated and trained. All in all, the formation of professional identity in this tradition can be viewed as a social and interactive process.

1.3. Paraxis Shock

For most, if not all, beginning teachers, the transition from the role of a student to that of a teacher is an abrupt, and sometimes traumatic, experience. However, we know that not all novice teachers are affected in the same way by this sudden shift of responsibilities and identity. For some, the early years in the profession are quite satisfying and positive; while for others, this same period is characterized by feelings of being lost, such that many teachers decide to quit the profession before they have a chance to adapt to the profession. Upon closer introspection, it becomes evident that a complex network of factors are influential in shaping the experiences of beginning teachers, and it would be simplifying the issue to attribute the success or failure in assuming teacher identity to the general categories of 'personal meaning-making' and 'context'. Personal background experiences during pre-service teacher education (Flores & Day, 2006); organizational norms of the school and the related parties such as parents, students, and the community (Schulman, 1987); the macro- and micro-contexts that exist before beginning teachers come to the schools (Rex & Nelson, 2004); cooperating teachers, school pupils and school teachers (Su, 1992); mentoring and induction (Alhija & Fresko, 2010) have all been identified as important variables that exert influence in the assessment of early teaching experiences. Therefore, as they take on the responsibility of their roles as teachers, beginning teachers confront a wide variety of powerful forces that contribute to their success or prevent them from successful adaptation. Although some of these forces will also be

referred to with regards to the discussion of the school context (or the ecology of school), they are worth being emphasized here because they are very much related to the 'paraxis shock' (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002) that beginning teachers experience. Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002) define paraxis shock as the confrontation of teachers' expectations and the classroom realities. Paraxis shock is referred in the literature with other names as well, such as 'transition shock' (Corcoran, 1981) and 'reality shock' (Veenman, 1984).

1.4. The School Context

Actually, the above discussions of the paraxis shock that beginning teachers experience are salient in the conceptualization of the school context as well. Therefore, I will not provide a detailed description of the factors pertaining to the school context that shape the initial experiences and assessment of beginning teachers. However, the school context needs to be covered distinctively from the paraxis shock not only because not all aspects of the school context create a challenge for novice teachers, but also because paraxis shock relates to the meaning-making of individual novice teachers. I will touch upon the studies in the teacher identity development literature that demonstrate the positive influences of the school context as well as those that illustrate how the school context can add to the failure of beginning teachers in having positive experiences at the school context, and sometimes, constructing teacher identity .

According to Flores and Day (2006) the new set of norms and conventions in the school setting may conflict with the novice teachers' experiences at teacher training programs, in that they are often given the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in teacher education programs, while in schools the existing climate may not foster collaboration, active decision-making, or dialogue. Similar conclusions were also drawn by other researchers in various other research contexts. For example, Scherff (2008) investigated the reasons why two novice teachers, Luke and Toni, left the profession and found that their experiences and decisions to leave the profession were largely shaped by the school context, specifically by their relationships with the workplace.

On the other hand, research has shown that the school context exerts the greatest influence on beginning teachers' success (Wechsler, Caspary,

Humphrey & Matsko, 2010). Alhija and Fresko (2010) point out that the instructional and organizational culture of the community of teachers that the beginning teachers encounter when they step into a school, school variables, and placement characteristics all become very influential factors on beginning teachers' professional beliefs, values, and practices. Su (1992) finds that in the formation of the educational beliefs and values of novice teachers, cooperating teachers, students and school teachers have a greater influence than the teacher training curriculum, college faculty, etc. and shows that a supportive context and collaboration facilitate the assimilation of beginning teachers into the professional community of teachers.

2. Methodology

2.1. Research Context

To help readers better contextualize the participants' experiences, I begin this section by providing some relevant information about the program requirements and the practicum requirements at the Foreign Language Education Department (FLED), Boğaziçi University. The FLED offers a four-year undergraduate program in English Language Teacher Education. The basic components of this program consist of English language development, linguistics, and professional courses including foreign language teaching methodology. In the freshman year, the majority of instruction aims at developing students' language abilities; while from then on, the emphasis shifts on linguistics, applied linguistics, ELT methodology, and practical teaching experiences. The FLED students enroll in the practicum in their senior year, after they complete the courses that focus on methodology, language acquisition and the teaching of the four skills- reading, listening, writing and speaking- in the first three years. The practicum consists of 60 hours of observation and teaching at the practicum schools; of these 60 hours, 54 are allocated for observations, and 6 for teaching. Through classroom observations and teaching practice, student teachers are encouraged to reflect upon and analyze other teachers' teaching episodes as well as their own teaching. They are expected to construct a coherent and integrated body of both theoretical and practical knowledge, integrating the knowledge and experiences they gain at the university setting and practicum school settings. Each time they teach

classes, student teachers are observed, evaluated and given feedback by their mentors at the practicum schools; and their supervisor from the FLED attends three of these six teaching sessions to assess the performance of the student teacher. Through reflection papers and discussions with other student teachers and the supervisor in their classes at the FLED, student teachers attain the opportunity to reflect back on their own observations, experiences and teaching at the practicum schools.

2.2. Participants

The four participants, Leyla, Levent, Suna, and Suat (all pseudonyms), were senior students at the Foreign Language Education Department, Boğaziçi University, and they were having their practicum at various schools in Istanbul during the research study. I relied on my personal and professional networks to access the participants. Because the investigation was exploratory, rather than experimental, in nature, the selection of the participants was relatively open. Thus, I did not use any screening procedures except that I attempted to have equal number of male and female student teachers- hence two males and two females- and that the practicum schools included both state and private schools. The participants were similar in terms of age, background, academic achievement, English proficiency and various other factors which, otherwise, might have prevented reliable conclusions to be drawn. As can be seen in Table 1, I had a mix of participants in terms of gender and practicum schools, but they were similar in most other aspects relevant to the current study.

Table 1 Basic data of the four participants

Feature	Leyla	Levent	Suna	Suat
Gender	Femal	Male	Female	Male
Practicum school	Private	Private	State	State
Age	21	22	22	23
Academic Achievement	3,39	3,10	3,21	3,01
English Proficiency	94	90	96	92

*A standardized English proficiency examination in Turkey; addresses those who want to pursue academic career.

2.3. Data collection

I used a combination of sources and methods during the data collection phase. A major part of the data was obtained from semi-structured interviews with the four student teachers. I had two interviews with each participant, and interviews lasted from one and a half hours to two and a half hours. The participants said they would be more comfortable with Turkish and indicated that if we had the interviews in English, probably they would repeat themselves at times and would not be able to give as much information. Therefore, the interviews were held in Turkish and translated into English. All the interviews were tape-recorded but they were not transcribed verbatim, because due to the informal nature of the interviews, there was some talk during each interview which would not serve the purposes of the investigation. Transcriptions of all six interviews were returned to the participants. They were asked to check for accuracy and to answer additional questions which asked them to clarify and elaborate on certain issues that I believed needed further investigation. In addition to the interviews, questionnaires with open ended questions were also used. The questionnaires were devised based on preliminary findings from the two sets of interviews.

In the process of analysis, an inductive approach and the overall principles of 'grounded theory' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) were used, and substantive themes were specified as they emerged from the data. I started with intensive multiple listening to the tape recordings, transcribing the most relevant and substantial parts, multiple readings of the transcripts. In the interpretation process of the interview data, at certain times I had to deal with the issue of credibility of my interpretations. To protect my interpretations against distortion, over-generalization or -simplification, I attempted to identify and keep track of the bases for my interpretive comments. In addition, I analyzed the data according to two phases: a vertical analysis and a horizontal analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). These two phases can also be named within-case analysis and across-case analysis (Merriam, 1998), respectively. In the first phase, each of the participants' interviews was analyzed separately; in the horizontal analysis phase, on the other hand, I looked for common patterns as well as differences in the participants' accounts. This is exactly where the questionnaires came into play, because thanks to the questionnaires, I was

able to check for recurring themes, overlapping patterns, and regularities in the participants' interview data. In addition, via the questionnaires, I had each participant elaborate on the contrastive features that emerged in the interviews. Throughout the research study and afterwards, I have taken all the care to meet my responsibility as a researcher and to protect the rights of my participants by following three major principles of research ethics: informed consent, confidentiality and voluntary participation.

3. Presentation of Data

The presentation of the data in this article has been influenced by Borg's (1998) argument that a format that reflects data collection and analysis procedures would be the most suitable one to report interpretive research. As I described in the methodology section, the data collection and analysis procedures were shaped through the cyclic nature of the research study, which enabled me to investigate the recurring themes and contrasting patterns in more detail. The presentation of the data is organized around those recurring themes that characterized the initial processes of identity development and socialization of student teachers. I discuss these themes in turn with reference to the student teachers' own commentary on them, and it is thanks to the further elaboration of student teachers on their previous comments that I was able to determine the substantial themes that form the basis for the participants' identity development. The interpretive processes of data analysis around which the current study is centered can be presented with relatively more clarity thanks to such form of presentation because it serves to ensure that all the interpretations are grounded in the data from which they emerged.

3.1. Mentors

The most apparent theme that emerged from the interviews was the personal and professional relationship that the student teachers had developed with their mentors. In the first interviews I conducted with the four participants, each of them talked substantively about the impact of their mentors on their socialization processes, emotional makeup, experiences and formation of teacher identity in their practicum schools. Their individual experiences and interaction with their mentors differed significantly, such that while Suna and Leyla reported mostly negative of

their mentors, Suat and Levent acknowledged that even though they sometimes had inconveniences and nuisances with their mentors, the overall impact of their mentors on their feelings of competence and ability as a teacher was positive. More importantly, when asked about the most significant factor determining their feelings about the teaching practice and their view of themselves as a teacher, three of the student teachers replied that the mentors were the second most significant and for one mentors were the most significant.

Leyla described herself as an enthusiastic, determined and self-confident person; however, even her beliefs and emotions about herself were shook in her interaction with her mentor at the practicum school. The proposition "I questioned my abilities as a teacher" is worth considering in investigating the processes that were at work in Leyla's identity development as a student teacher, because it makes transparent the influence of the mentor on Leyla's assessment of her experiences as a student teacher: That her mentor did not have confidence in her caused Leyla to suspect her capability in assuming the role of a teacher. Suna had similar experiences.

On the other hand, Levent and Suat reported positively of their mentors. In their case, the mentors were very supportive, welcoming and understanding. They developed a strong interaction both at personal and at professional level, such that they sometimes had casual talk or were engaged in long conversations about the school context, ELT methodologies, the profile of the students, and various other topics related to the work of a language teacher. They agreed that thanks to the efforts of their mentors, they had fulfilling experiences at their practicum schools; yet there were other factors that sometimes caused them to question their place in the school context (These will be discussed below).

3.2. The School Context (Ecology of the School)

Another theme that I derived from the data is the school context, and it is the second most salient theme. The reason I treat the school context as separate from mentors and students (see the discussion of 'the students' below) is that the school context is narrowed here to refer to the interaction of the student teachers and the other school teachers as well as the existing conventions of the school. Because most of the interaction between the

student teachers and students/mentors take place during the class hours and/or in between the class hours, I refer to these interactions as the ecology of the classroom. On the other hand, student teachers may interact with other teachers and mentors (note that mentors take part in both kinds of interactions) at anytime and anywhere, and there is already a set of norms and conventions between these parties before the student teachers come to the practicum schools. I refer to such kinds of interaction as the ecology of the school, or the school context.

Suna made clear during the interviews that she tried to be polite to the other teachers and respected them, however they only wanted her to be with her mentor, "leave them alone" and "mind [her] own business". Suna attempted to form a professional relationship with the teachers, but the icy environment and the teachers' attitude prevented her from doing so. She reported that although she was very confident in the classroom and felt like a "real teacher" when she conducted classes, she felt alienated and was treated as if she was an outsider in the teachers' room. Levent's experiences regarding the school context were not very different from those of Suna. He pointed out that some teachers behaved as though they did not want him there, and some others were so disinterested that "they were not even aware of [his] existence there" (Interview 1&2).

Leyla and Suat, on the other hand, reported positive relationships with the school teachers. In their accounts, the effect of the school teachers on student teachers' professional identity was particularly salient. The interviews also showed that the student teachers' views about themselves are shared by factors external to them, since the participants' points of view as to the extent of their role in the school were greatly influenced by the school teachers' communication with and opinions about them.

3.3. The Students

The relationship of the student teachers with the students at their practicum school is another factor that has substantial influence in the student teachers' formation of professional identity. This theme came to my attention in the second phase of the data analysis that is the horizontal analysis, when I read the following sentences in the transcripts of my interview with Levent and Leyla:

> The students know that I am an intern and do not care about me. When I ask them to do something, some of them just say they do not want to. My mentor has a past with these students, so she can even shout at them sometimes, or punish them, for example by giving extra homework. But I do not have any of these weapons at my disposal. (Levent, Interview 2)
>
> I have always had positive relationships with the students; that motivated me a lot in my lessons. I wanted to be of help to them- like their real teacher (Leyla, Interview 2)

Parallel to the other factors discussed in this paper, the relationship with the students too has influenced the initial experiences and emotions of the student teachers in both positive and negative ways. In Levent's case, the realities of his role at the school- that he was a student teacher- had a profound impact on his interaction with the students. It was hard for Levent to assume the role of a teacher in the classroom context, because the students were aware that he was not a teacher in the sense they were accustomed to and he did not have the authority to exert much influence on them. This might have resulted from the fact that the mentor introduced Levent to the students not as a teacher but as "a student at Boğaziçi University and an intern at our school" and did not inform the students about how they should behave towards him.

Leyla's experiences with the students were very positive, on the other hand. However, as is evident from her expression "like their real teacher", her relationship with the students was not one that enabled her to assume the role of a teacher in the classroom context: she was not a real teacher in the classroom but instead she was like a real teacher. In other words, Leyla was in the process of constructing teacher identity, and her relationship with the students was a contributing factor in that process.

3.4. Practical Experiences

The last theme that I detected in the interview data during the horizontal analysis phase of the data analysis is practical experiences. Throughout the teacher education program, the participants were instructed in EFL methodologies and practiced these methodologies in their classes at the university where the university students pretended like the target student population. This was the only practical experience they had before

stepping into the classroom in their practicum schools. Therefore, another challenge for the participants in assuming the role of a teacher was transforming all the knowledge they had as students to practical experiences as teachers.

> Initially I viewed the practicum as an opportunity to gain experience. So, I was very excited and a little nervous... Unfortunately, all the theoretical knowledge we got at the university did not suffice in the actual classroom. I lost my confidence and enthusiasm. (Suna, Interview 2)

Suna's experiences with regard to the practice were negative, because of the mismatch between the ideal classroom that they created at the university and the real classroom, where the complexities of teaching are much more evident. When Suna started the practicum, she expected to find the opportunity to experiment with her theoretical knowledge on teaching English as a foreign language and had confidence in her capabilities and knowledge. However, she realized later on that being a teacher necessitates responding to the complexities of the language classroom and lost her confidence. I believe this was an important step for Suna towards developing a professional identity, because thus she began to realize what teaching really entails.

> I had a chance to see the implementation of modern methodologies and to implement them myself. I felt I was a capable teacher. (Suat, Questionnaire)

In contrast to Suna, Suat reported that the practical experiences he had were very positive. Because both Suat and Suna had their practicum at state schools, this difference could not be explained with reference to the type of school. In investigating the reason for this gap between the two experiences, I asked relevant questions to both Suna and Suat. I concluded from their answers that the mentors played a significant role in determining the practical experiences of the student teachers.

I need to note a caution before proceeding to the conclusions: as is evident in the previous sentence, all of these four factors are inextricable and have a complex relationship. The fact that they are the most salient factors in explaining the experiences of student teachers with regard to professional identity development does not mean that they are independent of one another. For example, the interaction between a student teachers and the students can be greatly influenced by the classroom ecology

created through the interaction between the mentor and the students. In other words, a supportive mentor might implicitly but dramatically affect the interaction between the student teachers and the students by creating a supportive and welcoming classroom climate.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The four themes extracted from the interview and questionnaire data will be discussed in this section with specific reference to the paraxis shock, the school context (in its general meaning provided in the review of the literature, rather than the narrow meaning I used in my presentation of data), and emotions. However, I first need to inform the reader that the type of school and gender did not turn out to be determinant in the student teachers' experiences. Table 2 summarizes the findings obtained from the current study.

In the analysis, a sociocultural approach was used, which highlights the importance of personal as well as social factors in the development of identity. It has also been shown that identity is a complex phenomenon that is multifaceted and continually constructed, which is in keeping with the existing literature on the theoretical discussions of identity. In addition, I also suggest that the four overriding factors that shape the student teachers' identity development processes are inextricable, interrelated and connected to each other with complex relationships.

I will briefly present here the interaction between three important aspects of experiences that form teacher identities in relation to the four overriding themes that I have detected in my data. All four student teachers were found to experience the paraxis shock, and each of them experienced the shock in relation to different factors. In certain cases, the student teachers expectations of the students were in clash with the real student profile in their practicum school, or their theoretical knowledge base turned out to be insufficient in enabling them to handle the complexities of the real classroom. I should also note that the paraxis shock mostly relates to the negative experiences of the student teachers in regards to the school context. For example, the initial expectation of one participant to become a member of the community of teachers were replaced with a sense of 'being the outsider' as a result of the negative attitudes of the school teachers toward the participant. The effect of the paraxis shock on the student

teachers' professional identity development has been found to be mostly negative; but, paraxis shock also fosters identity development by setting the context for the student teachers to realize the complexities of the classroom. The school context provides the student teachers with positive experiences as well. These positive experiences were found to be influential in the initial phases of teacher identity development. For example, the student teachers who reported that their practicum school had a supportive and collaborative environment were found to assume the role of a teacher with relative ease as opposed to those who did not get support from either the mentor or the other school teachers. Lastly, the accounts of the participants reflected the conceptualization of emotions in sociocultural framework that I used in my analysis of the interview and questionnaire data obtained from the student teachers. The participants expressed how they felt –that is, their emotions- about particular aspects of the school context that was influential in their identity construction, and they provided the rationale behind their emotions. They reported feelings of isolation, for example, because the school teachers behaved as though they were unaware of the student teachers' existence there or because the mentor did not really interact with the student teacher. The explanations can be multiplied; however, I believe that these will suffice to support the argument that emotional response is not irrational.

5. Implications

The striking similarities between the factors that exert the greatest influence in the initial phases of professional teacher identity formation provide a frame that enabled us to better understand the processes that student teachers experience. The fact that these factors were reported as being the most significant ones in shaping the student teachers' experiences despite the differential interaction of each participant with each factor points to the conclusion that for the successful construction of initial teacher identity the relationship of teacher candidates with these four factors should be regulated, mediated and maintained during the practicum. This study specifies the factors that need to be checked for if the related parties observe failure or interruptions in the formation of professional teacher identity.

The study also points out that individual student teachers' interaction with aspects of the school are unique, and therefore it is difficult to arrive at a prediction about the chances of successful initial teacher identity development based on the school characteristics. Thus, every caution should be taken before grasping the mainstream position that private schools provide better opportunities for successful teaching practices. It also challenges the general practice of placing students with higher academic achievement to 'better' schools in teacher education programs, since academic achievement does not seem to predict success in teaching at schools, but there is need for further research to arrive at more sound arguments with regard to the placement decisions.

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Defective Verbs and Source-Prominence: Expressing Thematic Structure Through Location

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Abstract

Most spoken languages use a morphologically complex mechanism in order to encode verbs denoting transfer of possession and motion. This mechanism results in the thematic and spatial orientation of verb pairs such as GIVE-TAKE and GO-COME in order for the theta roles of nouns in morphologically fixated syntactic positions to be accurately encoded (Marantz 1984). Each member of such pairs is considered to be a distinct lexeme in spoken languages, however Turkish Sign Language (TID) seems to hint at the existence of rather more loosely established verbal lexemes denoting transfer of possession and motion. Throughout the paper I argue that the hand shape which two so-called lexemes such as GO and COME share is the actual frozen form in the lexicon; and the intended thematic and spatial orientations are achieved via a combination of this hand shape with eye-gaze and movement between (R-)loci (Meir 2002) and that a native TID signer's lexicon might be organized accordingly. In doing this, I will rely on comparisons made with Pazar Laz (Öztürk&Pöchtrager 2011) and certain Slavic languages (Svenonius 2004) which are known to make use of spatial affixes in order to encode an accurate orientation onto abstract verbal stems.

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to investigate verbs denoting transfer of possession and motion in Turkish Sign Language (Türk İşaret Dili, henceforth TİD) from a morphological point of view. I will propose that the semantic realization of these verbal elements is achieved via a complex compositional mechanism where the relevant hand shape, eye gaze and movement between (R-) loci are the essential building blocks. The outcome of this proposal is that verbs such as GIVE and TAKE do not exist in the TİD lexicon as separate lexemes but are expressed via a

morphosyntactic combination of the addressee's locus, the locus of the recipient, the source and crucially the hand shape that expresses the concept of 'transfer of possession', a concept subsuming both the concepts 'give' and 'take'. Verbs of such kind will be elaborated and the expression of thematic roles in a language where case assignment is not a viable option will be attempted to be explained by making use of how location is expressed in that language.

The claim will be supported by work conducted in Pazar Laz (Öztürk & Pöchtrager, 2011), a dialect of Laz spoken in the north-eastern Black Sea Region of Turkey, which make use of spatial affixes which are attached to certain abstract verbal root forms denoting motion; creating exponents of an abstract event of motion. These verbs of motion remain unspecified for directionality or location unless one of these affixes is attached to them. TİD will be argued to make use of loci in the signer's discourse space that are correlated with thematic roles in order to achieve distinct forms of an abstract meaning such as GIVE and TAKE.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces basic information about sign languages, -specifically TİD- crucial for the reader to follow what is discussed throughout this paper. Section 3 introduces the verbs of motion and transfer of possession in TİD. Section 4 discusses the structure of these verbs and Section 5 compares Pazar Laz verbal roots which are modified by spatial affixes and TİD verbs of motion. Section 6 provides discussion and Section 7 concludes.

2. Background

Padden (1988, 1990) classifies American Sign Language (ASL) verbs in three groups: plain verbs, spatial verbs and agreement verbs. Agreement verbs depict a movement path marking subjects and/or objects in the signer's discourse space. Examples include GIVE, TAKE, SEND, etc.

One of the inherent properties of sign languages is iconicity. At least partial iconicity is observed in many lexemes among sign languages of the world (Aronoff, Meir & Sandler, 2005; Meir 2002, Meir, Padden, Aronoff & Sandler, 2007). According to this article iconicity plays a crucial role in forming movement paths.

Sign languages are also known to make use of loci that are associated with nominal elements, and this is considered to be one of the consequences of the visual-spatial modality they use (Sandler and Lillo-Martin 2006, Neidle, Kegl, et al., 2000). For instance, in the absence of a referent in the signing space, a locus for it will be established prior to signing to make reference to it whenever necessary. How long the established loci will last in the same location is not limited in terms of the quantity of utterances but is up to the signer and the length of the topic concerning that referent.

Simultaneous signing is another inherent property of sign languages (Napoli &Sutton-Spence 2010). What seems to be naturally available in sign languages does not seem to be a part of what audial modality allows in spoken languages. While spoken languages have to rely on linearity and intonation as probably the only linguistic layers of information flow, sign languages can simultaneously utilize manual signs, and several layers of non-manual markers (NMMs) and space in various ways.

Therefore simultaneous morphology, use of loci, eye gaze and iconicity form a non- exhaustive list of the building blocks/morphological elements of sign languages. The combinatory use of these building blocks in a language allows us to understand how linguistic elements are perceived by signers and speakers. Expression of thematic roles, events, situations and anaphora via two different modalities and a cumulative comparison of these two modalities will surely result in the filtering out of the biased information concerning linguistics which is the consequence of studies concentrated upon one modality.

3. Verbs of Motion and Transfer of Possession in TiD

Both verbs of motion and verbs of transfer of possession require locative information to be encoded. The common ground for these types of verbs, that is location, forms the argumentation put forth in this article. Verbs of motion in TİD include GO, COME, ENTER, LEAVE, WALK, etc. GO and COME share the same hand shape, an open palm and is signed either starting from the signer's body (GO) or towards the signer's body (COME); so do ENTER and LEAVE which are signed in reference to a locus in the signing space. These verbs can be considered to overlap with Padden's spatial verbs. Verbs denoting transfer of possession are

verbs such as GIVE, TAKE, SEND, and RECEIVE where the movement path is between an agentive source and a recipient. GIVE and TAKE as well as SEND and RECEIVE also share the same hand shapes. Hand orientation in both classes of verbs may change with respect to the movement path of the verb.

4. The Structure of Verbs of Motion and Transfer of Possession

The present article argues that in the case of verbs belonging to these two groups, the abstract level[1] and the lexeme level of sign languages overlap neatly and lexemes are directly taken from that abstract level and inserted into the syntax. In some spoken languages however, the path is longer. The lexical/morphological level filters out what the syntactic configuration of thematic NPs does not allow. Therefore, in English for instance, if our configuration is $SOURCE_{subj}$-V-$RECIPIENT_{indO}$ the verb choice will be GIVE and not TAKE, which are two morphologically unrelated lexemes. In English, the semantics of the verbal element receives full interpretation at the lexical level resulting in two distinct forms whereas in TİD this seems to be achieved at the syntactic level.

	SpLs	**SLs**
ABSTRACT LEVEL	'GIVE/TAKE'	'GIVE/TAKE'
LEXICAL LEVEL	**'GIVE' or 'TAKE'**	**'GIVE/TAKE'**
SYNTACTIC LEVEL	'GIVE' or 'TAKE'	'GIVE' or 'TAKE'

Let's start off with verbs that denote transfer of possession. Such verbs include: /PAY/[2], GIVE/TAKE, SEND/RECEIVE and LOAN/BORROW.

These verbal forms except /PAY/, in Turkish and/or English have separate forms. Why is this the case? What is it that prevents Turkish or English from sharing the same form in both cases?

[1] The meaning of 'abstract level' will be understood better in the following paragraphs. For now, it should be considered to be a level where, for example the pair GIVE/TAKE is not perceived as two separate lexemes but rather a motion denoting transfer of possession solely. It could be called semantic level too.

[2] Verbs which do not have a separate form for the reverse/mirrored thematic orientation will be shown in between slanted lines.

Let's look closer into one of these pairs: SEND/RECEIVE. Jackendoff (1983 & 1990) argues in the Thematic Relations Hypothesis that there is a fundamental cognitive ability in human brain harnessed in a way to explain events that involve locations, paths and motion; and this very same human cognitive mechanism is adjusted in a way to capture both spatial, possessive and temporal information in the same manner. Jackendoff claims that this ability to comprehend motion/location/path is reflected almost in every aspect of language. He claims change of state verbs (i.e. BLUSH, YELLOW, AGE) to inherit similar motion-related depiction in the space and therefore in language. SEND/RECEIVE are two apparent examples of expression of transfer of possession. In a verb denoting transfer of possession, the basic building blocks we have are three thematic roles; namely SOURCE, RECIPIENT and THEME; the verb itself partially corresponds to the movement between two locations in space: SOURCE and RECIPIENT, what the other part of the verb corresponds to is the THEME that is transferred. In a language like English where there has to be an obligatory subject, the elision of any arguments bearing these thematic roles is not allowed in the active voice; in a language like Turkish however, where the ties established between these thematic roles can be looser depending on discourse related phenomena, up to two of them (except the subject) might be elided.

Now, let's analyze these lexemes separately and see their lexical/syntactic configuration:

(2) [subj SOURCE] SEND [$_{IO}$ RECIPIENT] [$_{DO}$ THEME]

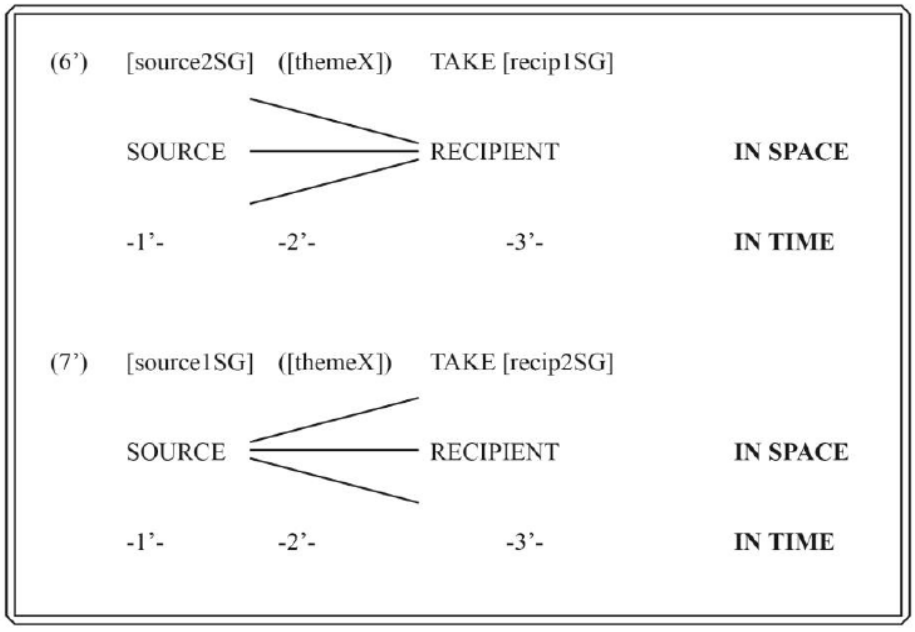
(3) [subj RECIPIENT] RECEIVE ([SOURCE]) [$_{DO}$ THEME]

As depicted above, SEND is a three-place predicate whereas its reverse form in terms of its thematic orientation RECEIVE is a two place predicate where SOURCE can only be an adjunct. In SEND, SOURCE is positioned where the syntactic subject is designated to be; in RECEIVE however, it is the RECIPIENT which is positioned in the very same syntactic position. It would be a better choice to say that there is a circular relationship between the lexicon and the syntax in this language. Let's take one more step and try to get a grip on why the following sentences are not grammatical:

(4) *[RECIPIENT I] SENT [$_{DO}$ pictures] from [$_{SOURCE}$ him].

(5) *[SOURCE He] RECEIVED [$_{DO}$ sunflowers] to [$_{RECIPIENT}$ the farmer].

Why can't English make use of the same form to express the transfer of possession between two arguments which are clung to two thematic roles while TİD can? Let's look at a TİD example where the thematic relationship and the transfer between two loci are iconically depicted. In TİD, lexeme pairs such as SEND/RECEIVE and GIVE/TAKE are associated with a movement between two loci and the combination of two hand shapes: one where all fingers are clasped together and one where all fingers are spread apart from each other. In TİD, GIVE is a forward agreement verb and TAKE is a backward agreement verb.[3]



The table above illustrates these two sentences in TİD:

[3] Note that agreement verbs are not always realized as agreement verbs but have what one might call a 'citation form' where body anchoring plays a role. There are body anchored verbs where the signer might not be any of the arguments of the utterance. Body anchored verbs may not always be single or double agreement verbs, there are many plain verbs which are body anchored such as EAT and DRINK. Some double agreement verb pairs such as GIVE/TAKE and SEND/RECEIVE can be reduced to their body anchored versions.

(6) $_2$TAKE$_1$[4]

'I took X from you.'

(7) $_1$GIVE$_2$

'I gave X to you.'

Let's look at the similarities and differences between the two utterances in (6) and (7) in the light of the image presented in Table 2. In both utterances the beginning of the utterance is aligned to the left side of the table, both events start from the SOURCE and end in the RECIPIENT. The SOURCE in (6) is the second person (addressee) and in (7) it is the signer him/herself. Therefore, there is a mismatch between English and TİD in terms of the precedence of the syntactic argument. SOURCE in TİD seems to take precedence over RECIPIENT, meaning it always takes the first place during the utterance in the linear order, whereas in English and Turkish the choice of the verb form over the other depends on the thematic role associated with the subject position or vice versa, meaning the thematic role associated with the syntactic subject depends on the verb form.

In TİD however, we see that in GIVE/TAKE, SOURCE seems to take precedence over the RECIPIENT, as might be expected from a language that makes use of iconicity. TİD truly reflects the transfer of possession with the direction of the movement. Although the idealized hand shape for the pair GIVE/TAKE includes two ends as mentioned earlier in the paper, we see that the hand shape where the hands are spread apart is not always used. Transfer of possession is expressed rather solely by the movement of the hand.

The GIVE/TAKE pair inconsistently gives results where the hand shape is either the same in both ends where fingers are together or differs between fingers together and fingers apart in different ends of the sign. There is however, another sign where we see no alternation. The

[4] 1,2,3 refer to the person paradigm. This notation is used to gloss agreement verbs in sign languages where a single movement path conveys both verbal meaning and person information.

incorporated verb pair: GIVE^MONEY/TAKE^MONEY[5]. This verb pair gives us concrete evidence that transfer of possession might not be thematically oriented in TİD.

Constant eye gaze of a signer at a present person is an apparent indication of who the addressee is. Having this side of the puzzle fixated, we can start our discussion on GIVE^MONEY/TAKE^MONEY.

This pair is also assumed to be a double agreement verb where there is an incorporated theme (MONEY). Incorporation is achieved by changing the hand shape to the sign MONEY and incorporating it into the movement, therefore there is no difference in the hand shape in both ends of the movement. Taking this analysis postulated here into consideration, one might wonder why there is a difference between the movement paths of GIVE and TAKE. But once we consider that the reason might be due to the encoding of location in sign languages, the reason becomes clearer. GIVE^MONEY/TAKE^MONEY example minimizes the noise and paves the way to understanding this phenomenon. Since there is no difference in both ends unlike in the pair GIVE/TAKE and since now we know that in verbs denoting transfer of possession SOURCE takes precedence over RECIPIENT let's try to see what the sign in (8) might mean:

(8) [$_{\text{SOURCE}}$2SG] GIVE^MONEY/TAKE^MONEY [$_{\text{RECIP}}$1SG]

(8') You gave me money.

(8'') I received money from you.

The signed utterance in (8) is ambiguous between (8') and (8''). TİD might not be making a major distinction between the two lexemes GIVE and TAKE, as do Turkish and/or English. In the case of both (8') and (8'') the realized utterance will be identical. The signer will direct his/her eye gaze towards the addressee and the direction will be from SOURCE to RECIPIENT. Moreover, it seems that this configuration renders eye gaze at the addressee obligatory.

Another curious case is the benefactive verb sign BUY X FOR Y. BUY X FOR Y illustrates a verb where the benefactor is obligatorily

[5] The caret (^) is used to indicate that a noun is incorporated to a verb. This incorporation in SLs is rather on morphological grounds as compared to spoken languages. MONEY^GIVE means that there is one single sign where the lexeme MONEY is incorporated to the lexeme GIVE, creating a complex sign meaning ‘give money’.

signed because it is one of the ends of the movement denoting transfer of possession in question. BUY X FOR Y is a SOURCE-prominent verb where the benefactor is the second end of the movement, i.e. $_{\text{SOURCE}}$BUY^X$_{\text{BENEFACTOR}}$. What's interesting is that this sign provides evidence that thematic roles are more loosely-established in the TİD lexicon than in the Turkish lexicon. The corresponding lexeme in Turkish is X^AL- (Lit. X TAKE-) and TİD signers mouth 'X AL' while signing but this mouthing does not correspond to the movement path which expresses the thematic orientation of the verb TAKE. In $_2$X^TAKE$_3$ '*You bought him/her an X.*' for instance, the movement path starts from the addressee and ends at the benefactor. If the eye gaze were not locked on the addressee this utterance might have meant *'S/he took a gift from you.*'

Now, let's look at a different pair of verbs: GO/COME. GO and COME in Turkish and in English have distinct forms similar to GIVE and TAKE, the two cannot be used interchangeably. Unsurprisingly in TİD, both lexemes share the same hand shape where the hand is flat with the thumb either resting on the palm or spread.

Interestingly, similar to GIVE MONEY/TAKE MONEY; GO/COME in TİD exhibit priority of the SOURCE location where departure takes place. However, it should be noted that GO/COME are not agreement verbs of course, they are body anchored[6] plain verbs denoting motion. The body of the signer corresponds to the conceptual notion of 'internal' whereas its reverse corresponds to 'exterior' and this is reflected in the direction of the sign. Because the sole argument of GO/COME is a subject we do not expect any ambiguities.

Another verb form is ASK. Very similar to the pair GIVE^MONEY/TAKE^MONEY, the verb ASK is not assumed to have a backward counterpart and it is not expected to have one either from a spoken language perspective. ASK is also SOURCE-prominent and the direction of the movement of the hand where the index finger is hooked like a question mark, targets the RECIPIENT. If we assume TİD to have

[6] Body anchoring is usually considered to be in signs where there is actual contact or near contact of the hand(s) of the signer with his/her body. But since GO/COME are articulated around the torso and is actually closely related to the signer, I will consider the pair to be body anchored.

two separate lexemes for GIVE/TAKE, why don't we assume the same situation to hold for ASK?

Now that we have seen the difference between English/Turkish and TİD, let's look at a spoken language where a similar phenomenon to that in TİD seems to be going on.

5. Abstract Verbs as Bound Stems

It is worth noting that Pazar Laz is among many spoken languages that make use of spatial affixes that contribute to the semantics of a verbal root by attaching to it[7]. While the affixation process is morphologically transparent in some, it is not in others. Consider these examples taken from Pazar Laz (Öztürk&Pöchtrager 2011):

(9) a. ama- 'in' **ama**-xt'u 'S/he went in.'

b. ce- 'down' **ce**-xt'u 'S/he went down.'

c. e- 'up' **e**- 'up' e-xt'u 'S/he went up.'

d. gama- 'out **gama**-xt'u 'S/he went out.'

e. go- 'back and forth' **go**-xt'u 'S/he went back and forth.'

f. me- 'away from the speaker' **me**-xt'u 'S/he went.'

g. mo- 'towards the speaker' **mo**-xt'u 'S/he came.'

Examples (9a-e) illustrate information regarding directionality of the subject of the utterance where the occurrence of the prefix is not related to the speaker. (9f-g) however, are directly related to the speaker. This is strikingly similar to the GO/COME pair in TİD where both signs share the same hand shape but the directionality of the movement is different. The directionality of the signs is again SOURCE-prominent, what me-/mo- encode in Pazar Laz is achieved by the directionality of movement of the sign in TİD, where the body of the signer corresponds to the conceptual notion of 'interior'.

[7] Note that Pazar Laz preverbal affixes do not only encode spatial information but there are also other affixes which add adverbial meanings to verbs.

6. Discussion

Sign languages tend to differ from spoken languages in many aspects. What visual modality seems to allow in sign languages cannot be observed in spoken languages which make use of the audial modality. The scarcity of distinctive layers of the modality of spoken languages renders them to rely more on linearity than signed languages. In other words, the visual modality allows more information to be simultaneously uttered whereas the audial modality has to rely more on linearity in order to convey the same amount of information and this has the consequence of making spoken utterances morphologically stricter than signed utterances.

A comparative approach between the audial and visual modalities will resolve some if not all dilemmas in the field. One of which is the expression of events and actions. Why many spoken languages make a distinction between the forms of verbs denoting transfer of possession and motion with respect to thematic roles and locative entities for instance, should be explained, and sign languages is a good place to start looking for evidence. Turkish Sign Language, among many others, is one such language where the form of the verbal element stays intact but is adjusted with respect to thematic roles and locative expressions. What does not allow spoken languages to have the same phenomenon to the same extent seems to be the fact that they are more easily tending towards linearity and the consequences of this linearity: morphological adjustments, syntactic adhesiveness, syntactic argumenthood vs. thematic roles, as well as lexical integrity. I argue that in many spoken languages the form of the verb is chosen from the lexicon considering the syntactic position of the NPs which are assigned specific thematic roles while in sign languages the mechanism might be the reverse: the hand shape stays intact and the thematic roles are attributed to the ends of the movement of the hand shape. One outcome of this is that the lexemes in a signer's lexicon are more abstract than in a speaker's lexicon. The rigidity of spoken lexemes of such kind is acquired by distinct morphological forms which correspond to single lexemes in sign languages positioned one level above where spoken lexemes I argue are positioned.

7. Conclusion

In the previous sections, we have seen that language is not mapped on the audial and visual modalities in the same way. Spoken languages are fairly less simultaneous and much more sequential whereas sign languages are the exact opposite.

In Section 3, I tried to show how transfer of possession and motion are encoded in a language where iconicity is a very strong tool. In Section IV, we saw that the position of the syntactic subject in time and space in TİD verbs denoting motion and transfer of possession is not as robust as verbs denoting the same notions in Turkish and in English. SOURCE seems to play an important part in all of this and it seems to have priority over RECIPIENT/GOAL. It is difficult at this point to argue whether the syntactic position for the subject is always filled by the SOURCE. But there is no evidence to prove this wrong, either.

Taking all these into consideration we must be less easily misled by our knowledge in spoken languages. I have introduced two examples which are structurally identical: ASK and GIVE MONEY/TAKE MONEY. It is a mystery why spoken languages do not make a difference in the form of ASK depending on a thematic configuration mapped on syntactic positions or the linear order. If ASK were only one way, why do we have a morphological distinction between GIVE and RECEIVE?

It would however, be rather naïve for a researcher to postulate an analysis where signed languages and spoken languages are depicted as having no common ground. The two might rather be considered to be two concentration points on a prominence-based continuum where there is a gradient shift from syntactic argumenthood to thematic roles and locations.

To recapitulate, what I propose and argue for in this paper is that these verb forms where we clearly see transfer of possession or motion are not stored in the lexicon as separate forms but receive their full interpretation in syntax and in discourse according to the compositional configuration of three main elements: (1) locations of the arguments in space and the movement between them, (2) eye, and (3) hand shape, and that these verbs are encoded in the lexicon with SOURCE-prominence.

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Online Communities in Teacher Professional Development in a Turkish University Context

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Abstract

Professional development of teachers is an important element in the quality of English language instruction. Although English language teachers are supplied with in-service training to achieve professional development, these trainings are usually short-term and aren't defined on the basis of teachers' selection of problems. Professional development is more than a series of workshops, institutional meetings or presentations (Schlager & Fusco, 2003). It should be a process of learning how to put knowledge into practice in collaboration with other practitioners. Online communities have developed into highly sophisticated interactive systems thereby making it possible to sustain professional development for long periods of time in a more effective way. However, an online framework doesn't guarantee success of an online professional development practice. In current study that has been conducted at a university setting, online communities as teacher professional development tools will be explored in terms of design and teaching context. Having a clear picture of the demands of the teachers from online communities from as varied contexts as possible can fill the niche in the area and necessary designs can be implemented.

In the study 7 teachers from university settings were recruited. Three online communities are selected for English language teachers as sample environments. The data were collected through two consecutive surveys which were employed before and after exploring the selected online communities.

Although teachers made use of online communities mainly for material sharing, they also focused on the collaboration which the communities can offer. Considering the opportunities that PLCs offer and the suitability of them to how adults learn, integrating them into teacher professional development can yield promising outcomes. However, to

generalize their use, some steps (such as taking them into the institutional agenda) must be taken.

1.Introduction

Teachers' professional development is the requirement of successful education policies. Nationwide the teachers are supplemented with in service training programs by Ministry of National Education in the hope of providing teachers with professional development opportunities and helping them to keep up with the changes in the field. However, there are some inherent problems which threaten the success of these programs. The in-service programs for teachers are generally short term, they aren't defined on the basis of teachers' selection of problems, they are "superficial and fragmented, the commitment to and belief in serious professional development is quite limited" (Ball & Cohen, 1999, p. 5). According to Schlager & Fusco (2003), professional development is more than a series of workshops, institutional meetings or in service presentations. It is both a process of learning the ways of putting knowledge into practice, in collaboration with other practitioners, and also a system which brings several stake holders together. In order to maintain a professional development defined by Schlager and Fusco, we need a continuous platform. Distance education and online communities developed into highly sophisticated interactive systems which allow video-conferencing, synchronous and asynchronous interaction between people, thus making it possible to sustain communication in a more effective way. Using an online framework in continuing teacher development can be the answer of the problems listed above. However, the online framework doesn't guarantee the success of an online professional development practice. Therefore, we should define the characteristics of a well-designed online professional development tool to exploit it effectively. At the current study at hand, online communities as teacher professional development tools will be explored in the particular research setting.

The study tries to find the answers to the following questions:

1) What are the in service ELT teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of online communities in their professional development and remedying their teaching problems?

2) What should be the features of an exemplary online community for professional development?

1.2 Social Constructivism and Online Communities

Having been grounded in positivistic paradigm, it has long been assumed that teachers could learn the language (their subject matter) and the ways of teaching it in their education programs. Following this, observing and practicing it will be enough for them to function as teachers. However, the literature suggests an alternative characterization for teachers. (Johnson K., 2006) Socio-cultural theory explains the learning from a social point of view. While participating in social activities, one can develop their higher functions and with the assistance of others (zone of proximal development by Vygotsky) so that they can reach the self regulated stage. (Johnson M., 2004) According to Ragoff (2003) socio cultural turn explains the human development via being participants in cultural communities. (Johnson K., 2006)

Communities are defined by Riel and Polin (2004) as: "A multigenerational group of people at work or play, whose identities are defined in large part by the roles they play and relationships they share in this group of activity." (Riel & Polin, 2004, p. 18) Barab and Duffy (2004) pondered more on the definition of community. They stated that in order to be a community, there should be a significant history, shared cosmology cultural and historical heritage and socially interdependence. (Barab, Kling, & Gray, 2004).

1.3 Sustaining Online Communities

The success of online communities partly depends on the sustainability of the infrastructure. Designing an online professional community is only the half of the process. According to Schlager, Fusco and Schank (2004) to ensure the evolution and continued development of online communities, it is crucial to know why these communities sustain or fail. (Schlager, Fusco, & Schank, 2004) In their case study, Farooq, Schank, Harris, Fusco, Schlager (2007) showed the requirements of sustaining an online community through "Tapped In". The study demonstrated that in order to have an ongoing professional online community, the online community designers should work with the users of

the system and get feedback at every stage of development of the system. These detections are also in accordance with the research findings of Barab, MaKinster, and Scheckler (2006) who state that "designing for virtual communities involves balancing and leveraging complex dualities from the inside rather than applying some set of design principles from the outside"(p.237). It is because, PLCs resemble "living organisms, they self regulate themselves and change dynamically" (p.238). Apart from that, Dourish (2001) identified three design strategies to support PLCs. They are listed as: 1. investing in bonding social capital, 2. providing multiple online gathering places and 3. reinforcing leadership roles organically from within the community. (As cited in Farooq, Schank, Harris, Fusco, & Schlager, 2007).

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

The participants in this study consist of 11 novice teachers. In the table 1 the demographic information of the participants is summarized.

Table 1. Demographic Information

Participants	Age	Gender	Graduation Year	Post-Graduate Degree	Teaching Experience (years)
1	28	M	2007	No	4
2	27	M	2009	No	2
3	22	F	2012	No	1
4	24	F	2011	No	2
5	23	F	2012	No	1
6	23	F	2012	No	1
7	23	F	2012	No	1
8	25	F	2010	No	3
9	25	F	2010	PhD.	3
10	23	F	2012	No	1
11	23	F	2012	No	1

2.2. Data collection Instruments and Procedures

In order to find answers to the research questions, two questionnaires were used. The participants also examined three online communities to answer the second questionnaire's questions. The questionnaires which were used in this study are adapted from an unpublished study which was conducted a year ago about professional development of rural English language teachers (Başer, 2012). The teachers' initial thoughts about online professional learning communities (PLCs) are asked in the first questionnaire. The participants were asked to sign up and examine 3 online English Language Teaching Communities before answering the second questionnaire. The online communities will be referred as Lily, Lotus and Daisy in the study. The professional online communities were selected to gather the opinions and perceptions of the teachers about each one of them and to have an understanding of the teachers' needs in an online community. The online communities were selected on the basis that they are widely used, they have special interest groups and they are easy to use. They don't require installation of software or participation fee. Initially the participants were given the first questionnaire via e-mail. Following this, the second questionnaire was sent to be filled after signing up to the specified online communities and the teachers evaluated the sites after exploring them.

2.3. Data Analysis

The data analysis includes the analysis of two types of questions: quantitative and qualitative questions. The quantitative questions were analyzed via SPSS 15 statistical program. The responses from teachers were used to compare the design and effectiveness of the online communities which were provided for teachers to explore and evaluate. Descriptive statistics (frequencies) were run for the interpretation of the data. The frequencies of the answers were calculated. Qualitative questions were analyzed via content analysis in grounded theory. Content analysis is the analysis of the written data and grounded theory defends the notion that theory emerges from the data rather than it is predefined and tested. The data was coded using selective coding and while interpreting the data constant comparison is used.

3. Results

3.1. Initial Opinions about the Use of Online Communities

The first questionnaire aimed to find out teachers' initial opinions about the relevance of online communities to their professional development needs. The Likert scale questions are used to reveal professional development possibilities in teachers' own work settings and their opinions about effectiveness of using a professional online community to foster professional development and support.

The items related to online learning communities' effectiveness on English teachers' professional development are responded positively by the teachers. Except from one teacher, other participants value online professional development communities when their professional development is concerned. The teacher who disagreed with the statements that, online communities is effective in English Language teachers' professional development is participant 7. When we look at her answers more closely she also stated that there are other experienced teachers in the workplace and online communities are time consuming.

3.2 Exploring Example Online Communities

Overall, the online communities "Lily" and "Lotus" were preferred by the teachers rather than "Daisy" after they explored sample online communities. The only teacher (participant7) opted for the option "Daisy" since it is easy to sign in and there are a variety of materials. The participants stated their reason of choosing the specific sites as the best PLC as follows: Participant 1 grounded his choice of Lily for the sites' being well organized, having a user friendly interface, and its being relevant to real life situations. Participant 4 chose Lotus since it looked more professional. Participant 9 specified that Lily's goals were well defined. Therefore, she evaluated it as the best. On the other hand she reported that she didn't consider using Daisy since the site was not designed specifically to English teachers, English teachers were just a small group within the PLC. Participant 3 did not choose any of them but she stated that she need an online community consisted of teachers who are teaching the same lessons with her. In that way it is possible for her to exchange ideas relevant to their lessons. The teachers stated that the online

communities can provide them with professional development opportunities with academic resources (paritcipant9) and with the help of more experienced teachers (participant1).

When the English teachers are asked what their specific needs are in their teaching context, and what kind of an online community can help them with these needs, the emergent feature was sharing of materials which are interactive in nature, and address functional use of language.

> It should be able to help us teach our learners functional language they are less likely to find in their course books. (Participant 1)
>
> An online community with a variety of interactive activities and exercises would help us a lot. (Participant 6)
>
> We teachers need a lot of different kinds of language teaching exercises because our students are easily discouraged and we need something to motivate them. (Participant 7)

The participant 9 also stated that online communities can provide the teachers an outsider view. She valued the feedback function and support from other teachers in an online community.

The teachers suggested that an online professional community in Turkey should have the following features according to the teachers' needs:

> Firstly it should provide the teachers with high quality and possibly authentic teaching materials. (Participants 1, 4, 7)
>
> It should take Turkish education system and culture into consideration (Participant 1).

The participant 9 suggested a university-initiated online PLC for better outcomes. She also stated the teachers' educators' presence in the communities is quite important.

4. Discussion

All the participants in the study were teachers who are working in university settings and being an English teacher in the mentioned setting was the choice of the teachers. In accordance with this fact, the teachers were enthusiastic about performing their profession. The teachers had clear definitions of their teaching aims when they started working. Their teaching

philosophies included prioritizing student involvement and communicative facet of language teaching. However the majority of the teachers stated that there is a discrepancy between their philosophies and the actual teaching in the classrooms. Parallel to this situation the majority of the teachers reported not having any in service training, and the rest of the teachers had training which was limited in duration and number. When their needs, related to professional development, were asked, the teachers stated that they postulated the updates in the approaches and methods in the field and classroom management issues. Having been proficient internet users, the teachers believed online communities can be a useful tool to help them in professional development. The teachers stated that with the online communities they can realize professional development since they offer academic resources, teaching materials and the help of more experienced teachers. They focused on the collaboration which the communities can offer. However, at the time period when the study was conducted the teachers reported that they are not active participants of any online communities; they make use of online communities for the sake of downloading course materials. When it comes to get support from the community's members, they don't believe they will get responses from other members in time (Participants 4, 7, 11). This shows that even if the participants believe in the benefits of PLCs as communities, as they aren't members of a community, they do not have mutual engagement, community identity and accountability to other members. This reduces the applicability of PLCs as communities to the professional development. The teachers don't seek relationships with other professionals online. In this respect the research findings aren't compatible with Ellis, Oldridge, and Vasconcelos' (2004) claims that the teachers participate in online communities for the sense of belongingness rather than material sharing. However it confirms Daugherty et al.'s (2005) statement that some members don't need explicit need for communication with other teachers (as cited in Hur & Brush, 2009). When they are asked what type of services they want from an online community the common answer was "materials for functional use of language, exercises, and authentic texts. And a teacher (participant 3) demanded a culture specific online community which will answer the needs of teachers in Turkey. The teachers' answers which only prioritize the material sharing function of professional learning communities can be attributed to their opportunities to consult colleagues in their work place and the presence of experienced teachers with whom they can share their problems and get support professionally.

The second question of the study aimed to identify the features of an exemplary professional learning community. The teachers are asked to rate the designs and functions of three online communities. Based on the findings on four categories, “Lily” and “Lotus” were rated to be a better professional learning community than “Daisy”. One feature of the first two sites is that they include many other components in addition to being a community. They offer wide array of exercises and materials categorized in different topics which was valued by the participants of this study.

5. Conclusion

The current study aimed to find out about online professional learning community use among English language teachers. The participants are asked of their opinions about the use of online communities in remedying their problems related to their English language teaching. Additionally, the teachers are asked about their opinions and suggestions for an exemplary online community that would be the answer to their problems in their particular teaching context. The answers of the teachers pointed to the fact that the teachers prioritize, professional look, easy access, and good layout in PLCs. They also noted that they want to participate in PLCs which have well defined goals and variety of activities, also which are specific for only ELT teachers. The findings showed that even if the teachers think the professional learning communities can potentially support their professional development, use of PLCs is not a spread practice. Considering the opportunities that PLCs offer and the suitability of them to how adults learn, integrating them into teacher professional development can yield promising outcomes.

Within the scope of the current research people were recruited to evaluate the communities for a short time. Online communities should be considered as living organisms which have their own constantly evolving dynamics. (Barab, MaKinster, & Scheckler, 2006) Mutual engagement, reciprocity, accountability of participants and communication dynamics between the members are important elements constituting PLCs. (Henderson, 2007) Therefore studies with long standing members needs to be done to have a better and clear idea of the features of successful online communities. Online communities can make important changes in the lives of teachers, students and in the social and intellectual climate of schools and schooling. (Cochran-

Smith & Lytle, 1999) However, to generalize their use, some steps (such as taking them into the institutional agenda.) must be taken.

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Do We Really Need To Teach Grammar In CLIL Classes? – A Qualitative Study on the Role of Grammar in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classes

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Abstract

Within a traditional foreign language learning context, language teaching goes back to the learning of grammar (grammar-translation method). However, in the 20th century, many second language acquisition theories emerged and led to the development of various teaching methods. The most well-known approach to language learning in the 21st century promotes communication. Communicative approaches are based on theories of language learning in which both meaning and form (grammar) should be focused on. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has emerged as one of the major educational trends in the European Union. It is an innovative approach which refers to educational settings where a language other than the learners' mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction. The paper provides an outline of the research on the role of grammar in CLIL starting with a brief insight into the phenomenon of CLIL and a general overview of the study, which is a part of a PhD research on language development in CLIL. The study resented in the paper was carried out in 1st Secondary School in Kraków, Poland. One bilingual class was observed through a period of one school year. A special observation sheet concerning grammar was designed for the study. Attention was paid to different types of grammar activities, types of interaction as well as to grammatical errors made by the learners.

Keywords: CLIL, Content and Language Integrated Learning, bilingual education, teaching grammar, context.

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning is described as an approach which refers to any learning context in which content and language are integrated in order to fulfil specified educational aims (Marsh & Marsland, 1999, p.21). In other words, it could be used to refer

to a classroom in which a foreign language teacher instructs learners on non-language subject content in a foreign language. At the same time it may apply to a situation in which a subject teacher uses a foreign language, to a greater or lesser extent, as the medium of instruction in any specific lesson.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages defines grammar as a set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful labelled and bracketed strings (sentences) (Council of Europe, 2001, p.112-13). Grammatical competence is then the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognising well-formed sentences in accordance with these principles (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 112-13). There is a widespread agreement reported by both learners and language teachers that although CLIL may have a positive impact on some aspects of target language learning, mastering the theoretical aspects of the structure of the language is often not one of these (Marsh & Marsland,1999, p. 80).

2. The aim

In the following article, the role of grammar in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classes will be discussed. Firstly, the term Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) will be explained. Secondly, the concept of teaching grammar in CLIL will be presented and then the results of my study carried out in 1st Secondary School in Kraków, Poland will be discussed. The observations were carried out during geography, biology and mathematics classes where all these subjects were taught in English. The main objective of the study was to describe and analyse educational changes which occur in the Content and Language Integrated Learning classroom in Secondary Education throughout the whole school year. All language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) as well as sub-skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) were paid attention to, however, in the following article only the role of grammar in CLIL will be discussed. Finally, conclusions and further teaching implications will be presented

3. The concept of CLIL

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a common term for a number of similar approaches in Europe to teach content subjects through a foreign language. Other terms used are *Bilingual Content Teaching, Bilingual Subject Teaching* or *Content-based Language Teaching* (Wolff, 2003: 211). The term CLIL is now the most commonly used and "it is based on the assumption that foreign languages are best learnt by focusing in the classroom not so much on language but on the content which is transmitted through language. The novelty of this approach is that classroom content is not so much taken from everyday life but rather from content subjects e.g. mathematics, biology, geography etc. (Wolff, 2003: 211-222).

Marsh (Marsh & Langé, 2000) provides the following definition of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL):

> Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a generic term and refers to any educational situation in which an additional language and therefore not the most widely used language of the environment is used for the teaching and learning of subjects other than language itself (Marsh & Langé 2000, p. iii).

According to Wolff (2003, p. 211), there are at least three points which are important in the context of this general definition:

1. CLIL should not be perceived as an approach to language teaching and learning; it is important to pay attention to both content and language.

2. In CLIL content and language are learnt in an integrated way. The two subjects are related to each other and dealt with as a whole.

3. In CLIL another language is used to teach and learn content subjects, i.e. it is the medium of instruction.

To put it simply, language is both content and medium in the CLIL classroom but it is not taught in the same way as in the traditional classroom – it is focussed upon when it is necessary and important for the understanding of a specific aspect of the content subject or the academic discipline (Wolff, 2003, p. 211).

4. Teaching grammar in CLIL

One may think that CLIL is teaching a language without grammar. In fact, Swain argues (in Marsh & Marsland, 1999: 80) that the knowledge concerning grammar of CLIL learners is "weaker". However, "weaker" does not imply that CLIL learners fail to function pragmatically but that the language usage may be faulty and particularly poor in certain circumstances. When considering grammar in CLIL classes one thing should be obvious, CLIL teachers should become sensitive to the language and structural issues (Marsh & Marsland, 1999, p.80). The mere exposure to a language will not necessarily result in mastery of the structures and form of the language. In a language classroom traditionally grammar teaching has been pursued on the basis of the presentation, practice, and production approach (PPP)[1] (Kieweg, 1996, p.4-5).

At first the new grammatical feature is presented to the learners via semi-authentic materials that feature particular grammatical phenomenon. By way of a deductive or an inductive approach, the grammatical feature is analyzed and rules are formulated which are supposed to help the learners practise the new language structure. In the CLIL classroom there is no time to introduce such an approach. What is needed is an integrated approach (Marsh & Marsland, 1999, p.80). In the CLIL classroom an attention should be given to content and the target language. Grammar should be contextualized and looked at in a more holistic way (using contexts, functions, real life situations etc…). It should be pointed out that the CLIL learners apart from attending CLIL lessons also attend English lessons during which grammatical structures are introduced. As a result, the role of a CLIL teacher should be to cooperate with an English teacher in order to know which grammar aspects the CLIL learners have just got familiar with and prepare additional exercises using the content of the CLIL lesson. As a result, the CLIL learners would have more possibilities to practise grammatical structures and consolidate their content knowledge. The best idea would be if grammar activities prepared by the CLIL teacher were of communicative nature. The activities which are designed to make learners speak and listen to each other, that is, to

[1]The translation from German into English was done by the author of the article.

use the language to communicate information or ideas, are very important (Short, 1993, p.629-635).

When participating in these, the CLIL learners are expected to incorporate the smaller bits of language intensively practised previously into the whole of their language repertoire. With these activities focus is on fluency and on fluent use of the language as well as on the content. Marsh (1999) claims that the experience of CLIL has impact on language and that this may be positive or negative depending on how the interrelationship between content and language functions. Integration is prerequisite if CLIL is to achieve the best possible outcomes (Marsh & Marsland, 1999, p.82). It cannot be done without grammar. Grammar is not simply a set of rules, it is more profitably thought of as a shared set of assumptions about language which make effective communication possible. Therefore, grammar belongs to the language and is a part of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

5. A brief description of the study

The study was conducted in one of the Secondary Schools in Kraków, Poland. One bilingual class was observed: learners at the age of 16-17 and three teachers for a period of one school year. The main study was preceded by a pilot study. Throughout the whole school year, I was taking part in all the lessons taught in English (geography, biology and mathematics). The learners had two hours of geography, two hours of biology and three hours of mathematics per week. The bilingual syllabus is based on the National Polish curriculum for Secondary Schools and covered the same topics as the monolingual one. The method used for my study was observation which is a major data collection tool in a qualitative research. The observation sheet concerning grammar was divided into the following parts: the stage of the lesson (e.g. revision, brainstorming, etc.), the type of activity (e.g. cloze exercises, sentence transformations, etc…) time (how much time the teacher spends on particular activity), the type of interaction (teacher- learners, learners-teacher or learners-learners), materials used (e.g. whiteboard, copies, etc…) and additional information (e.g. error correction etc…). The aims of the study to:

- find out if grammar is paid attention to in CLIL classes;

- to find out if grammar is integrated with content;

It should be also mentioned that the first intention was to record the classes, provide transcripts of the lesson and analyse all the data on the basis of the recordings. Unfortunately, both the headmaster of the school and the parents did not agree to have the lessons recorded and therefore a special observation sheet was prepared for the purpose of the study.

6. Results

The only teacher who paid attention to grammar during the lessons observed and analysed was the CLIL geography teacher. This teacher had a master degree both in geography and in English and this is why she felt confident while explaining some grammatical rules or correcting errors.

In most cases grammar was paid attention to in the 'follow-up stage', e.g. after having introduced different types of rocks the CLIL learners were given an exercise on Passive Voice. Before doing the exercise the geography teacher asked the CLIL learners about the basis rules concerning the use of Passive Voice. The biology teacher used to give grammar exercises as homework which was always checked in the beginning of the next lesson.

The CLIL teachers (the geography and biology teachers) used different types of grammar activities. The most popular ones were: gap-filling exercises, sentence transformations, writing elicited dialogues, matching split sentence halves, picture descriptions. Most of the exercises were written exercises done by the CLIL learners in silence during the lesson or at home. The math's teacher did not use any grammar exercises. The CLIL teachers used to spend up to 15 minutes on introducing, doing and checking particular grammar exercises.

There were various types of interaction noticed while concentrating on grammar e.g. teacher-learners (deductive approach), learners-teachers (inductive approach) or learners-learners (pair work, group work). In most cases the CLIL learners were given some additional handouts with grammar exercises.

Even though the CLIL learners were constantly exposed to English (bilingual classes and English language classes) they still had a few problems with grammar. The most visible grammatical problem that the CLIL learners seemed to have was connected with countable and uncountable nouns. Some of the CLIL learners made basic mistakes such as: "I have *many advices*…" instead of "I have some *advice*…", *"Alps are..."* instead of "*The* Alps are…", "Math's *are* difficult" instead of "Math's *is* difficult" etc. The CLIL geography teacher started correcting the CLIL learners by giving them the proper form but afterwards she used to spend a few minutes on explaining the basic rules using the examples from geography, e.g. "The Canary Islands are…" , "Knowledge about the Canary Islands is…", "The Pacific Ocean is…", "The Tatra mountains are…" etc. Additionally, the CLIL learners used to have some problems with the following grammatical concepts: the proper use of the Perfect Tenses, e.g. "What *happened* with the heat energy?" instead of "What *has happened* with the heat energy?" – observation based on some experiment (biology), or "Why *you have solved* this formula like that*?"* instead of "Why *have you solved* this formula like that?" (mathematics) etc.; the proper use of articles, e.g. "*Alps* are the biggest chain of mountains in Europe*"*, it should be "*The* Alps are the biggest chain of mountains in Europe" (geography), "*The* carbohydrates consist of...*",* it should be "*Carbohydrates* consist of…" (biology) etc.; problems with relative clauses – the CLIL learners tended to use "which" instead of "who" or "where" like in the following examples: "My uncle *which* climbs the mountains says that the weather is really changeable in the Alps", "The Bermuda Triangle is an area *which* many ships disappeared due to some weather changes (geography) etc. From time to time, the CLIL learners made errors connected with the use of pronouns e.g. "*she* instead of *he* or *it"* etc., the use of prepositions, e.g. "*on* the picture *is*" instead of "*in* the picture *there is*"; "*in* the left" instead of "*on* the left"; and the "s" ending in the third person singular (the CLIL learners tended to forget about it). Even though, the errors were visible, in most cases it was an intralingual transfer which was responsible for them. In general, the CLIL learners showed a relatively high degree of grammatical control and their mistakes did not lead to misunderstanding.

To summarise, bearing in mind all the lessons observed, it can be said that most of the CLIL teachers hardly ever paid attention to grammar**.** Grammar seemed to be left out to be dealt with during the English classes. Comparing the CLIL learners' language structures at the end of the school year with the ones used in at the beginning of the study, it can be said that their language structures have become more sophisticated. The CLIL learners tended to use conditionals, passive voice or indirect speech more often with hardly any mistakes being made. On the basis of these observations, it can be said that the CLIL learners made some progress which was probably due to their English lessons rather than CLIL lessons, however, they were still making mistakes concerning the use of articles, prepositions and linking devices, which did not influence communication. In fact, most Poles make mistakes while using articles which is due to the lack of articles in the native language.

7. Conclusions

Whether to teach grammar in CLIL or not is a matter of choice. However, it should be born in mind that the primary goal of teaching in CLIL is teaching content through a foreign language. A CLIL lesson is not purely a language lesson. Even though, CLIL includes many aspects of language teaching methodology, grammar is secondary to lexis and fluency is the focus rather than accuracy. Learners are expected to communicate content to each other and in most cases they do it really well. So, what makes the CLIL method efficient? A few factors probably influence its effectiveness:

- **The ability to explore content deeply** which comes from the fact that the CLIL learners have to spend more time on "digesting" all the information. According to Craik and Lockhart (1972, p.671-684), the deeper the content is explored the more it is remembered.

- **Cohesion of the topics** – when the topics of particular subjects are related to each other there is a higher possibility that the CLIL learners will better remember the language forms through which particular concepts are expressed.

- **Organisation of data** – all the concepts are organised according to particular topics which facilitate learning.
- **Learner Autonomy** – the more autonomy the CLIL learners have the more motivated they would feel.
- **Productivity** – according to Swain and Lapkin (1995, p.371-391) language productivity is very important because apart from the content that the CLIL learners have to "digest" they also have to think how to say it in a foreign language. It definitely has an influence on second language development.
- **Regularity** – being exposed to a foreign language through CLIL classes a few times a week has a huge influence on second language development.
- To conclude, teaching grammar is very important and it should be present in CLIL classrooms but it should be contextualised. Additionally, authentic/communicative activities should be used which are built around a specific grammar item, but with a focus on fluent use of the language in particular content.

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Is Literature the Work of Art or One of the Sources of Language Teaching?

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the perspectives of the fourth year students from English Language Teaching Department at Uludag University as to literature and the use of literature in language teaching. The study was conducted with 75 senior students by administering a questionnaire prepared considering the use of literature in ELT classes and a semi-structured interview to delve into the results obtained from the quantitative part of the study. Descriptive statistics through SPPS 20 version were used to analyze the data. As a result, it was determined that students foster mostly positive views about the benefits of literature in language learning besides their hesitance about some issues such as how literature can be integrated as a language teaching material in EFL/ESL classes more effectively.

Key Words: Literature, genres of literature, language learning, language teaching.

1. Introduction

Literature with its works of drama, story, poetry, plays, fiction and nonfiction reflects a language or a people representing their culture and tradition. Literature sometimes captivates readers with its magic words and provides them to go beyond what is said in a piece of literature based on their own interpretations, which is the work of art from this perspective. On the other hand, there has been increasing interest in literature as a teaching resource since 1980s, which is also observed in language teaching textbooks (Khatip & Rahimi 2012). Moreover, current approaches affirm the value of literature teaching in terms of language development and improvement. Literature is considered as a proper instrument for language

learning and development as the focus is now on authentic language and authentic situations.

The relationship between literature and ELT was considered as a separate subject in the English Language Teacher Education Program in Turkey a few years ago. Teachers of literature who apply traditional method by following the older program often neglect the linguistic dimension of the literary texts by lecturing only about main topics like theme, plot, characterization, plot and motifs. It is only recent years that there has been given more importance to literature in EFL classes with the renewed program including the courses of Short Story Analysis and Teaching; Poetry Analysis and Teaching; Novel Analysis and Teaching besides English Literature I, II. Therefore, nowadays many academicians start to give much more importance to literature and how to integrate literature in language teaching by being aware of the gap between literature and language teaching.

1.1. Why should we teach literature?

Literature is regarded as a promising tool for English language learning. Scholars in the field have suggested a number of considerations and advantages for the use of literature in EFL/ESL classes (Brumfit and Carter, 1986; Collie & Slater, 1987; Carter, Walker, Brumfit, 1989; Carter & Long, 1991).

Firstly, Collie and Slater (1987) proposes four main reasons for using literature in the classroom such as valuable authentic material, cultural enrichment, language enrichment and personal involvement that literature provides. To achieve these advantages, teachers are expected to use relevant and appealing literary texts to strengthen involvement, reader response and a steady integration between language and literature. Brumfit et all (1989, p. 32) also add that "The most important criterion is of course to select texts that stimulate interest in students is of equal importance, however, is the choice of texts that lend themselves to student discussion and personal experience." He asserts that language teachers should consider some critical points such as subject matter, culture, language level and length of the text while dealing with the literary texts.

Carter and Long (1991, p.2-3) suggest three models to support the use of literature in language classes. The first model in question is the cultural model. The Cultural Model presents the traditional approach to teaching literature. It calls for learners to inquire and interpret the social, political, literary and historical framework of a particular text but it also promotes learners to comprehend various cultures and ideologies within their own context. The second model is language model. It is the most general method employed in classrooms. It facilitates learners to reach a text systematically and methodically to illustrate definite linguistic characteristics. This approach proposes wide range of strategies utilized in language teaching by activities in which the activities are used to exploit literary texts. Additionally, language model stresses the fact that literature could be considered as an instrument to teach specific vocabulary and structures. Lastly, in the third model, the personal growth model, the learners are encouraged to deal with the reading of literary texts, appreciate and evaluate cultural artifacts. Learners are also expected to demonstrate their opinions, feelings and thoughts. They are encouraged to make connections between their own personal and cultural experiences and those expressed in the text as well.

1.2. Incorporating Literature in English Language Teaching

Language and literature are strongly interrelated. A literature enriches our language and language helps us to understand literature. Literature and language can be regarded as the two sides of a coin which are inseparable from each other (Ujjwala, 2013). To put it differently, generally speaking, the knowledge of literature form a basis for language learning. English language teaching through literature both develops the basic skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing and language areas such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Students can learn a language through creative and critical use of literary texts so that they can experience language in use.

Literature yields invaluable experience to the learners and provides broad opportunities to display their interpretative skill which is a vital benefit to language learning. It also supplies a rich source for both instructors and students in the class where they can share experiences and those experiences arouse discussion. Literature might also present the

students diversities of English; linguistic and communicative enrichment can be obtained through literature, and it can develop students' critical thinking, inspiration and motivation as well. Literature assists learners gain a native like competency in English. They can convey their messages in English, learn the peculiarities of modern English, discover how the linguistic system of English works, notice how idiomatic expressions can be used, perceive how to speak clearly, precisely and concisely, and lastly studying literature provide learners to become more proficient in English; let them become creative, critical, and analytical learners (Obediat 1997, p.32).

English language teaching through literature helps students to widen their horizons by increasing their knowledge of the literature classics; to enlarge their general cultural and world knowledge together; to arouse their creative and literary imagination and to improve their enjoyment of literature; to acquaint students with the pieces of British and American literature works as an educational tool. Additionally, literary texts advance learners' aesthetic, intellectual and emotional growth so that the learner can express his or her own ideas through a creative, emotive use of language. Kelly et al, (1996, p.8) acknowledges that "Some of the major values of literature are enjoyment, aesthetics, understanding, imagination, information and knowledge, cognition, and language." He describes literature as a verbal art that is conducive to readers to appreciate the beauty of language.

Literature programs in any ELT curriculum are still a matter of discussion. Even though EFL research continuously examined its own practices in so many subfields, what literature might offer and how this potential can best be exploited remains in the background. Parallel to the available research literature on literature teaching in English as second and foreign language classrooms, the rationale behind teaching of literature must be clarified before any meaningful discussions can take place (Carter & Long, 1991; Maley, 2001). In this context, the attitudes of the fourth year students from English Language Department (ELT) at Uludağ University about literature teaching and literature courses need to be investigated. Therefore, this study aimed at investigating the following research question: What are the perspectives of the fourth year ELT students about literature and the use of literature in language teaching?

2. Methodology

2.1. Research Design

The study followed mainly quantitative method through administering the questionnaire in order to answer the above research question. In addition, qualitative method via semi- structured interview was also included to clarify the results emerged from the quantitative part.

2.2. Setting

In the second and third year of ELT program, there are three credit compulsory literature courses in the fall and spring term; namely, English Literature I, II; Short Story Analysis and Teaching; Poetry Analysis; Novel Analysis and Teaching. This study was conducted in Uludağ University Faculty of Education, ELT Programme during 2012-13 Academic Year Spring Semester.

2.3. Participants

The participants who responded in the questionnaire consisted of 75 senior students 51 of whom were female (68.0%) and 24 of whom were male (32.0%) enrolled in Uludağ University Faculty of Education English Language Teaching Program. Moreover, 8 student teachers were administered a semi-structured interview to triangulate the results obtained from the questionnaire. Since they all took the courses of "School Experience" and "Teaching Practice", they had opportunity to teach both primary school learners and high school learners. Therefore they could analyze which types of literature genres were applicable in the realms of language teaching.

2.4. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, the literature survey adapted from Ögeyik (2007), Yilmaz (2012) was improved and expanded and later on it was administered to the participants to find out the opinions of the senior students about the literature courses, literary texts, discourse and genres. They were asked to respond on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (Strongly agree) to 1 (Strongly disagree). The Literature Questionnaire is

comprised of eight associated components; namely, language enrichment, cultural competence, individual creativity, pragmatic sense of literary analysis, attitudes towards literary texts, attitudes towards literary genres, attitudes towards language skills, personal &educational development. The survey consists of 26 items, of which 5 items (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5) are related to language enrichment, 2 items (items 6, 7) to cultural competence, and 3 items (items 8, 9, 10) to individual creativity, 2 items (items 11, 12) to pragmatic sense of literary analysis, 4 items (items 13, 14, 15, 16) to attitudes towards literary texts component, 3 items (items 17, 18, 19) to attitudes towards literary genres component, 4 items (items 20, 21, 22, 23) to attitudes towards language skills component, and lastly, remaining 3 items (items 24, 25, 26) are related to personal& educational development. The reliability of the adapted and improved literature questionnaire revealed a Cronbach's alpha score of $\alpha = .70$ over 26 items by the researcher. This score indicated high reliability for the survey to be used in the study.

Furthermore, the interview questions consistent with the questionnaire items were asked to the interviewees to better understand the perspectives of the participants about literature and related courses placed in the teacher education program.

2.5 Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed via the SPSS program by using descriptive statistics to answer the first research question regarding the opinion of the participants. Moreover, content analysis was used to analyze the interview results.

3. Findings and Discussion

With regard to the fourth year students' perspectives about the literature and the use of literature in language teaching, Table 1 displays the frequency distribution of fourth year students' responses.

As shown in Table 1, 65.3% of the participants agree that literature teaching is beneficial for foreign language learning. A notable but not surprising finding is that a large number of students (81.3 %) state that reading literary texts has positive impacts on readers' vocabulary

knowledge. However, the participants are not so sure about the pleasure of reading literary texts rather than other types of texts (item 3); in that, 38.7 % of the students are undecided and 30.7 % of them disagree that reading literary texts is more enjoyable than reading other types of texts. In addition, 37.8 % of the participants are undecided about the pleasure of dealing with literary discourse. It can be inferred from this finding that due to sophisticated linguistic characteristics and lexical items of literary texts and discourse, participants do not prefer reading literary texts and enjoy dealing with literary discourse (Ögeyik, 2007). The responses given for item 13 which stresses the boring aspect of reading literary texts confirms the results of item 3 which focuses on the pleasure of reading literary texts. Moreover, with regard to item 4, 34.7% of the participants agree that reading explicit literary texts is more enjoyable than implicit texts while the same proportion of the participants were hesitant. Moreover, the participants are also confused about item 16 which is related to the difficulties of the implicit literary texts. 36.0 % of the students agree that implicit literary texts create difficulties to comprehend whereas 34.7% of the students were undecided. The interview results support this finding as it is seen in the below expression of interviewee 3:

> "We sometimes had difficulty in comprehending the texts in which words and phrases of old English are used. When I do not comprehend what is written, I mostly do not get pleasure from reading the text. The texts that I could understand are more enjoyable for me to read and synthesize".

Table 1. Senior Students' Responses

Components and Items	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
Language Enrichment					
1. Literature teaching is beneficial for foreign language learning	13.3	52.0	21.3	12.0	1.3
2. Reading literary texts has a positive effect on enriching vocabulary.	44.0	37.3	12.0	5.3	1.3
3. Reading literary texts is more enjoyable than reading other types of texts.	4.0	17.3	38.7	30.7	9.3
4. Reading explicit literary texts is more enjoyable than implicit texts	8.0	34.7	34.7	21.3	1.3
5. Literary discourse is enjoyable to deal with.	10.8	32.4	37.8	14.9	4.1
Cultural Competence					
6. Cultural competence is extended by means of literature teaching.	18.7	49.3	17.3	8.0	6.7
7. Cultural competence is not developed in literature courses.	5.4	17.6	12.2	54.1	10.8
Individual Creativity					
8. Reading literary texts increases creativity.	17.3	42.7	22.7	13.3	4.0
9. Reading implicit literary texts enhances creativity**.**	13.3	50.7	24.0	12.0	---
10. To comprehend any literary text does not enhance creativity.	4.1	6.8	23.0	52.7	13.5
Pragmatic sense of literary analysis					
11. Literary analysis at home is more difficult than the criticism in the classroom.	34.7	40.0	13.3	10.7	1.3
12. Literary analysis in the classroom is enjoyable.	44.0	44.6	17.6	12.2	5.4

Table 1. Senior Students' Responses (contd.)

Components and Items	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
Attitudes towards literary texts					
13. It is boring to read literary texts.	8.0	17.3	34.7	33.3	6.7
14. Reading literary texts in a foreign language is difficult to comprehend.	8.1	44.6	27.0	17.6	2.7
15. Vocabulary in literary texts may be difficult to learn.	12.2	52.7	17.6	14.9	2.7
16. Implicit literary texts create difficulties to comprehend	12.0	36.0	34.7	17.3	---
Attitudes towards literary genres					
17. Reading short story affects reading ability positively.	52.0	42.7	4.0	---	1.3
18. Reading novel affects reading ability positively.	34.7	49.3	14.7	---	1.3
19. Reading poetry affects reading ability positively.	20.0	53.3	17.3	6.7	2.7
Attitudes towards language skills					
20. Literature help improve specifically speaking	4.0	29.3	24.0	36.0	6.7
21. Literature help improve specifically listening	1.3	22.7	25.3	34.7	16.0
22. Literature help improve specifically writing	16.0	65.3	5.3	12.0	1.3
23. Literature help improve specifically reading	44.6	48.6	1.4	5.4	---
Personal & Educational Development					
24. I find studying literature in English personally rewarding	8.0	45.3	30.7	12.0	4.0
25. Pre-service teachers in the Department of English should have a chance to take more literature courses.	6.7	40.0	37.3	13.3	2.7
26. I can use the literary activities introduced in literature courses for my future English teaching.	6.7	38.7	41.3	10.7	2.7

The above expression indicates the necessity of providing support to learners to understand better what is written in the pieces of literary texts. Teachers of literature might design pre-reading activities or teach some reading strategies to enable readers to get more pleasure from dealing with literary texts.

Table 1 reveals that most of the participants (more than half of the students) approve the usefulness of literary courses with regard to cultural competence, and individual creativity. To illustrate, 68.0 % of the students believe that literature courses develop the cultural competency of a language learner and the responses for the item 7 support this notion of the participants. This result was in line with what the interviewees said. Most of them stated that literature enabled them to promote their personal development through cultural information they gain. Besides cultural aspect, learners get benefit from linguistic aspect of literature as mentioned by one of the interviewees (I3):

> "Literature improves our reading comprehension skills and mostly our vocabulary knowledge. If the courses are taught by following discussion techniques, our speaking skills might be improved".

As for the creativity aspect of literature, 64.0 % of the participants have positive feeling about especially the implicit reading texts' contribution to creativity. This finding signifies that implicit texts enable learners to introduce their own ideas and original interpretations of the text through analytical thinking.

In regard to the pragmatic sense of literary analysis, (items 11, 12) majority of the senior students (88.6 %) find it more enjoyable to analyze the literary texts in the classroom. As classroom creates communal feeling among language learners, they can share their novel thoughts with each other and this communion results in cooperative learning. The interview results provided details in the participants' reasons for getting more pleasure from analyzing texts in the classroom rather than at home. Interviewee 6 shared her views about the issue as follows:

> "Getting pleasure when reading texts at home is related to an individual's study habit. So as to compare home environment and classroom environment, it is clear that classroom environment is more beneficial for us due to variety of perspectives and background knowledge we have….."

Another interviewee (I7) stated as follows:

> "Sometimes my friend notices something that I could not realize and this provides me to have different evaluation and synthesis. Classroom discussion increases our communication".

When the participants' attitudes towards literary texts are scrutinized, (items 14, 15) slightly more than half of the students (52.7 %) state that it is difficult to comprehend literary texts in a foreign language. The reason behind this notion might be the difficulty and intricacy of lexical items in the literary texts. The responses for item 15 support this view of students.

Besides, the participants' attitudes towards literary genres (items 17, 18, 19) were questioned and the results indicate that among three literary genres, overwhelming number of students (94.7 %) favor short story most. Novel is the second genre which is favored respectively by the participants (84 %) and poetry is the least favored genre among those literary genres (73.3 %). The results reveal that participants are conscious about the effectiveness of short stories and novels on increasing their reading ability.

When the participants' attitudes towards language skills are examined, it is clear that students give weight to the reading skill. A large number of students (93.2 %) acknowledge that literature lends itself to reading. They claim that literature improves their reading skills considerably. Another substantial remark is that 81.3 % of participants perceive the worthy contribution of literature to the writing skill. According to results, the participants note that literature improves their speaking and listening skills less.

When this study and other studies in Turkey compared and examined, the findings obtained from this study are in line with Arıkan's study conducted at Hacettepe University, ELT Department and Ögeyik' study conducted at Trakya University, ELT Department in which participants favor short story most among other literary genres and thought that literature courses improve their vocabulary knowledge and develop their reading skill substantially. The interviewees gave their suggestions about how to get more benefits from the literature courses. Interviewee 5 declared his suggestions as follows;

> "Literature teachers should not direct us to rote learning through lecturing different text genres but with samples of different genres. I want to comment on the texts via my own words".

Lastly, the participants were asked to respond to the items related to literature's contribution to their personal and educational development (Items 24, 25, 26). The statistics reveal that they were not so sure or conscious about the usefulness of studying literature. Namely, while 45.3% of the students agree on the item 24 which means that the participants find studying literature in English personally rewarding, on the other hand, 30.7 % of the participants which is a considerable number, are undecided on this item. Regarding taking more literature courses (item 25), 40% of the participants agree whereas 37.3 % of them were undecided that pre-service teachers in the Department of English should have a chance to take more literature courses. Most of the interviewees emphasized the adequacy of the class hours but they claimed that they could analyze more short stories in the classroom. The demand of Interviewee 1 is quoted below:

> "…"Paradise Lost" was a very long but very fascinating novel I had ever read. I wish we had analyzed this novel in detail and discussed from various perspectives in the classroom. In conclusion, I am happy to have different literature genres in our program."

When the participants were asked whether they can use the literary activities introduced in literature courses for their future English teaching (item 26), they faced dilemma yet again. 41.3 % of the participants are undecided about and 38.7 % of the participants agree on the utility of literary activities for their future use in their English classes. The expressions of the interviewees indicated how they would integrate the literature into their teaching. Interviewee 2 explained her way of teaching as follows:

> "I could extract some patterns in short stories to design grammar activities particularly with regard to different tenses. Moreover, poems will be fascinating to introduce different words especially adjectives. I think using different genres in language teaching could take students' attention but I need to learn more techniques about how to integrate specific genres into my teaching".

As is seen in the above quotation, the participants think about and try to create ways of how to integrate literature into the ELT curriculum. However, they need more assistance to design literature-based English lessons.

4. Conclusion

The study revealed that literature and language are closely interlinked. Therefore, it is important to note that literature should not be taught in isolation to prospective language teachers just as the art of work instead they should be taught in a way that student teachers consider literature as rich input for not only developing themselves but also improving their language and their future learners' language . Moreover, to teach language effectively through literature, inspiring activities such as predicting and ending a story, role-playing by selecting some intriguing plays, integrating spelling with vocabulary, learning grammar through passages from literary texts, crossword puzzles, brainstorming, situational scenes forming the relevant connection between language and literature should be used in the class. All these activities make the teaching and learning of the language very productive and enjoyable.

The responses of fourth year students demonstrated that literature helps learners apprehend particularly in two primary skills, reading and writing in English which are very critical features of English language before they master the other skills. Therefore, teachers of English should endeavor to teach these two basic language skills both as a fundamental part of oral and written language use and as part of the way of generating both referential and interactional meaning. Furthermore, it can be concluded from the participants' responses in this study that among literary genres, especially short stories and novels are to be used for language teaching both as a literary experience and a language experience. Using short stories in a language classroom is a good resource for language learning. Learners get familiar with grammatical structures in contexts and they also learn about how to use the language through the study of short stories. In addition, the use of short stories also raises the students' awareness towards the target language and culture. As the second most favored literary genre among the senior students in this study, the use of a novel is a useful method for mastering not only linguistic system but

also life in relation with the target language. In novel, characters mirror what people really act in daily lives. Apart from this, novels not only depict but also illuminate human lives.

Integrating literature in English language teaching can be a stirring and thought- provoking experience and it can provide an interactive environment for learners so that they can get the chance of improving their communicative competence. Besides, literature allows students to question, interpret, connect and explore. A literature in language classes can make the learners vigorous and enthusiastic. English language teaching through literature enables learners to obtain rich linguistic input, as well as efficient stimuli for them to express themselves in other languages. By this way, literature can be a leading source of learner motivation. In conclusion, based on the results of this study, it is not wrong to answer "both" for the target question emphasized in the title as "Is literature the work of art or one of the sources of language teaching?" Learners just need to be guided to get more benefits from this universal term "literature".

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Beliefs Of Novice Public School Teachers About Internet Filtration In Schools

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Abstract

Computer use and Internet connection have become indispensable in education, and the trend is towards a more computerized education. However, the safety of Internet connection in schools is an issue of debate in many countries, including Turkey. Since it is teachers who are direct observers of students in the classroom, their skill level and beliefs about Internet filtration are important measures to be taken into account in education. With the aim of revealing teachers' beliefs about Internet filtration, the present study employed a questionnaire and interviews as data collection tools, and it was conducted with 20 primary and secondary in-service novice teachers in six Turkish public schools. The results showed that the teachers tend to support the filtration of the Internet in schools. They stated that the reason of their beliefs mostly arises from their experience and their predictions based on their classroom observations.

1. Introduction

The explosive spread of Internet use started in the late 1990s, and it has continued until today. The practicality of communication and the abundance of information on the web are intriguing for students, teachers and in the broader sense, education systems. Therefore, for more than a decade now, web has been a useful tool for facilitating education.

Surely, the learners' perception of Internet use is extensively different from teachers' perceptions. This paper presents a study that employs both qualitative and quantitative techniques to describe 20 English language teachers' cognition related to Internet use in Turkish public schools. In order to investigate the issue, following research questions were put forth: How often and at what level do English teachers at public schools use a computer connected to the Internet? What are their beliefs about Internet filtration in schools? Since there is no single theoretical framework for

studying language teacher cognition, the approach of the study and the terminology in this paper are mainly drawn from the social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the tension between personal cognitive and affective factors and environmental factors, and their relation with human behavior. We can safely say that one of the most important personal factors that influence teacher behavior is their beliefs. Therefore, this study first intends to describe teachers' Internet use behaviors and beliefs about Internet filtration, then to investigate the reasons of their beliefs.

2. Review of the literature

Internet use has become an indispensable part of young population's lives: 60% of children between the ages of 9 to 16 use the Internet daily in Europe, and 33% go online at least weekly (Livingstone, Haddon, Görzig & Olafsson, 2011). The proportion of Internet use, however, changes across countries: while 84% of children go online in Sweden, 33% of children go online in Turkey. Studies have revealed a number of motivations for children's Internet use: entertainment, online social interaction and accessing information (Valkenburg & Soeters, 2001). It is also a popular self-learning and development tool (Kerawalla & Crook, 2002).

In today's modern world, computer and the Internet is influential in every area of life including education. Nevertheless, Internet use in education is an area in which some institutions and individuals have been facing problems, especially in terms of unreliable information, addiction to the Internet and negative influences on social life (Weber & Dixon, 2007).

One concern about the use of Internet in schools is web protection. Web protection is most of the time provided by Internet filters. Internet filters are software programs that block access to inappropriate sites. Mostly, their function is checking the alphanumeric strings (certain word or number combinations) and preventing access to this area (Kaiser, 2000). The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) has a section about what tools schools use to protect students from the dangers on the web in the United States (US). According to 2005's report, 99% of the schools used blocking or filtering, 96% used staff supervision, 79 percent had a contract that parents had to sign and 67 percent had monitoring software. Bridges and Spirek (2006) conducted a survey study in Ohio State in USA

in order to see how schools protect learners from the dangers on the web. It was revealed that nearly all of the primary and secondary schools in Ohio State had an Internet use policy and filtering system. The results also showed that 72.80% of the respondents believed that teaching staff's supervision, policies and local filtering controls would protect students. In spite of the precautions, still 42% of the participants were concerned about students being exposed to pornography or child predators in the course of their education at school.

Akınoğlu (2009) surveyed the beliefs of teacher trainees about the use of the Internet. His descriptive data came from 185 teacher trainees who studied at Marmara University. The results showed that teacher trainees found the Internet useful mostly in terms of accessing information, easy communication, feeling free and educational opportunities. However, they thought it can be dangerous because it may cause loss of time, include pornographic content, encourage bad habits, and cause high telephone bills and addiction. They expressed that they mostly used it to send e-mails, surfing the web, looking for information, and reading the news. 29.5% of the teacher trainees thought that the information on the web is not reliable.

When it comes to the issue of education, the concerns of institutions are not related to addiction to the Internet, but to its content. Controlling the content of the web in schools is not an issue on which administrators, teachers and parents agree. Lambe and Lipke (2006) stated that the clash of ideas between people who support internet filtering because of the violence and pornographic content and who support anti-filtering because of freedom of access to information has always been a hot issue in the US. A study by Lambe and Lipke (2006) uses an experimental approach to test whether news framing influences people's support for filtering or not. Two articles were fabricated for the study, one supported filtering and the other opposed it. The pro-filtering group was given the article that supported filtering, the anti- filtering group was given the article that opposed filtering, and the control group did not receive any articles. The results showed that the group who received the article focusing on the importance of child protection tends to be more likely to support Internet filtering than the group who received the article emphasizing free expression. The anti-filter group showed significantly less support for filtering than the pro-filter and the control groups. Interestingly, the control and anti-filter

groups did not show a significant difference. This means that the real world media may have the same effect with the article that supports filtering or it may also mean that "encouraging filter" manipulation was not influential enough. The study concludes that, positively or negatively, public opinion is influenced by the media coverage.

Hall and Carter (2006) examined the constitutionality of Internet filtering in public schools from the US perspective. The researchers explain that the US perspective favors giving autonomy to schools in deciding whether to use a filter or not. The situation in Turkish public schools is different from that of the US. A standard Internet filtering software, Deepfreeze, is used in all public schools and the extent of blocking is determined by the Ministry of Education. This standard filter blocks most of the entertainment sites, social sharing sites and popular media sites. Hall and Carter (2006) discuss that such severe filtering would be impracticable and it would cause the loss of access to extensive amount of valuable information. Therefore, this should not be an option in schools.

Shearer (2010) stated that one of the concerns related to filtering is over filtering. Over filtering may hinder the use of useful tools such as blogs. Most of the filtering software disrupts the use of blogs because of their misunderstood content. He suggests that educators, administrators, and parents can communicate to expand the Internet access in order to include blogging. However, a study shows the passive attitude of Turkish citizens towards Internet censorship. Yalkin, Kerrigan and Lehn (2013) explored Turkish people's reactions to censorship on the Internet through in-depth interviews and online ethnography. The results indicated that although people think that their freedom to access information is reduced and the censorship in Turkey is a part of a larger ideological plan, they mostly respond to the censorship with irony as passive resistance or with seeking alternative ways to access the censored content.

3. Methodology

3.1.Research context, Purpose and Participants

The schools where the data came from are all primary-secondary joint public schools. They are located in İstanbul and Hatay. The purpose of this study is to reveal teachers' cognition about the factors that might be dangerous for students on the Internet, the possible things that students are vulnerable to on the web, and whether filtration can protect them or not.

The participants are 20 full time public school language teachers with an experience of one to three years. Their ages range between 23 and 31. There are 11 female and 9 male participants in this study. The selection of participants was convenience sampling because of time limitations and the difficulty of accessing public school teachers.

3.2.Data Collection Procedure, Analysis and Ethical Issues

A questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data about teachers' computer and Internet proficiency, and their beliefs about Internet filtering in schools. The questionnaires were sent via email and received back in a week via email. The questionnaire was adapted from International Technology & Internet Survey: OECS Secondary School Teachers (2003). It has two parts: the first one is related to the frequency and skill level of computer use of teachers, and the second part is related to the beliefs about Internet filtration in schools. It has both Likert type items and guided open questions.

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with three of the teachers. The aim was to elaborate on the reasons of the teachers' beliefs. The interviews took place in the schools a week after the questionnaires were received back. They were face-to-face and each lasted about 10-15 minutes. I took notes in the course of the interviews and showed my notes to the teacher for his/her confirmation.

A statistics software program, SPSS 20.0 was used to extract quantitative results. Answers were counted and grouped to see tendencies of the teachers. Interviews were analyzed qualitatively to make connections between the stated beliefs of teachers and their explanation for

these beliefs. To increase reliability, I asked for the opinions of a colleague during the analysis of the data from the interviews.

The promise was given to teachers that their name and other personal information would not be made public.

4. Results

4.1. The questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire was related to teachers' computer skills and computer use frequency. According to the reports of the teachers, all of the teachers use computers both at school and at home, but five of them also use a computer away from home or school. Except one, they all reported that they go online daily, and they also reported that computers with Internet connections are certainly necessary in schools. The questionnaire also reveals that teachers believe Internet connection is most necessary at home for students, and it is also important they can connect to the Internet somewhere in the school. However, only six of the teachers think that a computer with Internet connection is necessary in the classroom.

The first part of the questionnaire also shows that teachers are most skilled in using search engines on the web, which is not surprising because using search engines can be thought as the simplest one among the other purposes. Teachers reported that they are also efficient in file handling and word processing, both of which do not necessarily require an Internet connection. The moderately skilled areas were using databases with a score of 57 and handling presentation software with a score of 62. The less skilled area was reported as web authoring which includes building or publishing on web pages.

The second part of the questionnaire was about the beliefs of teachers about Internet filtration in schools. Among others, the item that would collect the intended information was mainly Item 14 on the questionnaire. The previous item, which is Item 13, sought whether teachers think the Internet should be filtered in schools, and if they think so, they were expected to answer Item 14. For Item 13, the answers can be grouped and summarized as below:

Table 1. Stated reasons of filtration necessity

Number of teachers	*Stated reasons*
1	The aim should only be education in school, nothing else.
5	Students can be easily distracted.
7	Harmful content can influence students' psychological development.
5	False information and fraud.
1	Some content is not appropriate for their ages.
1	Filtration is useless because students will find a way anyway.

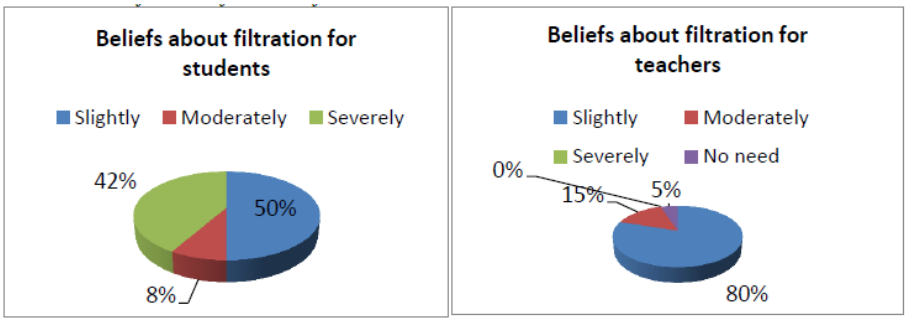
Item 14

14. If you think that the Internet should be filtered in schools, choose one option for teachers and one for students.

The Internet should be filtered	**Slightly** (Filtering only some specific type of sites such as gaming and porn sites)	**Moderately** (Filtering a larger type of sites including social communication and popular media sites (facebook.com and hurriyet.com.tr))	**Severely** (Allowing access to only specific sites such as those related to education and culture (vitaminegitim.com)
For students	☐	☐	√
For teachers	√	☐	☐

Item 14 aims to reveal teachers' opinions about at what level the Internet should be filtered -slightly, moderately or severely. The explanations of each option were provided to prevent any confusion, for example, severe filtration means allowing access to only specific sites such as those related to education and culture. Teachers would answer the item for both students and teachers so that we can see whether teachers think they should be treated differently on Internet use issue in schools. The pie charts below summarize the information.

Table 2. Beliefs about filtration for students and teachers



Half of the teachers believed that the Internet should be slightly filtered, which means blocking only some sites such as gaming or porn sites. A close number of teachers, interestingly, held the idea of severe filtration. Just two teachers (8%) thought that the Internet should be moderately filtered. On the other hand, more teachers thought that the filtration should be slight for them. The rest of the teachers believed that the filtration should be moderate or there is no need for filtration for teachers. However, none of the teachers reported that the filtration should be severe for them.

In Item 15, teachers stated the barriers between them and connecting to the Internet. They were informed that they can choose more than one barrier. The table below shows how many times each barrier was chosen by teachers.

The table shows that teachers see filtration and dangers from the web as the most important barriers between themselves and the Internet. The table also shows that being busy and computer unavailability are also frequently stated barriers. The right column of the table shows the mean scores when the numbers of barriers are distributed for each person.

Table 3. Barriers to use the Internet

Scale	*N*	*Sum*	*Mean*
security	20	9	,45
unability	20	3	,15
being busy	20	7	,35
computer unavailability	20	7	,35
Internet unavailability	20	3	,15
filtration	20	9	,45
no need	20	0	,00
no interest	20	3	,15

A correlation co-efficient was also calculated to see whether female and male teachers think differently on the filtration issue, i.e. whether one group supports filtering more than the other. No significant relation between gender and filtering support was found, which means the two groups do not significantly differ in their beliefs about Internet filtration in schools, $r(18)=0.149$, not significant at $p<.05$.

4.2. Interviews

The main objective of the interviews was to learn the underlying reasons of teachers' beliefs about Internet filtration in schools. Three teachers were interviewed for about 15 minutes each.

The interviews revealed that all three teachers think that the Internet should be filtrated in schools because of different reasons. For example, one of the teachers, Ümit, reported that YouTube should not be filtered because he uses it in the classroom to show some videos to his students. On the other hand, the other two teachers, Müge and Yeliz, reported that allowing YouTube is risky because children may search for any kind of videos including inappropriate ones. The most popular social sharing site, Facebook, is another controversial issue. While Yeliz and Müge stated that it should be allowed because they themselves also want to use it in school and it is natural for children too, Ümit said that it should not be allowed either for students or teachers because it would be time consuming.

All of the teachers reported that filtration for teachers can be lighter than the one for students. They also reported that they are contended with

the existing level of filtration which is actually slightly more generous than teachers want. For example, Müge stated that teachers should not be able to play games or shop online in schools, but the existing filtration software allows users to shop online. Müge also added that the issue of filtration should be taken more seriously because with the Fatih project (an educational attempt to deliver computers to students countrywide), all students will have their own tablet computers in school. She suggested that they will need to be supervised carefully.

Teachers differently responded to the question "Why do they think in the way they do?" i.e. what is the reason of their beliefs. Ümit explained that the reason for his beliefs is his experiences. He said:

> In many instances, I saw students with smart phones trying to display or download inappropriate content. That's why I believe so. If I had not seen those things, I would not be that harsh on this issue.

Müge, on the other hand, said that she does not trust children. She explained:

> I don't know why, but I just don't trust them. I really did not have bad experiences with them, but I still don't trust them. I feel that if you give a slight chance [referring to the chance of freedom on the web], they will directly try to go for the dangerous content.

The reason for Müge's beliefs was because of another belief of hers about children. She believed that they are not trustworthy. However, she could not make clear why she does not trust students. Possible reasons might be her being influenced by what she hears from people about students or influenced by media as in Lambe and Lipke's study (2006).

Yeliz explained that she knows how curious children are, so she predicts that this curiosity may lead children to explore inappropriate content on the web. So, her beliefs arise from her notions about students. All three teachers stated different reasons for their beliefs, but none of them expressed religious reasons. I overtly asked whether their ideas about filtration are influenced by their religious beliefs, and they answered "no". As a matter of fact, there might be other secondary reasons shaping teachers' beliefs, but they may not be aware of it (Borg, 2006). For example, media coverage, friends' opinions, government policies etc. may influence one's ideas about content censorship on the web.

5. Discussion

Based on the results, it seems that although the participants cannot go online everywhere they want, most of them go online daily. The frequency of connecting to the Internet may be related to the participants' age range, i.e. they are mostly young teachers who tend to use the Internet more frequently than the older population. Moreover, although 33% of children went online in Turkey in 2011 (Livingstone et al., 2011), this number may have increased since then. This would comply with the worldwide trend of gradually increased use of the Internet.

Harmful content, false information and fraud are reported to be the reasons of teachers' support for Internet filtration in schools. In the recent years, we have seen a number of news related to Internet fraud in Turkish media. Furthermore, with the conservative government in the country, people's religious feelings seem to be awakened in recent years, and such promotion of religious content is highly reflected on Turkish televisions and newspapers. There is a possibility that the media in Turkey influence people's thoughts on Internet filtration. Therefore, harmful content (which is understood as porn most of the time) may be becoming totally unacceptable and is responded with hatred, and the news about Internet fraud may be frightening people because of the possible dangers. Influenced by the media cover, teachers may have stated those reasons as dangers for children.

The results show that teachers' beliefs about the extent of the filtration are on the two different extremes. 50% of the teachers support the idea of slight filtration, which is the blocking of specific type of sites such as gaming and porn sites; on the other hand, 42% of the teachers think that the Internet should be severely filtrated, which is allowing only some type of webpages. However, only 8% of the teachers report that it should be moderately filtrated. Depending on the interviews, the reason might be teachers' experiences. It is possible that when a teacher experiences something dangerous like a student displaying a violent content, he/she passionately supports the idea that the blocking should be severe in schools. If he/she has not had such an experience, he/she thinks it can be necessary to filter, but there is no need for severe precautions. Moreover, teachers' support for slight or no filtration for themselves may be seen as

an evidence for this explanation because they do not differ in their opinion in the case of themselves.

The reported barriers to Internet use can be interpreted as a reflection of the web characteristics in Turkey. The most important barriers were reported as filtration and security, which reflects the high filtration nationwide by Telekomünikasyon Daire Başkanlığı (The Official Unit for Telecommunication) and the unsecure web. Web protection against fraud and Internet viruses does not seem to be given enough importance in Turkey. As an extension of this, possibly teachers reported the filtration and security barriers as important.

The interviews revealed that teachers' beliefs arise from different reasons such as experience, other beliefs and notions. Ümit's experience with his students leads him to think in the way he does. On the other hand, Müge explains that her belief arises from her thought that children are not trustworthy, which probably comes from her life experience. Yeliz bases her belief on the general knowledge that children are curious, so they will search for any kind of content. One can make an inference that beliefs are formed based on many different factors or a combination of factors that include both professional and life experiences. This highly agrees with the inference that "teachers' cognitions are shaped by the totality of teachers' lived experiences and that professional development experiences" by Borg (2006, p.107).

6. Implications

A large scale of such research may have lots of implications on educational decisions. The most apparent implication would be taking into account teachers' cognitions about Internet filtering before deciding what kind of Internet should be provided to public schools because teachers are the ones who most closely observe what is going on in the classroom and in the school in general. Replicable results about teacher beliefs will also inform researchers who will design their further studies accordingly. Replication of such research will show us how cognitions of teachers change in the course of the time on a specific issue, and the possible reasons for the change. This kind of information is very important in the solution of an unprecedented problem in creating educational systems, technological support and teacher education programs.

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Using Digital Storytelling To Develop Writing Skill Of Prep Students

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Abstract

Thanks to the technological tools, language learners have had the chance to improve their skills. Writing, as a productive skill, has also welcomed new ways of development. When the studies on this topic are taken into consideration, it has been found out that instructors used word processors (Bangert-Drowns, 1993), world wide web (Owston, 1997) and various technological tools (Arafeh et al. 2008; Kutlu, 2013 among others). Under these circumstances, the aim of the present study is to investigate the effects of digital storytelling on the development of writing skill among prep students. The number of the student participants is 65, and these students have been separated as control and experimental groups. Experimental group has used social software to attract the attention of young adults in order to make them willing to use digital storytelling. In the social software page of experimental group, they have been given open ended sentences, and they have been asked to write comments about these sentences to form a story. At the end of the study, the students have been given a open ended questionnaire to make out their attitudes towards digital storytelling, while control group used traditional storytelling techniques to develop their writing skill. According to the results of the study, the students of the experimental group have positive attitudes towards using digital storytelling for developing writing skill. This result paves the way for the use of digital storytelling to develop writing skill.

1. Introduction

The pace of technological development has led to changes in classroom settings. With the help technology, language learners have adopted new ways for developing their language skills. Receptive language skills (O Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007; de la Fuente, 2012; Graves & Sales & Lawrenz & Robelia, & Richardson, 2010; Lai, 2013) as well as productive language skills (Lee & Liang, 2012; Pop & Tomuletiu,

& David, 2011) have welcomed the integration of technology. When the studies on writing, as a productive skill, are taken into consideration, it has been found out that instructors used word processors (Bangert-Drowns, 1993), world wide web (Owston, 1997) and various technological tools (Arafeh, Smith, & Macgill, 2008; Kutlu, 2013).

In the light of previous research, it can be said that technology contributed to the development of writing skill in many studies. Among these studies, Siragusa (2011) examined students' behaviors about online academic programs, and it has been found out that though students felt nervous at the beginning of the program, their attitudes became positive at the end. Yunus, Nordin, Salehi, Sun, and Embi (2013) also pointed out that with the help of information and communication technologies, students have the chance to relate what they learn about writing skill in an easier way since these technologies are more interesting. In her study, Greenfield (2003) used collaborative e-mail, and she has highlighted that the students enjoyed and supported the idea. Under these circumstances, it is obvious that using technology has the chance to yield fruitful results. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to find out the effects of a digital storytelling tool on the development of writing skill among preparatory students.

2. Methodology

2.1. Method

The method of the present study includes quantitative and qualitative research techniques. For the collection of qualitative data, general attitude items have been gathered thanks to the questionnaire prepared by the researcher. The questionnaire also included three open-ended questions, which enabled students to express their ideas and comments.

2. 2. Participants

The number of the student participants is 120. They are the preparatory class students of a private university, Mersin/Turkey. 60 of the participants took part in the control group, while the other half of the students took part in the experimental group. The students' English proficiency level is A2 according to Common European Framework for the Reference of Languages (2001).

2. 3. Tools

As for the creation of digital storytelling, students signed up to a social software group. Once they completed their story by writing comments, an online wall creator program (see the References) was used to create a digital story. In this program, students had the chance to see their product in the form of a story. The screenshot from the tool can be seen in Figure 1.



Figure 1. The screenshot from the storytelling tool

Figure 1 illustrates the beginning of a story in class. Since the link of the wall never changes, students have the chance to see their product whenever they want. Therefore, the wall also allows the students to study on writing a coherent story outside the classroom settings.

2. 4. Procedure

As for the present study, participants were separated as control and experimental groups. A social software was used for the experimental group to attract the attention of the students-learners in order to make them willing to use digital storytelling. In the social software page of the experimental group, they were given open ended sentences, and they were asked to write comments about these sentences to form a story, while the control group used traditional storytelling techniques to develop their writing skill. At the end of the study, the students were given a questionnaire to make out their attitudes towards digital storytelling.

3. Results and Discussion

The results of the present study were gathered thanks to a questionnaire. In this questionnaire, students were asked to choose the best option to indicate their attitudes about digital storytelling project. The results for the first item in the questionnaire are as follows.

Table 1. Ideas about using only coursebook for developing writing skill

I prefer to have only coursebook for writing classes.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Control	38.6%	29.5%	18.2%	4.5%	9.1%
Experimental	57.1%	30.6%	8.2%	0%	%4.1

According to Table 1, it can be said that 87.7% of the students in the experimental group do not prefer to use only coursebook, while 68.1% of the students in the control group do not prefer to use coursebook. Hence, the results indicate that most of the participant students are not eager to use only coursebook for the development of writing skill. Table 2 below illustrates the ideas about using a technological tool for writing skill.

Table 2. Ideas about using technology for developing writing skill

I prefer to use technological tools for writing classes.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Control	11.4%	6.8%	20.5%	25%	36.4%
Experimental	6.1%	4.1%	12.2%	42.9 %	34.7%

In line with the data in Table 2, it is clear that not only control group students (51.4%) but also experimental group students (77.6%) prefer to use technological tool for writing classes. However, it has been found that more students are undecided (20.5%) about using technology in the control group when compared with the experimental group (12.2%). Table 3 represents the findings about completing a story in writing classes.

Table 3. Ideas about completing stories for developing writing skill

It is fun to complete a story and write a story in writing classes.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
Control	18.2%	4.5%	20.5%	27.3 %	29.5%
Experimental	4.1%	0%	20.4%	51%	24.5%

As can be seen in Table 3, the students in the control group (56. 8%) do not prefer to write a story as much as the students in the experimental group do (75.5%). Despite the fact that they did the same activity, their attitudes were different. This percentage difference can become because of the fact that experimental group students had the storytelling process with technology. Table 4 shows the attitudes towards writing stories as an additional activity.

Table 4. Ideas about writing stories as an additional activity for developing writing skill

If I write a story in addition to studying with coursebook, I will be more successful in writing classes.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
Control	22.7%	13.6%	20.5%	27.3%	15.9%
Experimental	8.2%	2%	18.4%	44.9%	26.5%

According to the figures in Table 4, it can be seen that most of the students in the experimental group (71.5%) have positive attitudes towards writing stories as an additional activity, while fewer students (43.2%) in

the experimental group have positive attitudes. This can be interpreted as the influence of technological tools. The ideas of the students indicate the need for a storytelling activity. Table 5 illustrates the need for using technological tools to develop writing skill.

Table 5. The need for using technological tools to develop writing skill

I need to use technological tools to develop writing skill.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
Control	15.9%	6.8%	25%	18.2%	34.1%
Experimental	8.2%	6.1%	16.3%	42.9%	26.5%

The data in Table 5 points out that 52.3% of the students in the control group have positive attitudes towards using technology to develop their writing skill, while 69.4% of the students in the experimental group have positive attitudes. As a further analysis of their attitudes, the students were given open-ended questions and the results of these questions in both groups are presented in Figure 2.

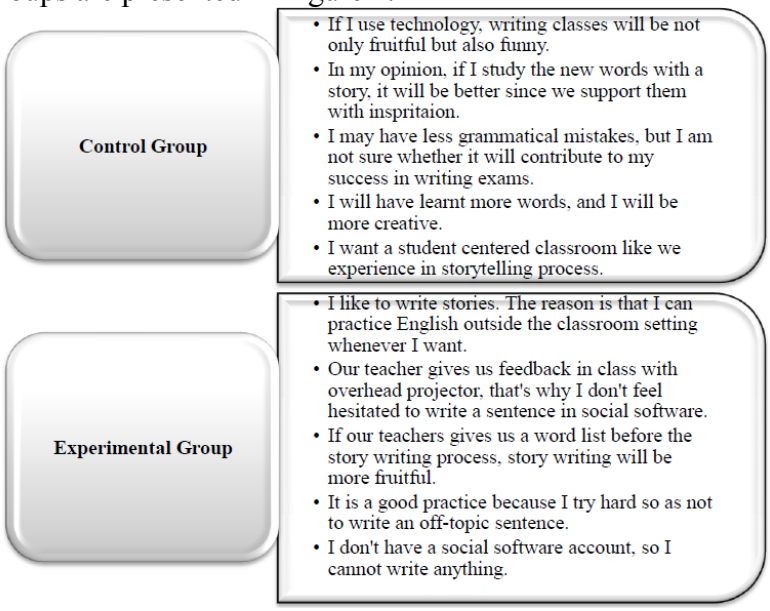

Figure 2. The ideas of the students in control and experimental groups

According to the ideas of the students, technology seems to be a solution for them to solve their problems about writing skills. The students of the control and experimental group reported that technology could make their lessons funny, fruitful, and creative. However, the control group students are not sure about its effects on their success. Although they think so, some of them also reported that they liked storytelling, and they wanted a student-centered classroom with storytelling activities. On the other hand, experimental group students pointed out that they practiced English outside the classroom setting, and this helped them. Furthermore, they enjoyed having feedback with overhead projector, and they learnt how to write a coherent text. The students in experimental group reported problems, too. Some of them said that they did not have social software accounts; therefore, they could not write anything. These students had to contribute to the story with the accounts of the other students. Last but not least, they stated that they needed a word list about the story.

The results of the present study are consistent with studies in the field. Cahill and Catanzoro (1997) conducted a study with traditional and experimental groups, and found that online students' performance was better than traditional students' performance. In a similar study, Al-Jarf (2002) concluded that online instruction is fruitful for writing classes. Therefore, this study serves as a case study to point out the fruitful effects of technology on writing skill.

4. Conclusion

According to the results of the study, the students of the experimental and control groups have positive attitudes towards using storytelling for developing writing skill. In addition, control group students pointed that digital storytelling would be more beneficial for them. The instructors who studied with control group pointed out that the students learnt that the other classes were studying with technology, and they also wanted to use these tools for writing classes. This result paves the way for the use of digital storytelling to develop writing skill. In that sense, it is clear that students enjoyed the writing process with stories no matter how they studied.

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An Analysis Of Lexical Errors Of Turkish University Students Learning English

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Abstract

The present study aimed to find what kind of lexical errors Turkish learners of English make and to what extent the lexical errors of those students stem from L1 transfer. It was conducted with 16 students studying at English preparatory school of a private university in Turkey. The opinion essays written by the participants as a course requirement were collected and analyzed using Hemchua and Schmitt's (2006) taxonomy that they developed by drawing mainly from James (1998) and adding 'meaning' parts from Leech (1991). The taxonomy suggests 2 main categories (formal errors and semantic errors) and 24 sub-categories under those two main categories. The lexical errors were analyzed by the researcher placing them into those categories and counted using error count framework developed by the same researchers. The results show that the Turkish learners of English have a great tendency to make translations from L1 (26 errors out of 100 errors detected) and they also misspell the words, use wrong synonyms, select words with wrong meanings and use wrong prepositions in the sentences they form. All of the errors alert the need for providing specific instruction about the differences between lexical and sentential structures of Turkish and English, meaning and usage of the words and vocabulary learning strategies in teaching environments. For further research, having more participants from different backgrounds and having participants who have different levels of proficiency are suggested.

1. Introduction

Language learning has to include making errors because of the nature of learning. It is not possible to learn anything without making errors because they are the most useful sources to reach correctness. As Corder (1967) states, "a learner's errors… are significant in (that) they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what

strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language" (p.167). So, it is an inevitable part of both learning and teaching, especially in second language acquisition. When language is thought as a whole in terms of making errors, it is also a necessity to focus on each language skill because as Ellis (1994) states, "Learners make errors in both comprehension and production". Analyzing errors in each language skill separately, namely reading, listening, speaking, writing, gives a clear description of the way that learners learn a language and what they need more to improve it. Productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) may be suggested as the main sources of learners' errors as they are the skills in which learners show what they have learned in that language and inevitably make errors. The learners make many different types of errors (e.g. grammatical errors, lexical errors, syntactic errors) during the learning process. Lexical errors can be suggested as the most important ones among all the types because the words are the ones that carry the intended message (Schmitt & Hemchua, 2006). A syntactic error can be compensated and tolerated but it is not the case for lexical ones because lexical errors may change all the interpretations made, especially the ones made for the written texts. Such situations alert the need for gaining a deep understanding of lexical errors of L2 learners. To gain this, the errors of the learners should be analyzed carefully and in detail.

2. Literature Review

There are many research studies conducted to find out different error types of L2 learners. However, most of the research on written errors of L2 learners studied various aspects together, while some of them focused only on lexical errors (Llach, 2004; Hang, 2005; Schmitt & Hemchua, 2006; Salem, 2007; Kırkgöz, 2010; Hong, Rahim, Hua & Salehuddin, 2011; Mahmoud, 2011; Koban, 2011; Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012; Erkaya, 2012). The lexical errors of Spanish (Llach, 2004), Cantonese (Hang, 2005), Thai (Schmitt & Hemchua, 2006), Hebrew (Salem, 2007), Malaysian (Hong et al., 2011) and Arab (Mahmoud, 2011; Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani, 2012) learners of English were analyzed in the previous studies and they present different problems of L2 learners with lexical items while they are writing in English. Other previous studies have participants who are Turkish learners of English (Kırkgöz, 2010; Koban, 2011; Erkaya, 2012) and explain the errors of those learners in terms of

being interlingual and intralingual. Since the two categories are not enough to get a deeper understanding of lexical errors, these studies need a complementary research study focusing on lexical errors of Turkish learners of English in a more detailed way.

Being among the studies conducted with L2 learners who are native speakers of different languages, Llach's (2004) study found a systematic relationship between the percentage of lexical errors, the percentage of lexical error types and quality of composition by analyzing compositions of Spanish students learning English. He classified the errors of learners as semantic errors, syntactic errors, orthographic errors and pragmatic errors. Semantic errors were found to be the most important determiner for the quality of compositions and it is suggested that teachers can count on objective evaluation criteria based on the percentage of lexical errors. The implications of the study are very important to assess the written product of students. However, for a deep analysis of lexical errors, a more detailed classification is needed.

Hang's (2005) study is conducted with the students who are native speakers of a different language and analyzed Cantonese ESL students' writing with the aim of discussing the classification and frequency of lexical errors as a research tool to identify the problem of learner data in second language data. The errors of students were detected under two categories: lexical choice and lexical form. The results show that Cantonese students commit lexical choice errors more than lexical form errors, which alerts the problem of L2 learner s about choosing the right word to give the right intended meaning. As the meaning of a word has also different aspects, a more detailed study is needed to see where the actual problems of those learners lie.

In another lexical-focused study, Schmitt and Hemchua (2006) indicate that lexical errors need special attention as the lexical items are the most important elements to convey the intended message and if there is an error, it directly can lead to misunderstanding. In their study, English compositions of 20 students were collected and analyzed by two native-English teachers categorizing them according to the taxonomy the researchers developed using James's (1998) and Leech's (1981) categories. The results suggest that the similarity of form, parts of speech and misspellings are serious problems for Thai students and Thai language

was not the major factor in the lexical errors. It is very clear that different studies conducted with different L1 background students will add new views to the study because it is impossible to generalize the error for every L2 learner.

Salem (2007), in his error-gravity study, explains the analysis of written errors of Hebrew-speaking EFL learners made by English teachers in Israel and abroad. The judgments of the teachers about the categorization of errors showed that grammar and lexis are interrelated. Salem (2007) notes '… that many, or most, advanced learners' linguistic deviances cannot be explicitly labeled as grammatical or lexical. Rather, errors possess various degrees of 'word sensitivity', depending on the extent of the generalizability of the rule infringed.' (p.218). Although he indicates that grammatical and lexical errors should be considered interdependently, in order to address the lexical problems of learners in a deeper sense, separate thought of each is needed.

While analyzing errors, as suggested by Brown (1980), two main sources are addressed: interlingual and intralingual errors. There are many research studies focusing on these two sources. Hong et al. (2011), whose study was based on the Interlanguage theory and Error Analysis framework, employed a corpus-based method to investigate the types and sources of verb-noun collocational errors of Malaysian learners of English. The corpus consisting of 130 essays written by learners was employed to conduct the analysis. The findings indicate that the one occurring most frequently is the preposition-related collocational errors. Intralingual transfer was found to be the most prominent source of collocational errors. It is stated in the study that the errors tend to be fossilized as they are common. The study reminds us the need to be careful both for the detection and the attitude of learners towards the errors.

Mahmoud's (2011) study addressing same category of errors is conducted with Arab learners of English. Most of the errors detected were due to wrong word choice and it is claimed that all vocabulary errors in foreign language learning are because of the superordinate strategy of association including interlingual and intralingual association, for this reason teaching word meaning by means of interlingual and intralingual contrastive comparison is suggested.

Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani (2012) aimed to analyze Arab learners' only semantic errors, classify them and to search for their possible L1 and L2 reasons, unlike the other studies focusing on different aspects in students' writing. It is found that L1 based sources of errors are the strategies used by the learners such as translating from Arabic and applying Arabic rules to English while they are writing essays in English and the main L2 based source is having false conceptions of the way meaning networks work in English. It is also found that the Arab learners tend to omit the letters in English during writing and they have serious problems with the selection of prefix and suffixes. The study shows how native language shapes the way students think about the words in L2 while writing in L2.

As the present study mainly focuses on Turkish learners of English, the previous studies conducted with Turkish students were also reviewed. Kırkgöz (2010) investigated the types of written errors of Turkish students whose proficiency level is beginner under two main categories, interlingual and intralingual and she states '… the early stages of language learning are characterized by a predominance of interlingual errors.' (p.4357). The study emphasizes the importance of the proficiency level of students for further studies because the level of proficiency has a major impact on the errors made by students.

Koban (2011) focused on grammatical and lexical errors in her study that was conducted with Turkish students learning English as a second language abroad. The errors were analyzed in 17 compositions of Turkish students to determine if they are interlingual and intralingual errors. The results indicate that the errors related to morphology, tense, prepositions and verb forms are mostly related to the forms of English; whereas errors in lexicon and word order are caused by interference from Turkish, and the errors in the article system and syntax are caused by interference from both Turkish and English. This gives a detailed explanation of what kind of errors are indicators of what kind of interference. Similar to this study, Erkaya (2012) identified errors of Turkish students in lexicon, grammar and syntax in terms of global and local errors and it supports the finding of Koban (2011), which states that most of the lexical errors stem from L1 interference. L1 interference is found to be a great obscure for Turkish learners especially when they are trying to use prepositions in their English

compositions. It is claimed that the spelling is not a significant problem, unlike Thai students mentioned above, for the Turkish students as they pay close attention to it but this finding needs to be supported by other studies conducted with learners from the same background.

2.1. The Present Study

Although there are various research studies conducted to gain insights into the lexical errors of second language learners more research is needed to get more detailed information about the lexical errors and their frequency for Turkish learners of English. In order to achieve this, the following questions were investigated in this study:

1. What type(s) of lexical errors do the Turkish speaking university students make when writing English essays?

2. To what extent do the errors stem from L1 transfer?

3.Method

3.1. Participants

The participants were sixteen university students who were similar in age, ranging from 18 to 20 years old, and studying upper-intermediate level at the English language preparatory school of a Turkish university. They took an online placement exam at the beginning of the academic year to be placed into the classes of their own level of proficiency. At the time of data collection, they had already completed other levels (i.e. elementary, pre- intermediate, intermediate) and passed successfully their end-of-module exams to start to study upper- intermediate level.

The participants studied each level (i.e. elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate) for six weeks and they had six hours in a week allocated for writing. Writing classes were conducted together with reading exercises. Each week, they wrote one draft in the target essay type in the light of the information they received through reading texts and exercises. The drafts were collected, given feedback and redistributed by the teacher to make students write a second draft of the essay. The last versions of the essays were collected and graded by the teacher at the end of each week. For this

study, only first drafts of the students were analyzed as they had no correction and were the ones that had the actual data about the lexical errors of the learners.

3.2. Data Collection

The participants were presented different controversial topics to choose from and write an opinion essay about. Without consulting their dictionaries, they wrote opinion essays of around 200 words during class time (45 minutes). The mean length of 16 essays is 225.8 words (min = 130 and max = 350).

3.3. Data Analysis

The essays of the participants were analyzed by the researcher who is a native speaker of Turkish and had experience in teaching English. The analysis was done to find out the types of lexical errors and their frequencies.

For the classification of the errors, the framework developed by Schmitt and Hemchua (2006) was used. These researchers expanded it by mainly drawing from James's (1998) lexical error taxonomy and by also including two types of 'meaning' by Leech (1981). The errors were classified into two main categories: formal errors and semantic errors. Under these two main categories, there are also 24 sub-categories. The categories in this framework are described below with examples.

FORMAL ERRORS

1. Formal misselection

1.1. The suffix type: The words have same root, but different suffixes. *danger/ dangerous*

1.2. The prefix type: The words have same root, but different prefixes. *consumption/resumption/assumption**

The vowel-based type: *seat/set, manual/menial***

1.3. The consonant-based type: *save/safe, three/tree**

1.4. False friends: *Thai 'serious' = stressed**

2. Misformations (interlingual)

2.1. Borrowing: L1 words are used without any change. *I shoot him with gun in kopf. (In German kopf=head)***

2.2. Coinage: Inventing a word from L1. *Smoking can be very nocive to health. (In Portuguese nocivo=harmful)***

2.3. Calque: Translation of a word or a phrase from L1 words. *If a mother doesn't interest her child.. (If a mother doesn't take care of her child)*

3. Distortions (intralingual)

3.1. Omission: *acording → according*

3.2. Overinclusion: *theese→ these*

3.3. Misselection: *devorce → divorce*

3.4. Misordering: *littel → little***

3.5. Blending: *stressfull → stress + full*

SEMANTIC ERRORS

1. Confusion of sense relations

1.1. Using a superonym for a hyponym. *We have modern equipment (appliance) in our house.**

1.2. Using a hyponym for a superonym. *The colonels (officers) live in the castle.**

1.3. Using in-appropriate co-hyponyms. *I think the city has good communication (transportation) such as buses.**

1.4. Using a wrong near synonym. *Their only cause (reason) is work.*

2. Collocation errors

2.1. Semantically determined word selection. *It can be (have) bad affect on children.*

2.2. Statistically weighted preferences. *This must be thought with a huge thought. (deep thought is preferred).*

2.3. Arbitrary combinations and irreversible biominals. *hike-hitch (hitch-hike).**

2.4. Preposition partners: *she doesn't spare time to (for) her child*.

3. Connotative meaning

Connotative meaning seems to add something new and also covers conceptual meaning. *There are lots of (sports) branches.*

4. Stylistic errors

4.1. Verbosity: *I informed my girlfriend of the party through the medium of telephone.**

4.2. Underspecification: *The countries in which gay marriages are allowed are less.. (the number of countries in which gay marriages are allowed are lower..)*

Error count

Error count needs to be explained because the errors do not consist of only individual items as it can be seen in the examples that are used to describe the framework. They can be individual words, phrases or whole sentences. For this reason; they were counted at three levels: word level, phrasal level and sentential level using Schmitt and Hemchua's (2006) error count framework.

- Individual lexical items (ex. They must work for their child's requirement (needs)) - Phrases (ex. She has a good situation. (She has good financial sources))

- A whole sentence (ex. The countries in which gay marriages are allowed are less.. (the number of countries in which gay marriages are allowed are lower..))

Apart from levels of the errors, the following were also taken into account as Schmitt and Hemchua (2006) suggest in their error count framework:

- In case of multiple errors found in a phrase, they were counted separately. (ex. People who use drugs kill with time (die in time).)

This sentence has two errors. 'Kill' for 'die' is one error and 'kill with time' is another error at phrasal level.

- Identical errors were counted as one error if they were done by the same student as repeated errors just rise the frequency, they don't give any further information about common errors of the learners.

4. Results

The present study aimed to get a deeper insight to lexical errors of Turkish learners of English and analysed 16 opinion essays written by Turkish university students. 100 lexical errors were detected, as it is shown in Table 1. On average, each paper has 6.17 errors. The most frequent error is 'calque' error (26%) and most of the papers have this error (56,25%). Some error types are very common (omission, misselection, near synonyms, semantic word selection and preposition partners) whereas some are infrequent (suffix type, coinage, overinclusion, blending, statistically weighted preferences, connotative meaning and underspecification). Also, there are some error categories which have no occurrence at all (prefix type, vowel- based, consonant based, false friends, borrowing, misordering, general term for specific one, overly specific term, inappropriate co-hyponyms, arbitrary combinations and verbosity). These findings indicate that there are certain types of errors that need special attention of the instructors.

Table 1. Frequency of Lexical Errors of Turkish Students

Error types	Number of errors (N=100)	Percentages	Number of papers containing error (N=16)	Percentages
FORMAL ERRORS				
1.Formal misselection				
1.1. Suffix type	2	2%	2	12,5%
1.2. Prefix type	0		0	
1.3. Vowel-based type	0		0	
1.4. Consonant-based type	0		0	
1.5. False friends	0		0	
2. Misformations				
2.1. Borrowing	0		0	
2.2. Coinage	2	2%	2	12,5%
2.3. Calque	26	26%	9	56,25%
3. Distortions				
3.1. Omission	6	6%	5	31,25%
3.2. Overinclusion	2	2%	2	12,5%
3.3. Misselection	11	11%	7	43,75%
3.4. Misordering	0		0	
3.5. Blending	1	1%	1	6,25%
SEMANTIC ERRORS				
1.Confusion of sense relations				
1.1. General term for specific one	0		0	
1.2. Overly specific term	0		0	
1.3. Inappropriate co-hyponyms	0		0	
1.4. Near synonyms	25	25%	12	75%
2. Collocation errors				
2.1. Semantic word selection	11	11%	8	50%
2.2. Statistically weighted preferences	1	1%	1	6,25%
2.3. Arbitrary combinations	0		0	
2.4. Preposition partners	12	12%	8	50%
3. Connotative meaning	1	1%	1	6,25%
4. Stylistic errors				
4.1. Verbosity	0		0	
4.2. Underspecification	1	1%	1	6,25%

When error categories are analyzed separately, among the formal errors, shown in table 2, the most problematic one is calque which is under the category of misformations (26%) and it is followed by misselection which is under the category of distortions (11%). Less problematic categories are suffix type (under the category of formal misselection, 2 errors), coinage (under the category of misformation, 2 errors), omission, overinclusion, blending (under the category of distortions, 6 errors, 2 errors, 1 error).

Table 2. Frequent and infrequent formal errors

FORMAL ERRORS	(50 out of 100 errors- total)	No of errors	Percentage
Frequent errors			
Misformation	Calques	26	52%
Distortions	Misselection	11	22%
	Omission	6	12%
Infrequent errors			
Formal misselection	Suffix type	2	4%
Misformation	Coinage	2	4%
Distortions	Overinclusion	2	4%
	Blending	1	2%

As for semantic errors, shown in table 3, the most common ones that were made by the learners are near synonyms under the category of confusion of sense relations (25%) and it is followed by preposition partners (12%) and semantic word selection (11%) which are both under the category of collocation errors. Statistically weighted preferences (under the category of collocation errors, 1 error), connotative meaning (1 error) and underspecification (under the category of stylistic errors, 1 error) are less common lexical errors made by the Turkish students.

Table 3. Frequent and infrequent semantic errors

SEMANTIC ERRORS	(50 out of 100 errors-total)	No of errors	Percentage
Frequent errors			
Confusion of sense	Near synonyms	25	50%
Collocation errors	Semantic word selection	11	22%
	Preposition partners	12	24%
Infrequent errors			
Collocation errors	Statisticallyweighted	1	2%
Connotative meaning		1	2%
Stylistic errors	Underspecification	1	2%

5. Discussion

The present study analyzed lexical errors of Turkish university students learning English and discovered some important lexical problems

of students. The lexical errors in 'calque' category are errors that are mainly L1 influenced ones (interlingual). This finding suggests that translation is a serious influence in Turkish university students' writing. While they are writing in English, they have a great tendency to translate sentences they formed in Turkish to English. The students' 'calque' errors are both at sentential level and word level. The ones at word level may be due to the reason that they do not know all the meanings of a word, so by knowing the Turkish meaning and translating the word from Turkish, they use that word in every sentence they think that is appropriate to use (for example, Drugs damage people in many directions (ways)). However, they should be aware of the fact that words can have different meanings in different sentences. In other words, sentences, as whole units, carry the intended message and they can upload a different meaning to each component, the words. For the errors that are at sentential level, the reason may be that the students are sometimes not aware of the fact that English has different sentence formation rules (for example, If the mother has a reliable person who can good-look to her child (look after her child well)…). So, when the students have insufficient knowledge of the word in terms of meaning and form, it directly results in wrong formation of sentences. This result supports the results of studies done with Turkish learners of English stating that most of the lexical errors stem from L1 interference (Kırkgöz, 2010; Koban, 2011; Erkaya, 2012).

The errors in 'misselection' and 'omission' categories are intralingual errors. These errors indicate that Turkish learners of English have problems with the spellings of English words while they are writing in English. Although Koban (2011) claimed that spelling is not a problem for Turkish students, this study shows that the Turkish learners of English have serious problems with that. As this justifies Schmitt and Hemchua's (2006) study, it might be suggested that misspelling is a general serious problem for second language learners. This may be due to the deficient knowledge of the learners about the words, the students may pay attention to the sound of words rather than how the words are written (for example, democrasy (democracy), cleaned (claimed)).

The results about semantic errors show that the participants could not master the use of synonyms. The meaning of the synonym they used and the appropriate synonym were not the same (for example, husband doesn't

care about his wife's want (wishes).) and also two related words were close in meaning but they were different in usage (for example, the people will develop (improve) themselves.). Because of those reasons, the learners were found to commit near synonym errors quite often, which is a fact that supports the suggestions of Llach (2004) and Hang (2005). This may be due to the same reason as the reasons of students' 'calques' errors at the word level, which is not knowing all the meanings and usages of the words. The other frequent error which is semantic word selection may be due to the same reason because these errors show that students have problems with understanding different usages of words in every sentence.

Another frequent error of Turkish learners is preposition partners. On their papers, it was seen that they omitted the preposition that they should have used (for example, she is going to park, (to) the cinema) or they added more prepositions they should not have used (for example, we should ask to (ask) ourselves) or they used a wrong preposition instead of the one they should have used (for example, she doesn't spare time to (for) her child). All the errors show that the learners are somehow capable of using prepositions but they have problems about which correct prepositions should be used with which verbs, nouns or adjectives. Prepositions are quite challenging parts of English language for Turkish learners. It is hard for them to compare two languages in terms of prepositions because Turkish does not have usages of prepositions in the same way. These results may stem from the learning environment in which they are made to focus on vocabulary items word by word, not together with prepositions.

6. Implications

The analysis of 16 essays of Turkish learners of English showed that the learners make bot h formal and semantic errors while they write in English. These errors give some pedagogical implications that teachers need to be careful about in their teaching environments.

Among formal errors, calque and misselection errors were found to be most frequent errors of learners and this information immediately takes our attention to the translation and misspelling problems of the students. To prevent translation from L1, as they may result from insufficient knowledge of meaning and usage of the words, instruction focusing on

those aspects of the words in teaching can be used. They should be aware of the fact that English (their L2) and Turkish (their L1) differ in terms of those aspects of words and sentence formation. Extensive and intensive reading activities can also help students understand the words better and solve near synonyms and semantic word selection problems by analyzing them in the real context in which they are used. Vocabulary learning strategies can also be very effective for learners as this suggests the students some ways they can cope with their problems (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). Presenting words with related prepositions and providing the students with different examples in which the words are used with different prepositions can give a chance to students to get the words with all related information about them.

7. Limitations of the Study

It cannot be denied that there are some limitations to the present study. There are some important points that need to be taken into consideration for further research. This study was conducted only with students who were at the upper intermediate level. Conducting some research studies with the students who have different levels of proficiency can present different needs of students in terms of vocabulary use in writing. As the study has only

16 participants, having more participants will inevitably add more detailed information about lexical errors of Turkish learners. Moreover, if learners from different backgrounds are included in such studies as this one, more general problems of L2 learners can be detected and the implications that the results of those studies can suggest may enlighten the way vocabulary is presented in materials.

8. conclusion

This study was conducted to analyze the opinion essays 16 Turkish students studying at upper intermediate level in the English preparatory school of a private university. The participants' opinion essays were collected and analyzed in terms of lexical errors using Hemchua and Schmitt's (2006) taxonomy that they developed by drawing mainly from James (1998) and adding 'meaning' parts from Leech (1981). The results show that the Turkish learners of English have serious problems such as

translation from L1, misspelling, using wrong synonyms, selecting words with wrong meanings and using wrong prepositions in the sentences. All the errors of the learners present the need for providing instruction about the differences between Turkish and English, meaning and usage of the words and vocabulary learning strategies in teaching environments. For further research, having more participants from different backgrounds having different levels of proficiency is suggested.

Note:

* The examples are taken from Schmitt and Hemchua (2006).

** The examples are taken from Schmitt and Hemchua (2006), which they also took from James (1998). All other examples in the article are from the Turkish data in the study.

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Determining A Paradigm Of Personal Pronouns In Turkish Sign Language

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Abstract

Research on spoken languages has shown that there are a number of universal properties shared by pronouns, one of them being to distinguish between first, second and third person Forchheimer (1953). However in sign languages, which are also natural languages, three-way person distinction does not seem to be always reflected by the (pronominal) pointing signs, Ahlgren (1990:SSL), making one question the universality of pronouns in general.

In this presentation I will focus on a specific type of pronoun, i.e., personal pronouns (PersProns) in Turkish Sign Language (TİD), a visual-gestural language of the Deaf community in Turkey.My aim is to determine the paradigm of PersProns in TİD. Pronouns usually occur in the form of a pointing sign directed towards either the speech act participants or locations associated with non-addressed referents. I will concentrate on the person distinction in PersProns, which due to their spatial nature have been analyzed in a number of different ways,: No person distinction (Lillo-Martin & Klima (1990)), Two person distinction(Meier(1990));Three person distinction (Berenz(2002)); Multiple person distinction: (McBurney (2002)).

Earlier studies on TİD contain only a few descriptive statemens on the person distinctions in PersProns (Zeshan 2002, Kubuş 2008). In this presentation, I will question whether PersProns in TİD encode number, gender, case and person features of the morpho-semantic paradigm. Based on an examination of a dataset of 30 min. video recordings of the dialogues performed by 10 (near) native signers of TİD. I will discuss the four approaches to person distinction proposed for individual sign languages to show which, if any, account for the TİD data.

1. Introduction

Research on spoken languages (SpLs) has shown that there are a number of grammatical categories such as person and number encoded within pronominal expressions (Cysouw, 2003; Bhat, 2004; Siewierska, 2004). However, in sign languages (SLs), which are also natural languages articulated in visual-gestural modality, these categories have been observed either to be encoded in a different way or not encoded at all (Ahlgren, 1990; Meier, 1990; Liddell, 2000). This aspect of SLs makes one question the earlier proposed linguistic universals such as Greenberg's Universal 42 according to which "all languages have pronominal categories involving at least three persons and two numbers" (Greenberg, 1963, p.96), as well as the universality of the grammatical categories such as person.

The aim of this paper is to determine how the grammatical distinctions (number, gender and person) are marked on a specific type of referential expressions, i.e., the personal pronouns (PersProns), in Turkish Sign language (Türk İşaret Dili-TİD). My findings are based on a dataset of 30 min. video recordings of the dialogues performed by 10 (near) native signers. The earlier studies on TİD contain some information on number encoded in PersProns (Zeshan, 2002; Zwitserlood & Perniss, & Özyürek, 2012); however, the statements regarding person distinctions seem not to go beyond the assumptions that only satisfy the research purposes of particular studies (Sevinç, 2006; Kelepir & Göksel, 2013). Therefore, in this study I mainly concentrate on the person distinctions in TİD PersProns.

The person distinctions marked on sign language pronouns have been subject to an ongoing debate and a number of analyses about the range of the marked distinctions which have been claimed to vary across sign languages. Some of these approaches are: no person distinction view (Lillo-Martin & Klima, 1990), two-person distinction view (Meier, 1990), and three-person distinction view (Berenz, 2002). After discussing the premises of each approach, I apply Berenz's *Body Coordinates Model* to my data and show that TİD displays a three-way person distinction in its PersProns.

The structure of the present paper is as follows. In Section 2 the definition of a personal pronoun, general properties of personal pronouns in SpLs and SLs, and the approaches on person marking in SL pronouns are given. In Section 3 details of the methodology followed in this paper, including informant profile and elicitation procedure are presented. Section 4 contains the findings and a discussion of the data. Finally, Section 5 summarizes and concludes the paper.

2. Personal Pronouns

Pronouns constitute an interesting and special sub-class of linguistic items due to their status within a linguistic system and their contribution to the meaning of sentences. To give a precise definition of pronouns is not an easy task as the set of items under this label includes several groups of linguistic expressions such as personal pronouns, demonstratives interrogatives, indefinites, relatives and correlatives. Bhat (2004) differentiates between personal pronouns and pro-forms on the basis of their functions. The focus of this study is primarily the first sub-group of the pronouns, namely personal pronouns (PersProns). These are the referential terms which refer to individuals (e.g., English: I, you, he, she) however their referents are not lexically determined but can change depending on a number of linguistic and non-linguistic elements in the discourse. Even so, PersProns encode some information concerning their referents through a set of phi-features, which generally include person (speaker/addressee), number (plural/singular), and gender (male/female) features. The ways these features are morphologically marked on pronouns vary across languages.

Free PersProns as well as person markers in other forms (clitics, affixes etc.) appear in a closed set of linguistic items and occupy the same syntagmatic place called a paradigm in the structure of a language (Cysouw, 2003). The members of a certain paradigm stay in complementary distribution. For instance, the subject pronouns in English form a paradigm, as they occur in complementary distribution in a subject slot of the predicate. The internal structures of the paradigms occupied by pronominal elements have been well studied in the literature on SpLs and a cross-linguistic picture provided by the findings on SpL pronouns contrasts

with the SL data from a number of aspects. The details of these differences are shortly presented in the next subsection.

2.1. Personal pronouns in Sign Languages

Pronominal signs in SLs are usually in the form of pointing signs  directed towards either the speech participants or locations associated with non-present referents in the sign space. These signs are compositional elements including the following parts: a handshape, direction of the sign and location (hold) at a specific point in the space. Due to their spatial nature and form which they share with the co-speech gestures, pronominal signs have been subject to the ongoing debates in the sign language linguistics literature ever since the publication of the influential work by Stokoe (1960). Both their linguistic status as well as pronominal nature were questioned and analyzed from a number of different theoretical perspectives, always in comparison with SpL pronouns. Despite the differences in the type of analyses SL pronouns typologically have been documented to share a number of uniform characteristics with respect to marking grammatical distinctions. In particular, SLs usually mark singular and plural (dual, trial, quadruple as well as inclusive-exclusive) number distinctions on their pronouns. Generally, the plural is marked via a sweeping arc movement across SLs. In terms of gender, only a few SLs have been reported to mark gender on their pronouns, Japanese SL (NS) being one of those. As for person marking, sign language linguists working on a number of different SLs, have not agreed on whether the semantic category of person is systematically encoded in SL pronouns. For instance Meier (1990) proposed that American SL (ASL) marks a two way person distinction while Ahlgren (1990) claims that Swedish SL (SSL) shows no person distinction.

In the following lines I will give a short overview of the approaches on person distinctions in SLs. These can be grouped as: no person, two-person (first/non-first) and three-person (first, second, third) distinction views. Meier (1990:ASL) and his follower Engberg-Pederson (1992:DSL), support a *two-person distinction* according to which it is impossible to identify the features of the second and third PersProns and the two can only be distinguished at the pragmatic level. This analysis is the most widely one accepted in the literature, and it emphasizes the importance of

deictic reference to the spatial loci associated with referents, rather than the contrast between second and third person. The main motivation behind this view is that, there is a lexical first person pronoun (e.g., it has an idiosyncratic plural form in ASL) while the difference between second and third persons cannot be maintained because both share the same handshape, are directed towards the sign space and associated with either actual or hypothetical locations of the individuals they refer to.

Another group of researchers propose *no person distinction* encoded in SL pronouns they investigated (Ahlgren, 1990: SSL; Lillo-Martin & Klima, 1990: ASL; Liddell, 2000: ASL). In this view, there are no formal distinctions in SL pronouns and what identifies the referents - which are pragmatic constructs- in the discourse is the "gestural deixis" (Liddell, 2000; McBurney, 2009). In particular, McBurney (2009) one of the proponents of this approach, states that the pragmatic roles are universal cross-linguistically but the manner in which these roles are encoded within the languages is modality dependent. That is, in SpLs a level of abstraction hence a formal device is required to encode person distinctions, which is usually in the form of lexically specified expressions integral to the grammar of a language. On the other hand SLs, being articulated in spatial medium, are claimed not to require any levels of abstraction. As pointing signs refer to the individuals/entities unambiguously, nothing like formal personal marking is considered to be necessary. In short, the coding of the speech participants is achieved not via linguistic means but rather through deictic (pointing) gestures, assumed to be systematically incorporated into the pronominal system of SLs. The important aspect of this analysis to be noted here, is that it does not exclude the fact that certain grammatical features (e.g., number) can be encoded in the SL pronouns.

The main idea behind the two approaches discussed above is that due to the difference in the channel of articulation, SL pronouns are categorically different from SpL pronouns in terms of a number of person values they mark, which is either less than three or none. While according to the linguistic universals (Greenberg's U42) spoken languages encode at least three person values on their pronominal elements. So these analyses suggest that the grammatical category of person can be motivated by the modality of a language rather than a universal language faculty, which is a radical stand if one takes the view that all natural languages are the

products operated by universal principles. Besides constituting a challenge to the universality, one of the primary criticisms received by these approaches -which I also agree with - comes from Berenz (1998). Her criticism is that proponents of these views seem to mix the levels of space, namely, (i) the real world space (ii) phonemic space, related to articulatory aspects of the signs, and (iii) the grammatical space in which the contrasts of deictic systems are demonstrated.

The third view which was popular in the early years of SL research (Friedman, 1975) and has recently received a considerable amount of attention in the literature is a *three-person distinction* view. In this analysis SL pronouns like SpL pronouns mark a three-way person distinction (Berenz, 2002: LSB; Alibašić & Wilbur, 2006: HZJ). Specifically, the first person has been proposed to gain grammatical status (having its distinct lexical properties such as a particular place of articulation-the speaker's chest-).The formal distinctions between second and third person on the other hand, are determined by *Body Coordinates Model* proposed by Berenz (1998; 2002). According to this model, second and third persons are encoded in PersProns through the alignment of three non-manual markers (eye gaze, head and chest) with the manual element (hand) along the midline of the signer's body. In particular, the second person pronouns are proposed to be articulated in a particular area in the signing space called *communication corridor*, while the third person pronouns are articulated either at the edges or outside of this area. Besides these consistent differences in the location of articulation, the non-manual markers (gaze, head and chest) have been observed to align with hand for second person pronoun whereas in third person, the hand and these three non-manual markers occur in a disjoint manner. In short, this account provides one with a number of phonological elements which serve a function to formally differentiate between the two person values. This approach confirms that using different mediums of expressions does not lead to categorical distinctions among languages. The proponents of this approach, giving examples from particular SLs have shown that the category of person and the three-way distinction universally observed to be marked cross linguistically in SpLs, is marked cross-modally as well. Further research is required to test whether the three-person distinction is also systematically marked in other SLs. In this paper, I attempt to test the premises of this particular approach with the TİD data, in order to see

whether this language systematically encodes three-way person distinctions in its PersProns.

3. Methodology

The data analyzed in this paper comes from 30 minute long video recordings of the semi- controlled elicited data. The data was collected between September 2012 and April 2013 by myself as a part of TÜBİTAK project 111K314. The subjects played out doctor-patient interactions and job applications. In these tasks I analyzed eight dialogues performed by two participants each and two role plays with the contribution of three participants each. In total, the recordings of ten signers were examined. The recordings took place in the sound proof room set as a sign linguistics research studio at Boğaziçi University, with three Sony (HDR- PJ10) camcorders, two of which capturing the front views of each participants and one recording both participants from the side. The age range of the subjects was between 19 and 45 at the time of recording. Three of them were children of deaf parents, the remaining seven acquired TİD early in their lives either from one of their relatives or at primary school. All of the informants attended schools for the Deaf, educational levels ranging from primary school to university. Two of the informants used hearing aids, one of which teaches TİD while the other works at a company. Both of these hearing aid users extensively use spoken language in their daily lives. All of the informants are fluent TİD users, integrated in the Deaf community of İstanbul, members of Deaf clubs and active participants of the Deaf events such as festivals and cultural meetings.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Person encoding in TİD PersProns

The data investigated in this paper shows that TİD has a three-way person distinction in its PersProns which is different from deictic pointing gestures.

4.1.1 First person

The most frequently observed handshapes for the first PersProns in my data are: The extended index finger (I or 1)  and ASL-B  handshapes

directed towards the signer's chest. Besides these common forms, I have also came across a Bent Flat  and an L- handshape  , all described in the handshape inventory of TİD by Kubuş (2008). The last two handshapes can also be considered to be phonemic variants the I-handshape and ASL-B handshape, respectively. Both I-handshape and ASL- B handshape (but not the L-handshape and Bent Flat hand) are also shared by the second and third person pronouns. The data shows that there are distinctive phonological markers of first person pronoun: (i) the mouth gesture-slightly rounded lips (ii) Turkish Ben 'I' articulated via mouthing. Both non-manuals are observed to be co-articulated with one of the handshapes listed above. One indicator that the first person pronominal sign is not a pointing gesture is that it is articulated on the upper-torso of the signer, with the body contact. It will be shown that this location specification is different for second and third person pronouns. First person pronominal sign is a one handed sign, however the signers tend to assimilate this form to the two handed signs regressively so that, the first PersPron can also be articulated with two hands.

Kelepir and Göksel (2013) present further evidence for the grammatical status of the first person pronouns in TİD. They show that first person pronouns can be used in reported speech for shifted reference where a signer refers to the quoted speaker thought the usage of first person pronouns rather than himself/herself. This observation shows that in reported utterances pointing to the signer's chest may refer to the non-present participant, indicating that the pronominal pointing in such contexts is not used for direct reference to the signer.

4.1.2 Second person and third person

To continue with second and third persons, these two will be discussed in comparison to each other and the first person pronoun. The present data set contains two types of handshapes corresponding to second and third person pronominal signs, also shared with first person pronoun: (i) I/1 handshape  (ii) ASL –B handshape . ASL-B handshape was also reported to occur in Brazilian SL (LSB) second and third person pronouns, in formal interactional contexts such as a classroom setting as a marker of politeness (Berenz, 2002). As the data I have analyzed contains formal settings such as role play situations of employer-employee and doctor-

patient interactions, it may well be that in TİD the usage of ASL-B handshape is also restricted to formal contexts only, hence being pragmatically conditioned. In terms of orientation, the palm in the third person pronouns is slightly rotated upwards in the clockwise direction. This is different from first and second PersProns in which the palm has a sidewards orientation. Fenlon et al. (2013) underlines the importance of palm orientation in British Sign Language (BSL) too in differentiating determiners and singular pronominal signs from plural pronominal signs and adverbials, all sharing an extended index (I/1) handshape.

To determine further distinctions between second and third person pronouns I make use of Berenz's *Body Coordinates Model*. According to this model, person distinction in pronouns can be made through the alignment of four physical coordinates, namely hand, head eye gaze and chest. Berenz claims that when a signer is referring to the conversational participant all four coordinates should line up along the midline of the signer's body. On the other hand third PersProns can be differentiated from second PersProns via disjunction of one or more of these four coordinates. The *communication corridor*, an area between the left and the right parts of the torso, is an important area as second PersPron are claimed to be articulated within this area while the third person pronouns are typically articulated either outside this area or at the edges of it.

In my data one of the typical alignment fragments shows that the second person pronouns- articulated with a non-dominant hand as well - always occur within the borders of the *communication corridor* and in almost accurate alignment of the four coordinates along the vertical axis (midline) on the signer's chest. I have come across only one instance of the second person pronoun where the eye gaze was disjoint from the other three coordinates. As for the third person pronouns, a clear disjunction of the hand, with the eye gaze, head and chest was observed. The third person pronominal signs were articulated either outside or at the edges of the *communication corridor* in reference to both present and non-present third party. The data also suggests that the reference to the third persons can be made through pointing either to the ipsilateral (dominant) or contralateral (non-dominant) side of the signer, irrespective of the actual loci of the individuals. In this respect TİD patterns with Croatian SL (HZJ) data. Alibašić and Wilbur (2006) have reported that the chest was not a relevant

variable in distinguishing the PersProns in HZJ. In my data the chest seems to be relevant as a non-manual marker but I'm not sure whether the alignment of the chest with other coordinates arose from the sitting positions of the participants during the recording sessions.

In their study on HZJ, Alibašić and Wilbur (2006) focus on data from reported sequences containing references to the non-existent second person where the authors observed that all relevant coordinates were aligned as in direct speech, as a further evidence for the relevance of these formal features for distinguishing second person from third person. However, a recent study on reported utterances in TİD (Kelepir & Göksel, 2013) has shown that in a number of cases, the eye gaze and the index handshape pointing towards the purported second person addressee were in alignment, while it was observed that eye gaze can also occur in disjunction with the hand. The last observation challenges my findings regarding the alignment of eye gaze with the hand in second person pronouns. The alignment properties of all four coordinates in reported speech contexts have to be checked in detail for TİD in order to test the validity of my observations.

To recapitulate, the data of 30 minute recordings performed by 10 signers of TİD suggests that there is a grammatical distinction between second and third person pronouns, which is marked by the orientation/direction, location (inside/outside of the communication corridor) and alignment/co-articulation of the non-manual markers (eye gaze, chest, head).

4.2. Gender Distinctions

TİD does not seem to mark gender distinctions on its PersProns, as the signers used the same forms of pronominal signs when addressing male and female participants. This property of TİD is consistent with the majority of documented SLs.

4.3. Number Distinctions

In terms of number encoding my data is consistent with descriptions of earlier studies on TİD (Zeshan, 2002) which have shown that number is marked on PersProns via presence or absence of the arc like movement on

extended finger (I/1) handshape. Therefore, the plural forms of the PersProns are considered to be compositional hence morphologically complex. My data also contains a few occurrences of the forms where the signer was referring to the two of referents (including herself) articulated with the V/2- handshape combined with forward and then backward movement as well as three referents (excluding herself), a handshape articulated with three fingers and an arc like movement. Both instances were also observed by Zwitserlood et al. (2012) who claimed that these are the examples of number incorporation. However, whether these are simply cases of number incorporation or whether there are further distinctions (inclusive/exclusive) under the category of plural, as is claimed to exist in other SLs (e.g., HZJ), has to be investigated in detail.

5. Conclusion

In this paper I attempted to determine a paradigm of (subject) personal pronouns in TİD based on video data of 30 minute conversations performed by 10 signers. It was shown that TİD employs a three way person distinction, which is already proposed for a number of SLs such LSB and HZJ. The phonological indicators of person are considered to be the location and orientation properties of the indexing signs as well as non-manual markers (mouth gesture, eye gaze, chest, head) co-articulated with the manual signs. The number on the PersProns was observed to be marked via presence or absence of the arc-movement, in line with earlier studies. In terms of gender, there seem to be no indications on PersProns which mark gender distinctions, which is another typical aspect of SLs in general. A complete chart of the paradigm is illustrated below in Table 1.

Table 1-A paradigm of (subject) PersProns in TİD

					Number	
Person	Handshape	Orientation	Location	NMM	Singular	Plural
1		Palm facing the signer	Upper torso of the signer/mid chest	mouthing	-arc movement	+arc movement
2		Palm facing sidewards	The area within communication corridor	+gaze +chest +head	-arc movement	+arc movement
3		Palm facing the ceiling	The area outside of the communication corridor	-gaze +/-chest +/-head	-arc movement	+arc movement

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Abbreviations

ASL: American SL, BSL: British SL, DSL: Danish SL, HZJ: Croatian SL, LSB: Brazilian SL, NS: Japanese SL, SL: Sign Language, SSL: Swedish SL, SpL: Spoken Language, PersPron: Personal Pronoun, TİD: Turkish SL.

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Turn-Taking In A Turkish EFL Classroom: A Classroom Research Study

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the turn-taking behaviors of Turkish EFL students studying at the preparatory school of a state university. The data were collected in a fifty minute class period which focused on reading skill and a second class period that dealt with both grammar and vocabulary teaching and revision exercises. The audio-recorded data in two visits were analyzed to find out the frequency of turns initiated by the teacher and the students. In addition, an interview was carried out with the teacher to gain insight into her philosophy on turn distribution in class and to triangulate the data. The main findings of the study are that the teacher mostly makes use of general nomination, and students use unbidden turns significantly more than bidden ones. Moreover, there is not much equal distribution of turns, and task plays a significant role in student participation.

1. Introduction

In the analyses of classroom discourse, one of the first things that stand out is turn-taking, which can be defined as the process by which the interlocutors give each other permission to speak. Turn-taking has an important role in organizing classroom discourse because it determines the rules or principles of conversation (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). Turn-taking not only prevents interruptions and overlaps but also encourages the smooth flow of conversation (McCarthy, 1991). Another significant aspect of classroom discourse is turn-allocation. In their participation model (see Figure 1), Allwright and Bailey (1991, p.128) identify two ways in which teachers give students the floor to respond to questions and other cues—direct nomination and indirect nomination.

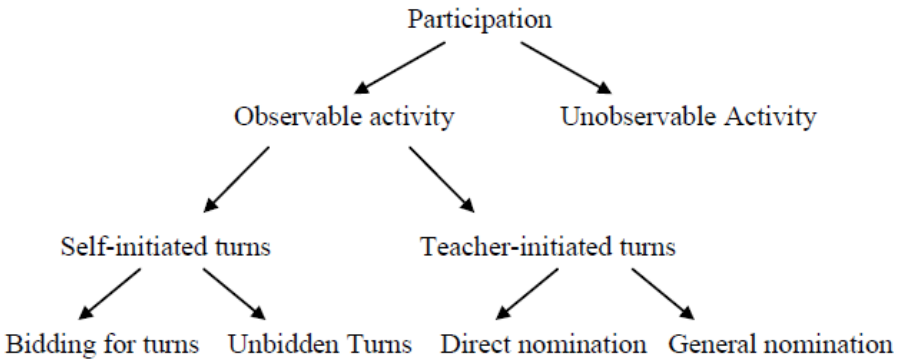

Figure 1: Some factors in observable participation in classrooms

Direct nominations consist of teacher's extending a response opportunity to a specific student (identified by name or by nonverbal means such as pointing, nodding, or eye contact). In general nomination, on the other hand, the teacher extends a response opportunity but, rather than nominating a student, the teacher solicits students to give a response by raising hand (Sahlström, 2002). Alternatively, the teacher extends a response opportunity by opening the floor for any contextually relevant response, and thus some students call out their responses (Shepherd, 2010).

According to Griffin and Humphrey (as cited in Shepherd, 2010), the most common floor allocation method is the individual nomination, which accounts for more than 70 percent of all teacher-initiated interactions. They further explain that through individual nomination, every student gets a turn and it takes less time than invitations to bid. Moreover, Mehan et al. (1976) maintain that it is better for teachers to nominate students because students' attempts to gain the floor to begin speaking may lead to chaos.

Griffin and Humphrey, (as cited in Shepherd, 2010) also mention some advantages to general nomination. They note that students who bid are more likely to have a response and even those who are not selected to make their responses are in fact "actively involved in assembling the lesson" (p.11). They further note that teachers have a better chance of getting a response when students themselves choose to respond. As Sahlström (2002) explains, when a student raises a hand once a teacher invites to bid, it means that student knows the answer. Thus, students'

bidding to respond by raising a hand is in fact the indication of students' understanding.

If we take a closer look at student-initiated turns, it can be said that there are two ways that students can initiate interactions: bidding to speak and calling out. In some cultures, it is believed that students need to get permission from the teacher to speak. That is why, they bid to speak by raising a hand (Sahlström, 2002). As to unbidden turns, especially following general nominations, students can call out, and as long as what the student utters is valuable and relevant to the content of the class, teachers may accept such contributions (Lemke, 1990).

The present study aims to examine the turn-taking strategies employed by Turkish EFL students at the preparatory school of a public university. There are two sets of data collected on two different days. Both sets of data were collected in fifty-minute class periods. While the first lesson focused on a reading text and exercises following it, the second class period dealt with the grammatical structures used in gerunds and infinitives, a vocabulary exercise on prepositional verbs and finally teaching of new vocabulary items. The lessons were audio-recorded and analyzed to find out the percentage of student and teacher-initiated turns. In this analysis, the percentages for real-time coding, untranscribed data and transcribed data were calculated separately. Moreover, high input generators (HIGs) and low input generators (LIGs) were determined for both visits, and the impact of task on turn-taking was explored. At the end of the study, the teacher was interviewed to gain insight into her philosophy on turn distribution and to triangulate the data. Overall, the current study addressed the following research questions:

1. Which turn-allocation strategies does the teacher favor in this particular classroom?

2. Which turn-taking strategy (bidden and unbidden) do the students mainly use?

3. To what extent does the teacher try to distribute turns evenly?

4. To what extent do certain topics and activities affect student participation in this particular classroom?

2. Participants

The study was carried out at the preparatory school of a public university. Students in the upper-intermediate group were observed for two consecutive class periods. Normally, there are 20 students in the class: 11 male and 9 female students. However, during the first observation, there were only 8 students, while the number of the students increased to 14 in the second observation. The ages of the students range from 18 to 20.

3. Findings and Discussion

The current project which was mainly based on teacher-initiated and student-initiated turns enabled researchers to have experience with collecting and analyzing original data. The project was composed of several stages, the details of which are given below.

In the *first stage* of the project, an hour-long lesson was audio-recorded while observing the class. The observer made a tally of the frequency of learner speech. In addition to the tallying of learner speech, the observer tried to determine what percentage of the turns were teacher-initiated and what percentage were student-initiated based on the real-time coding. All the data collection and analysis were conducted depending on the "Participation model" proposed by Allwright and Bailey (1991, p.128) (see Figure 1). Participation is defined as all kinds of observable and unobservable engagement of students in a classroom atmosphere. Under participation, there are two categories as observable, which is the focus of the current study, and unobservable activity, which involves attention or inner talk. Teacher- initiated turns and student-initiated turns are under observable activity. Self-initiated turns could be either bidden (raising hand as an example of nonverbal bids or asking for permission to talk as an example of verbal bids) or unbidden. As for teacher-initiated turns, teachers may sometimes verbally or non-verbally nominate students, or they may use general solicits and throw questions at all students in the class.

In the *second and third stages* of the project, numerical analyses were carried out for the three data sets: real-time coding, which was done during the observation in class, untranscribed data, and finally the transcribed data. Basically, what we were asked to do in these two stages was to

compare the percentages of the teacher-initiated turns and student- initiated turns in three data sets. The comparison of three data sets revealed that in real-time coding, there were 68 student-initiated turns (67%) and 34 teacher-initiated turns (33%), while both in the untranscribed and transcribed data sets, there were 76 student-initiated turns (62%) and 46 teacher-initiated turns (38%). Also, it was found that all the student-initiated turns were unbidden, and there was only one direct nomination used by the teacher in the untranscribed and transcribed data sets (see Table 1). Although in real-time coding, some data was missed, percentage-wise at least the real-time coding was not wrong. In all data sets, students are in the majority in terms of the percentage of turn-taking, meaning that there is inter-coder reliability.

Table 1. Comparison of the results of three data sets

Real-time coding	**Tape-recorded(without transcription)**	**Transcribed Data**
68 student-initiated turns (67%) **34** teacher-initiated turns (33%)	**76** student-initiated turns (all unbidden) (62%) **46** teacher-initiated turns (only one direct nomination) (38%)	**76** student-initiated turns (all unbidden) (62%) **46** teacher-initiated turns (only one direct nomination)

To provide a better picture for the turn-taking behaviors exhibitied by both the teacher and the students, some excerpts showing teacher-initiated and student-initiated turns will be analyzed below:

Excerpt One:

T: From DBE-Offline, we'll be doing "Noble Savage" (writes on the board) on page 108. Let's start with the title of the text. Let's have a look at the word "noble" first. Does anybody know what noble means?

S2: (in native language) asil, soylu

T: Yes, a person like a king, prince who comes from a noble family. So, this has a positive meaning. What about "savage"?

S2: (in native language) katliam değil miydi ya?

S1: wild?

T: Yes, you are close. There is a word called “primitive”.

S4: (in native language) sewage system diye birşey yok muydu?

T: (laughs) All right, that is something different.

In the above excerpt, the question “Does anybody know what noble means?” is an example for general solicit as the teacher uses no direct nomination. One of the students (S2) uses unbidden turn as he does not raise his hand, but literally “jumps” to answer. Next, the teacher uses one more general solicit by asking “What about savage?”, and two of the students (S2 and S1) take unbidden turns again. What we observe in this specific classroom is that the teacher makes use of general solicits and invites unbidden turns.

Excerpt Two

T: Ok, look at the cartoon. Let’s talk about that. What do you see in the cartoon?

S2: (in native language) Çok güzelmiş..

T: There is this PC and TV...technological equipment. Yeah? S2: (in native language) Hocam o VCD mi?

T: VCR.

S6: (in native language) Saklıyorlar yani (switching to English) they are hiding their things before antropologists come.

T: Yes, why do you think they are hiding them? (directed at S6)

S6: Because they may take it.

In the above excerpt, the teacher again uses general nomination by saying “What do you see in the cartoon?”. Also, in this excerpt, the teacher uses the only direct nomination by posing the question “Why do you think they are hiding them?” to S6 by using nonverbal cues.

In the current study, based on the analyses of three data sets, HIGs and LIGs were also determined. Although turn-taking allows all speakers the chance to participate in the conversation, there can sometimes be an uneven distribution of turns in the classroom. Seliger (1977, as cited in Allwright and Bailey, 1994) states that HIGs are "learners who, by initiating and sustaining conversations through taking turns, cause other people to use language with them, to provide them with language samples" (p.130). On the other hand, LIGs are described as learners who "seemed to participate minimally, to speak only when called upon, and to be generally passive in classroom interaction" (p.130). In the current study, there were clearly two groups without a range of interactive styles. Among all the students, HIGs have taken up 86% of the turns in the first lesson. The remaining 14% was by LIGs.

Additionally, it can be argued that although HIGs took more frequent turns, the turns they took were not necessarily longer than those of LIGs. For instance;

Excerpt Three

T: Do you know this word, antropology? What does it mean?

S4: (in native language) insan bilimi. T: studying human behavior.

S4: (in native language) behavior değil de..

S2: race

In the excerpt above, S4 is a LIG, and S2 is a HIG, yet the length of their utterances is the same.

Another important finding in the study was that vocabulary activities promoted more turn-taking among students. In the first lesson, there were both reading comprehension questions and vocabulary exercises, but as far as vocabulary was concerned, significantly more turn-taking patterns were observed as seen below:

Excerpt Four

T:Let' go on with paragraph 2 and read it.

S7: foraging?

T: foraging? If you look at this sentence, you can guess the meaning of it. Horticulture and foraging, basically activities like gardening, hunting, gathering and fishing, so what kind of activities foraging do you think?

S1: hunting

T: gathering, hunting, fishing bu tarz aktiviteler. Horticulture is like agriculture. (students read the paragraph)

T: Anything you want to say here about the paragraph?

Ss:……

In this excerpt, two of the students and the teacher talk on the vocabulary item "foraging". However, when the question "Anything you want to say here about the paragraph?" was posed by the teacher, none of the students responded. As seen in this excerpt and some of the previous excerpts as well, students' turn-taking attempts in this particular lesson seem to be confined to single vocabulary items.

As to the *fourth stage* of the study, the same class was observed again on another day. The focus of the lesson was grammar (gerunds and infinitives) and vocabulary practice. Based on the second set of data, the number of teacher-initiated and students-initiated turns was calculated again.

Table 2. Turn-taking patterns based on the second set of data

Teacher-initiated turns	Student-initiated turns
8 (verbal or non-verbal direct nomination) **35**(general nomination)	**1** Bidden turn **48** Unbidden turns

As seen in Table 2, the teacher made use of 8 verbal or non-verbal direct nominations in the second lesson compared to the single direct nomination in the first lesson. The teacher used general solicits to a large extent. To be more precise, 80% of the teacher-initiated turns were general solicits. As for student-initiated turns, there is only one bidden turn, while

the number of unbidden turns is 48. Below is one example for the direct nomination pattern the teacher made use of in the second lesson:

Excerpt Five

T: Are you finished? Okay? Let's do number 1.Who would like to do it? Any volunteers? Number 1? Shall I pick on someone? (direct nomination) Gözde, would you like to do number 1?

S6 (Gözde):...enjoy seeing...

T: yes, enjoy seeing, enjoy doing something. Number 2? (direct nomination) Ece

S1(Ece): ..urge its reader not to vote...

T: Yes, urge somebody to do something or not to do something. Urge you know means force, like demand. Number 3? Any volunteers? (direct nomination) Umut?

S10 (Umut): ..continue to broadcast..

As seen in this excerpt, the teacher nominates the students by their names or non- verbally by nodding or pointing. The only bidden turn, on the other hand, was taken up by a female student as seen below:

Excerpt Six

T: Number 7?(S7 raises her hand)Ayşenaz, yes.

S7: ..criticized for not revealing..

T: Yes, as you see, we have the preposition "for" here, so we use gerund..for not revealing.

In the second lesson, HIGs and LIGs were also re-determined, and the two lessons were compared in terms of students' turn-taking frequencies to attain a clearer picture of individual students' contributions to the lecture. In the second lesson, among 15 students, HIGs took up 78% of the turns. The remaining 22% was by LIGs. Additionally, it was observed that the interaction styles were dynamic. For example, some students who were

labeled as HIGs in the first lesson became a LIG in the second lesson. In fact, S2, who was HIG in the first lesson and who oftentimes participates in lessons, did not do so in the second lesson because, as far as the teacher mentioned, he does not like mechanical tasks as in the second lesson. This situation clearly shows how much classroom participation is task-dependent. However, S1 and S3 who were HIGs in the first lesson were still HIGs in the second lesson. Similarly, S4, S5 and S7, who were LIGs in the first lesson were LIGs in the second lesson.

In the fifth stage of the study, the teacher was interviewed on her philosophy and/or practical stance on turn distribution in classes, and whether she has a deliberate attempt to ensure equal talk-time for all participants. The results reveal that the teacher tries to distribute turns evenly. First, she wants to listen to those who volunteer to speak either bidding or unbidding. However, if a student is distracted or does not pay attention, she nominates him/her. She never calls out from the class list. As to the attempt to ensure equal talk-time, the teacher states that in speaking classes she tries to ensure equal talk-time, but she cannot guarantee this in other classes. Also, if a student speaks a lot and tries to dominate the interaction, she interrupts him/her to give opportunity to other students to speak as well.

During the interview, the teacher commented on the interaction patterns in the class as well. She maintained that interaction is related to the task at hand. She exemplifies this by stating that in the first hour, the reading passage was hard to understand, and she had to focus on many vocabulary items and paraphrase the ideas presented. However, when she asked the meanings of words, students spoke. The teacher argues that when the task is above students' level of proficiency, they cannot participate in the lesson, and thus interaction diminishes.

4. Conclusion

The study points to the fact that in both lessons, at least 80% of teacher turns are general solicits, which may be the reason why students take unbidden turns. The high frequency of general solicits by the teacher and the unbidden turns taken by the students make equal distribution of turns difficult in this particular class.

The study also reveals that task plays a significant role in student participation. HIGs and LIGs change depending on the task. Students tend to take more turns as far as vocabulary and grammar exercises are concerned; however, as to reading comprehension questions posed by the teacher, they do not take many turns; instead, they choose to keep silent.

Finally, the findings of the current study are not parallel with those of Sato (1982) that some learners regularly bid for turns while others typically speak out without bidding. In her quantitative study on her own university students' turn-getting behavior, she found that her Asian students tended to bid more than other learners who felt freer simply to speak out. Conversely, in the current study, students all spoke without bidding.

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Emotional experience of oral error correction in foreign language classes: Introducing a survey method

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Abstract

Diverse studies have already shown the influence of affects on learning and performance. The best examined emotion in foreign language research is anxiety. Few other emotions like e.g. boredom, anger or joy have been considered by researchers; other emotions are still often ignored. As far as emotional experiences of oral error correction in foreign language classes are concerned, there are only few results. It is still not resolved sufficiently how oral error correction in foreign language classes affects learners' emotional experiences, though it is well-known that this is the case. Consequently, it impacts indirectly language acquisition and achievement. Knowledge about the kind of potentially arising affects during oral error correction in foreign language classes and factors influencing them does not yet exist. Thus, a triangulation method to examine arising affects in foreign language classes during acts of oral error correction shall provide new insights. This research approach consists of three types of methods used for survey in language classes: First, recorded and documented, quantitative classroom observations, and second, structured qualitative guideline interviews with teachers/students to define the *error climate* in class. Third and most important an explorative, mostly qualitative questionnaire survey amongst learners to elicit their self-reported emotional experiences during acts of oral error correction in the course of the observed classes. A qualitative and quantitative interpretation by means of multilevel analysis shall help to answer the following questions: Which affects do occur in learners during oral error correction? Which factors do influence learners' affective experiences? On which factors do these affective experiences depend the most - the learners' individual characteristics or on the *error climate* in class?

Keywords: corrective feedback; emotion; error climate; students' perceptions

1. Introduction

We know from personal classroom experiences that oral error correction is a factor causing affects during language classes and thus can be used as emotional enhancer. In the light of experience, it is undeniable that corrective feedback impacts students' emotional outcomes. The best examined emotion concerning oral error correction in foreign language classes is anxiety (cf. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Oxford, 2002; Sheen, 2008; Young, 1991) though it is not sufficiently empirically explored whether it is the only or if it is the strongest emotion being provoked by oral error correction. Until yet, the question of which emotions can be fostered in general by oral error correction has not been resolved on the basis of empirical data.

There are only few results, indicating that positive feedback structures impact positive students' emotions especially joy and pride. In turn, negative feedback structures seem to impact negative emotions like anger, anxiety, shame, and boredom (Beermann, 2012; Cronjäger, 2009). Unfortunately, these studies by Cronjäger (2009) and Beermann (2012) merely examined a compilation of eight predefined emotional states. Far too few to clarify the question of which emotional states can be provoked by oral error correction in general.

This academic void is all the more surprising as it is proved that emotions have different and significant effects on language acquisition and performance.

There is a high conformance regarding affects in educational contexts. They are considered to have multiple effects on learning and achievement, well-being and interpersonal interactions (Götz, Pekrun, Hall & Haag, 2006). Thus, it is astonishing that there is still a relatively blank spot on the map of fundamental research and that a profound examination of affects in the context of learning and teaching is still scarce (Hu, 2003).

Therefore, concerning corrective feedback the two basic questions to be resolved must be:

a) Which emotions do occur in learners during oral error correction in language classes?

b) What factors do influence learners' affective experiences?

Due to default of applicable tests measuring in a neurological or physiological way students' emotions emerging in classroom situations, an approach consisting of classroom observation and questionnaire survey can help to gather knowledge about emotions being provoked by oral error correction in language classes and the circumstances of their appearance. Teacher/student interviews can provide additional information concerning the *error* and *emotional climate*.

The introduced method shall not only provide insight into not yet examined scientific fields but is also designed for teachers who want to review their own feedback structures and correction behaviors. It could be used in peer review projects. Its results can be applied to improve teaching quality and as a consequence to raise the well-being of students.

2. Error Climate

To answer the question of what factors influence learners' affective experiences it seems necessary to examine the *error climate* in class because it is supposed to have a bearing on students' emotional states. But up to today, there is still few scientific evidence of what good *error climate* finally is. Hereinafter, it is tried to define good *error climate*.

In accordance with Oser and Spychiger (2005) and taking into account the described outcomes of the DESI[1] survey by Klieme (2006), Klieme et al. (2006) and Wagner, Helkme and Rösner (2009) good *error climate* results from several teacher behaviors in interaction with students. With reference to those findings good *error climate* shall be defined as a continuum resulting from the six following teacher behaviors: *No compromising* (the teacher does not compromise and protects any student of fellow students' exposure to ridicule), no *uncontrolled reactions* (the teacher stays calm and confident and does not react aggressively), *encouragement and praise* (the teacher encourages any student to see

[1] Deutsch-Englisch-Schülerleistungen-International (German-English-Students' performances-International)

errors as learning occasion and not as personal failure; successful self-correction should be praised), *patience* (the teacher does not interrupt students' answers and gives time for the repetition), *initiation of self-correction* (the teacher helps for self-help and stimulates self-correction), *metalinguistic feedback* (the teacher explains what is wrong and why it is wrong).

These six teacher behaviors can be examined during classroom observations using an observational protocol and afford the opportunity to assess the *error climate* in class in a defined way and on a basis of empirical findings.

3. Methodology

The following method shall help to a) define the *error climate* in class and b) to define the *emotional climate* in class during a language lesson using classroom observations and a mostly qualitative questionnaire in order to answer to the two research questions above.

The introduced method divides a language lesson into two parts: During the first part of the lesson observations should be made to define the *error climate* in class. During the second part of the lesson a questionnaire should be filled in by students to get insight into the *emotional climate* concerning previous error correction.

In order to support the observation results, teacher interviews could be conducted treating the *error climate*. Supporting student interviews could also be envisaged in addition to the questionnaire results.

3.1. Classroom Observations

The first step is to gain insight into the *error climate* in class. The classroom observation shall take place during the first part of the lesson (30-45 minutes).

I assume that the absence of compromising, the absence of uncontrolled reactions, encouragement and praise, patience, initiation of self-correction, and metalinguistic feedback by the teacher contribute equally to good *error climate* in class. I further assume that compromising, uncontrolled reactions, missing encouragement and praise, and absence of

patience by the teacher contribute negatively to *error climate* in an equal way. It is not proved whether a lack of initiation of self-correction and metalinguistic feedback has a negative effect on the *error climate*. Thus, in the case of its appearance it only can judged positively but not negatively when absent. It is not relevant to count every error made but each correction act should be defined using these categories.

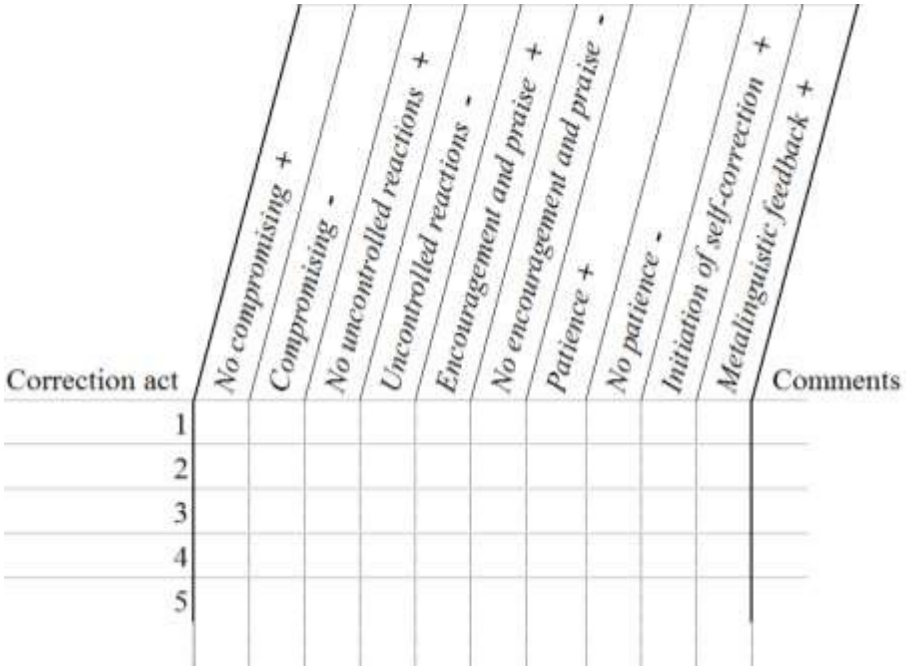

Figure 1: Observational protocol

Additionally, classmate behavior could be taken into account.

It is worth consideration ascribing each correction act to the respective student and also to match this data to the students' questionnaire results. By this means, it is possible to examine if the *error climate* in class has direct influence on the learners' emotional experience.

3.2. Teacher/Student Interviews

Teacher interviews can help to gain more profound insight into the *error climate*. They generate additional data which can be helpful to judge

the determined *error climate* in class. Possible questions should concern personal information, own and estimated students' attitudes pertaining errors, personal correction style and an estimation of affects which can occur in learners' in the course of oral corrective feedback and situations fostering them.

Table 1: Interview topics

Topic	Subtopic
Personal data	Age Working experience
Error climate	Attitudes concerning errors Personal correction style Estimated students' attitudes
Students' emotions	Potentially occurring emotions in learners' while being corrected Behaviors / situations affecting learners' emotions while being corrected

Student interviews could be held e.g. about the students' (academic) self-concept in addition to the questionnaire results. By this means, the causes of the emotional experiences of oral error correction could be described more precisely.

3.3. Questionnaire

The second step is to determine the provoked learner emotions in detail, the *emotional climate* in class. For this purpose an emotion questionnaire seems to be best feasible. It is an explorative questionnaire mostly consisting of open format questions but also rating scale questions *(right-false-tasks)* can be used.

The questionnaire survey shall take place in the second part of the lesson (after 30-45 minutes of observation) and refers to the previous part of the lesson. It is designed to be filled in within 30-45 minutes of time. The procedure to conduct the questionnaire survey after a defined time of prior lesson shall enable to gather state emotions as effectively as possible.

The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part of the questionnaire is designed for students who have been corrected. Part two and three should be completed by any student, also by non-corrected ones.

The questionnaire asks whether error correction is requested by students, which kind of error correction is the most fancied, which emotions have been felt during acts of error correction in the previous lesson, and in which situations these emotions occurred. This procedure helps to enlighten the circumstances of emotion occurrences.

It is assumed that each emotion consists of four components (Pekrun & Hofmann, 1999): an affective component (feeling), a cognitive component (thinking), a motivational component (action), and a physiological component (physical experience). By investigating each component we can draw a comprehensive picture of a single emotion (Götz, 2004). Therefore, the questionnaire also asks for thoughts, physical experiences and (envisaged and completed) actions. Beyond that, demographical variables should be enquired.

The table below summarizes all questions that should be asked in a questionnaire survey to gain a comprehensive picture about learners' emotional experiences during acts of error correction.

Table 2: Survey questions

	Questions	Type of question
Part 1	Do you like that your teacher has corrected you today? Why / why not?	Open format question
	Which emotions did you have while being corrected today?*	Rating scale question
	Which other emotions did you feel?	Open format question
	Please describe the strongest feeling that you felt while being corrected today.	Open format question
	What happened in this situation?	Open format question
	How did your teacher correct you in that situation?	Open format question
	What did your fellow students do?	Open format question
	What did you think while feeling this emotion?	Open format question
	How did you feel physically?	Open format question
	What did you want to do and what did you do?	Open format question
Part 2	Are you eager to be corrected? Why / Why not?	Open format question
	In which way do you like to be corrected the most?	Open format question (or rating scale question)
Part 3	*Demographical variables*	Rating scale questions

The question "Which emotions did you have while being corrected today?" is probably one of the most interesting questions because of the absence of scientific evidence in respect to this subject apart from results concerning anxiety and shame.

In the questionnaire, students are given the opportunity to choose among 25 different emotions, choosing those they have felt during acts of error correction in the prior lesson and to estimate their intensity. The emotions shown below were selected based on the emotion corpus used by Titz (2001) and on semantic analyses: happy, lucky, angry, annoyed, hopeful, confident, pleased with myself, proud, helpless, hopeless, relieved, relaxed, anxious, nervous, disappointed, frustrated, sad, depressed, secure, reassured, embarrassed, shy, grateful, surprised, terrified.

The questionnaire results shall answer the question on which emotions can be provoked by oral error correction in general and on which factors this emotional experience depends.

3.4. Sample

The described research method can be used in any language class. It is not limited to any age. Nevertheless, it is recommended to introduce it only to students in higher grades than primary school because those are more likely to conceptualize their emotional experiences. Lower grade students could be less capable in cognitively processing their own emotions.

3.5. Data Analysis

The observation protocol shall be analyzed quantitatively. I assume that every given factor has an equally strong effect on the *error climate* in class. Since it is not foreseeable if the absence of initiation of self-correction and metalinguistic feedback has negative influence on the *error climate*, these two factors can only be valued positively if they occur or neutrally if they are absent. All correction act values must be summed up and divided by the total of correction acts to calculate the arithmetic value. A completely positive result represents a good *error climate*, a negative one denotes bad *error climate*.

The questionnaire has to be analyzed qualitatively for the most part (just as additional teacher/student interviews). Thus, using qualitative content analysis (cf. Mayring, 2010) seems to be favorable. When multiple choice or rating scale questions have been used, they should be analyzed quantitatively. When examining multiple classes, the multilevel structure of the sample should be taken into account.

4. Discussion of the Method and Conclusion

When observing classroom interactions one cannot rule out the possibility that the teacher/student behavior is influenced by the presence of an observer in class. Helmke (2012) tells that any teacher with a modicum of self-esteem and professionalism will prepare the observed lesson as well as possible to convey the impression of being competent and not to disgrace him- or herself or the own school. On the other hand, Helmke states, that teaching is always distinguished by routines and non-influenceable effects which make it impossible to immediately change the circumstances in class. Those routines include the teachers' acting

characteristics and teacher-student-interactions like the kind of communication and feedback structures (Helmke, 2012). Thus, we can assume that observing lessons will lead to no significant effects on feedback structures or practiced error correction behaviors.

Another point for discussion is the *error climate* in class. Until now, it is not perfectly cleared how to generate good *error climate* in foreign language classes. As seen before, there are some indicators for good *error climate*. Nevertheless, it cannot be excluded that other factors e.g. inter- or intrapersonal factors, not yet examined, can affect *error climate*, too. Furthermore, it is not yet resolved if all those factors affect *error climate* in the same way and with the same intensity. Additional investigations are still necessary. For the present and given the little scientific knowledge, we must assume that there are also other factors affecting *error climate* in class that we not yet know. Nevertheless, using shown results to develop new methods can give a basic impression on the kind of *error climate* (positive or negative) in class. Additional investigations should further take into account the relationship between shown *climate factors* and their effects on students.

Moreover, the observed categories are prone to subjectivity to a certain extent and must be properly defined in advance. All the more it is necessary to increase the reliability of the method by deploying an interrater and/or to determine the intrarater reliability. With regards to the latter and considering the fact that the object of study is emotion and that error correction already is a factor affecting emotional states, it does not seem useful to apply videography to observe the classroom interactions. MacIntyre (1994) showed that the introduction of a video camera caused an increasing anxiety in university students of French and also caused concomitant deficits in vocabulary acquisition. Even Bachmair (1982) refers to the limits of documentation in classroom observation contexts. Nevertheless, it does not seem too salient to use audio recording via a small dictaphone or modern smartphone to check the intrarater reliability. This has the advantage not to disrupt the classroom interactions and probably not to influence learners' emotional states. Furthermore, video documentation wouldn't bring any methodological, additional value towards audio documentation: These days, there are attempts to use mimic and gesture observations and analyses to evaluate emotional states of

students (cf. Oser & Spychiger, 2005) but these methods do not seem to be methodologically sound yet. In this respect, audio recording and protocolling de novo appears to be the most reasonable to consider the intrarater reliability.

As a conclusion, the introduced method of measuring the *error climate* in class and the *emotional climate* towards oral error correction is up to bring some new insights and results by now still missing in the light of language classes. One the one hand, it is capable to show whether the *error climate* in class defined in reference to actual scientific results could be used as indicator for students' affects. And it is capable to fill the scientific void concerning students' emotions while being corrected in language classes. On the other hand, it can serve as instrument to directly improve teaching quality when used by teachers in peer review projects.

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Reconsidering Translation and Mother Tongue in English Language Teaching

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Abstract

Translation has undergone a transformation in second and foreign language teaching, and thereby, has reappeared in classrooms in a different way. This study sets out to investigate the perceptions of tertiary-level learners and nonnative language teachers towards own-language use and translation from linguistic, humanistic, pedagogical and practical aspects in English language teaching. Based on structured interviews with nonnative language teachers in Austria and Turkey and questionnaires with tertiary-level students in the aforementioned countries, it focuses on three aspects: first, general perceptions of own-language use and translation in English language teaching; second, advantages and disadvantages of own-language use and translation from a linguistic, humanistic, pedagogical and practical perspective; and third, attitudes towards the concept of translation as a fifth skill in language teaching. Having summarized the historical background of translation in teaching methodology, it reconsiders own-language use and translation as a pedagogical tool within recent years. My argument is that the use of own language and translation is necessary in language teaching, and at the same time, has advantages over 'Only English' when it is used to a certain extent in predefined situations. Likewise, the results of the interviews show that nonnative teachers in Austria and Turkey consult own language and translation in their lessons. It is suggested that own-language use and translation enhance and facilitate the language learning process, especially at elementary and pre-intermediate levels if they are used to some extent. Also, the results of the questionnaires show that the attitudes towards the use of own language and translation change in accordance with the aforementioned countries. The learners in Turkey hold more positive attitudes than the learners in Austria. Furthermore, the results by their English levels suggest that beginner and intermediate levels favor own-language use and translation more than advanced levels in both countries. It seems clear from my investigation that the use of own

language and translation is being reconsidered in English language teaching.

1. Introduction

This study deals with the role of 'own-language use' [1]and 'translation'[2] in English language teaching and learning. First, it summarizes the historical background of own-language use and translation in teaching methodology and reconsiders translation as a pedagogical tool within recent years. Second, it analyses questionnaires to which 250 language learners at the tertiary level in Austria and Turkey provided responses, and interviews which were conducted with 10 nonnative English language teachers in Austria and Turkey. Throughout the study I have adopted the term 'own language'. It refers to the terms 'first language', 'native language' and 'mother tongue' commonly used in the literature of language teaching (Cook, 2010, p. XXII). One of the main reasons of adopting this term is to consider learners in multilingual classes in which students' first languages vary.

It is seen that own-language use and translation have indeed undergone a transformation in second and foreign language teaching, and thereby, have reappeared in classrooms in a different way. Some scholars and researchers have favored the use of own language and translation in English language teaching because it promotes learning (Harden, 2009, p. 361) (cf. for example Widdowson, 1978; Harmer, 1991; Ellis, 1992; Bowen&Marks, 1994; Ur, 1996). More recently, researchers such as Witte et. al., 2009; Cook, 2010; Leonardi, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012; Druce, 2013; Kerr, 2014 forthcoming have suggested a re-evaluation of translation in L2 classroom by drawing attention to linguistic, humanistic, pedagogical and practical aspects.

Translation is avoided because it is often associated with word-for-word translation and literary texts practiced in the Grammar-Translation Method. This disadvantage led linguists to become interested in the practical aspects of language learning around the end of the 19th century.

[1] 'Own-language use' refers to mother tongue or native language.
[2] 'Translation' entails use of the student's language and it is *a kind of* own-language use." (Cook 2010: XIX).

This period is called the Reform Movement, which began with Sweet's book, *The Practical Study of Languages*. From that time onwards, the study of spoken language and phonetics in meaningful contexts, acceptance of an inductive method in grammar teaching and avoiding translation activities demonstrate that there was a radical movement against the use of the Grammar-Translation Method. The Oral Approach was a way of English language teaching adopted by the British in the 1950s and, in the next decade, the term Situational Language Teaching replaced with the Oral Approach (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 34). As for the Audiolingual Method (1940-1960s), "as far as possible, the target language is used as the medium of instruction, and translation or use of the native tongue is discouraged" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 57-58). The Communicative Approach (1960s onwards) is based on cognitive and more humanistic approaches. Consequentially, the counter-arguments against own-language use and translation led translation to be prohibited from the language teaching "– in some places, such as France in 1950, quite literally, banned by legislation – from the language curriculum in secondary schools and in specialist language schools" (Carreres, 2006, p. 2). First, translation is regarded as an unnatural process in a second and foreign language and to prevent students from thinking in the foreign language. Second, the types of learning and teaching activities, the objectives of syllabus in translation have been criticized because they are generally considered to involve lengthy and literary texts. However, these criticisms are derived largely from the negative effects of the traditional Grammar-Translation Method. Third, translation is considered to be a separate skill from the four language skills and is found as an incompatible skill to teach a second or foreign language. Fourth, some authors find it inappropriate to test language skills. Nevertheless, the use of own language and translation has led methodologists and teachers to reconsider them.

In this section, I will analyze the use of translation and own language from four different perspectives: linguistic, humanistic, pedagogic and practical. Philipp Kerr's 2012 speech, "The Return of Translation", presented at the British Council conference, inspired me to categorize these sections. First, the linguistic aspects involve language transfer, cognitive approach and communicative approach. Based upon contrastive linguistics, H. H. Stern (1992, p. 284) suggests that the similarities and differences between languages should be indicated in order to help learners

both use their own language and then create “a new L2 reference system”. Considering the fact that own language is an undeniable part of learning process, advantages of own-language use in language teaching environment particularly at beginner and elementary levels have come into prominence in the latest research (Leonardi, 2011, p. 18). The basic principles of contrastive analysis claim that “errors occur only where L1 and L2 differ and difficult patterns can be determined in advance by contrasting the two language systems” (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 73). Here, I support the view that awareness can be raised by contrast and comparison; however, I am not in favor of the idea that errors occur only where the two languages differ. Errors are natural processes of language learning. They might indicate where learners have difficulty in understanding varying language aspects and help learners realize some similarities and differences of both languages. With regard to cognitive approach, various linguists have focused on ‘understanding’, as well. For example, Rivers and Temperley (1978, p. 337) state “students learn to translate ideas, not words”. In addition, Schäffner (1995, p. 9) reinforces her claim by stressing the importance of comprehension and argues that when the foreign language is made explicit to understand with the help of own language, communication can be established. Furthermore, their use aligns with the principles of communicative approach. Leonardi (2011, p.19) defends the view that translation can be used for educational purposes to improve one’s communicative skill as well as the four skills. Second, the humanistic aspects of own-language use and translation involve motivation and identity. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) found that own-language use in the classroom promotes motivation and success. In addition to own-language use, translation is also considered motivating by learners and teachers. When teachers were asked to give reasons for their perception of translation activities as inspiring, Lavault (1985, p. 34) found that learners enjoy and demand them from their teachers. With regard to identity issues, there are two contrasting perceptions – the ones who consider ways of monolingual teaching ‘as a better teaching strategy’ and the ones who consider only English as ‘a linguistic imperialism’. Fortunately, the attitudes towards monolingual teaching have changed in recent years and bilingualism has been favored by taking learners’ identity into account.

President Barack Obama emphasized in a campaign speech that parents' concern should be how their child can be a bilingual rather than using only English (2008, quoted in Cook, 2010, p. 41). Third, pedagogical perspectives include bilingual approach, learners' level and age, and the concept of translation as a fifth skill. The two languages are localized at two different cortical areas by a late bilingual while they are localized at the same cortical area by an early bilingual; therefore, according to Hentschel (2009, p. 18), "There is no need to bring the two languages in close contact. Moreover, doing so would only interfere with the natural learning process, which aims at keeping them separated". As for the learners' level and age, Arbuckle (1990, p. 30) dissuades using translation for beginners because the phonological system is a priority compared to more complicated skills. It is suggested for advanced learners having a higher cultural and pragmatic knowledge. On the other hand, using own language is suggested at the early stages of language learning because it is useful for the cognitive processes such as understanding and comprehension. The concept of translation as a fifth skill has been considered from different two perspectives in language teaching. One has evaluated it as quite distinct from the four skills of language while another has regarded it as an additional technique to promote the four skills. Fourth, with regards to practical perspectives, time efficiency and use of bilingual dictionaries are investigated. Some teachers claim that using translation is practical and quickens the understanding process while some teachers believe that translation is a difficult skill that requires time and more translation exercises. Gerloff (1988, quoted in Ivanova, 1998, p. 99) claims that the main objective of using dictionaries, especially bilingual dictionaries by learners is to understand the lexical item. Regarding learners' English level, Stein (1989, p. 39) asserts learners at the beginner's level might tend to benefit from bilingual dictionaries more often than intermediate and advanced level learners because learners in the early stages of language learning feel comfortable and confident while learners in the following stages become familiar with using monolingual dictionaries.

As a result of these reconsiderations, Leonardi (2010) introduces 'pedagogical translation' which refers to using translation for pedagogical purposes to benefit foreign language teachers and learners. Guy Cook (2010) presents activities to indicate that "'traditional' and

'communicative' focuses are complementary rather than alternatives". Furthermore, in her graduate research Beatriz Pariente-Beltran (2006) suggests teaching discourse and text analysis through translation. Van Dyk (2009, p. 208) suggests the use of sight translation technique in which text is translated orally and more slowly than the speed of usual speech.

2. Methodological Considerations

My study draws on two data sources: structured interviews with nonnative English language teachers and close-ended questionnaires with a Likert scale, rank order items and multiple-choice items. The interview data were collected from five Austrian and five Turkish language teachers working in Austria and Turkey, respectively. The questionnaire data were collected through snowball sampling from 108 students in Austria and 148 students in Turkey at the tertiary level. In Austria, I interviewed five participants working in Vienna while in Turkey I interviewed three participants working in Isparta, Eskişehir and Ankara; however, two other participants had no time for face-to-face interviews and sent their answers via email. I transcribed each interview in a separated document with the transcription software program 'Express Scribe'[3]. Computer-assisted transcription helped me to use a word processing program and audio file on the same page. As a starting point to coding, I read and re-read through the transcripts of the interviews carefully. After each reading, I used the comment function of my word processor. Using different colors, I highlighted the most relevant and interesting statements related to each interview question. The profile of English language teachers is similar in both countries: they were once monolinguals; they learned English through instruction; they are nonnative language teachers; they have pedagogical content knowledge in language teaching. The data were collected by language learners who met the following criteria: be English language learners at the tertiary level in Austria or Turkey, have a good command of German or Turkish and study at any department excluding English language. I reached the respondents by means of English language teachers, directors of language units of the universities in Austria and Turkey and through my personal friends. Using the Survey Monkey[4] online survey tool, I created two website links for German and Turkish

[3] http://www.nch.com.au/scribe/index.html

participants, respectively, and then sent these links to teachers, directors and my friends.

3. Results

3.1. Results of Interviews

To begin with, nonnative language teachers in both Austria and Turkey agree that communication skills are the priority in language learning. Thus, it seems that they try to expose students to as much English as possible and hold lessons with communicative activities and exercises. In Austria, nonnative teachers consult own-language use and translation to compare and contrast grammatical structures between English and German and to explain words and expressions, and the Turkish respondents do the same.

The following paragraph summarizes the advantages and disadvantages of own-language use and translation between Austrian and Turkish teachers. First, both groups of participants agree that students at lower levels tend to think in their own language and translate mentally though the teachers wish they would remain in the TL. Austrian teachers favor using L1 as a resource to construct new knowledge because English and German are Germanic languages and have some similarities at the lexical level. On the contrary, Turkish teachers do not opt to use L1 as a resource at the lexical level because there are few similarities between Turkish and English. Code-switching was regarded as useful to build conversation. Second, the Teachers believe that students feel motivated when they hear their own language because it has an affirmative effect on students, especially at lower levels. Third, Austrian teachers said using own language and translation highlights linguistic similarities and differences between the language structures of English and German, while Turkish teachers were more concerned with explaining and clarifying language structures of English. Teachers from both countries agree that overusing own language and translation might have a negative effect on communication skills. Fourth, as for learners' age and level, it is obvious that both groups were against using translation activities with young learners but would opt to using with learners starting from the teenage years onwards. With regard to level, three Austrian teachers and three Turkish teachers favored using translation activities for lower-level students which are beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate levels. One

teacher from each country defended the idea that translation activities are more suitable for advanced-level students because translation is a skill that requires specific knowledge. Next, four Austrian teachers and three Turkish teachers considered using Only English in the classroom as a better learning strategy because students should be exposed to the target language. One Austrian teacher claimed that it was linguistic imperialism. Last, concerning the attitudes towards a multicultural teaching environment, only two Austrian teachers believe that translation enhances cultural and linguistic diversity while all of the Turkish teachers agree that it contributes to the diversity. The Austrian and Turkish teachers suggest using bilingual teaching rarely and encourage the more frequent use of monolingual teaching, especially for advanced-level students. Though monolingual teachers are valuable due to their communication skills and knowledge of cultural elements, both Austrian and Turkish teachers opt for bilingual teachers because they do not lack contrastive language analysis skills and can determine what difficulties students will experience in certain areas because they also had to acquire the target language.

Finally, all five Austrian teachers and three Turkish teachers did not consider translation a fifth skill in language teaching. Two Turkish teachers considered it a fifth skill. As for the integration of translation activities into course books, all of the teachers (excluding S10) believe that translation should be reintegrated into textbooks when students reach certain levels.

3.2. Results of Questionnaires

Participants ranged in age between 18 and 44 years old in Austria and 18 and 25 years old in Turkey. Students from nine tertiary institutions in Austria responded to the questionnaire. Participants represented University of Vienna, WU Wien, FH St. Pölten, FH OOE, FH Wien, University of Innsbruck, University of Amsterdam, University of Luxemburg and BOKU. University of Vienna has the highest ratio with 80.6% of respondents. Exchange students from University of Amsterdam and University of Luxemburg were also included. Participants in Turkey hail from twelve institutions: TOBB University, Ordu University, Istanbul Technical University, Hacettepe University, Middle East Technical University, Boğaziçi University, Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Kocaeli University, Niğde University, Gediz University, Türk Hava Kurumu

University and Istanbul University. No Austrians respondents reported being beginners, although 30.6% said they were intermediate-level students and 69.4% said they were advanced-level students. In Turkey, 15.7% were beginners, 51.4% were intermediate-level students and 32.9% were advanced in English.

First, attitudes of intermediate- and advanced-level students towards own-language use and translation are analyzed by one-way ANOVA based on their country. The items in which there is a statistically significant difference between the groups according to one-way ANOVA statistics were indicated: For Item 11, Turkish students need oral translation more than Austrian students to understand language tasks better in English language lessons; For Item 2, Turkish students have a more positive attitude towards using translation in reading activities than Austrian students; For Item 4 and Item 14, Turkish students tend to use mental translation more than Austrian students; For Item 5, Turkish students feel more motivated to participate in classroom activities when their own language is sometimes used; For Item 16, the anxiety level of Turkish students is higher than Austrian students when they are supposed to use only English in language tasks, while Austrian students generally do not feel very anxious when only English is used; For Item 7 and Item 17, when Turkish is used in certain situations, Turkish students consider it as a sign of acceptance of their linguistic and cultural identity. Austrian students, however, do not consider it related to the acceptance of their linguistic and cultural identity when German is used; For Item 19, both Austrian and Turkish students think bilingual dictionaries are helpful to understanding better while Turkish students believe that bilingual dictionaries make English difficult to understand more than Austrian students. Respondents were also asked to order the four language skills from most effective (1) to least effective (4) in terms of the effectiveness of own-language use and translation. Reading > Writing > Speaking > Listening. Turkish students ranked the skills in the same order: Reading > Writing > Speaking > Listening. These results show that both Austrian and Turkish students consider translation activities more effective for reading and writing skills and less effective for speaking and listening skills requiring communication.

Second, student attitudes towards own-language use and translation were statistically analyzed according to their English levels by one-way ANOVA and means. The items in which there is a statistically significant difference between the groups in Austria according to one-way ANOVA statistics were indicated: For Item 1 and Item 11, intermediate students, more than advanced students, sometimes need oral translation to German in language tasks to understand; for Item 2 and Item 12, Intermediate-level students sometimes need translation activities from English to German much more than advanced-level students to better understand what they are reading; For Item 3, intermediate respondents prefer that instructions are sometimes delivered in German more than advanced respondents; For Item 4 and Item 14, intermediate students mentally translate some words or sentences while advanced students do not; For Item 5 and Item 15, intermediate respondents feel motivated to participate in classroom activities when the teacher uses German sometimes while advanced levels disagree with this argument and feel more motivated when Only English is used; For Item 6, advanced students feel relaxed when they are supposed to use Only English in language tasks while intermediate students do not feel relaxed; For Item 20, translation activities are considered more useful by intermediate learners than advanced learners to help them realize the differences and similarities between German and English. Next, I will analyze the attitudes of Turkish students towards own-language use and translation statistically according to their English levels by one-way ANOVA and Means. For Item 1 and Item 11, beginner and intermediate levels showed significantly greater needs for oral translation to better understand English than advanced levels; For Item 2 and Item 12, beginner and intermediate students showed a significantly greater need for translation activities to better understand what they are reading than advanced students; For Item 3 and Item 13, beginner students are more in favor of sometimes having instructions in Turkish to clarify what they are doing than intermediate and advanced students. However, advanced students favor classroom instructions in English more than beginner and intermediate respondents; For Item 4, advanced-level students mentally translate words or sentences significantly less than intermediate levels; For Item 5 and Item 15, beginner and intermediate learners feel significantly more motivated than advanced learners to participate in classroom activities when the teacher speaks Turkish sometimes. However, advanced learners feel significantly more motivated than beginner and intermediate

learners to express their opinions and feelings when only English is used; For Item 6 and Item 16, advanced students' anxiety levels are significantly lower than intermediate-level students when they are supposed to use only English in language tasks, For Item 9, beginner and intermediate learners consider bilingual dictionaries significantly more helpful to understanding than advanced learners; For Item 20, beginner and intermediate levels find translation activities significantly more useful to realize the differences and similarities between Turkish and English than advanced levels. Last, with regard to ranking the four skills, no statistically significant difference between Austrian and Turkish learners was determined by one-way ANOVA.

4. Discussion

Translation is avoided because it is often associated with word-for-word translation and literary texts practiced in the Grammar-Translation Method. However, clear from the results of interviews and questionnaires, it is still used by nonnative teachers, particularly to teach grammar and vocabulary. First, regarding general attitudes towards own-language use and translation, nonnative language teachers in Austria and Turkey hold positive and negative attitudes towards own-language use and translation. The student questionnaire showed that the use of own language and translation was most prevalent at 'never' and 'rarely' in Austria, while Turkish student use was most prevalent at 'rarely' and 'sometimes'.

Second, attitudes towards the advantages and disadvantages of own language and translation will be discussed in four main thematic fields as presented in the theoretical considerations: linguistic, humanistic, pedagogical and practical perspectives. From a linguistic perspective, nonnative teachers in Austria and Turkey emphasized that their students want to understand, so they occasionally or sometimes use their own language and translation. From the viewpoints of students, sometimes using oral translation or in reading activities is acceptable to understand language tasks better and also they favor when teachers use English for classroom instructions rather than their own languages; nevertheless, the interviewees indicated that they sometimes give instructions in German or Turkish, especially for lower-level students, to ensure understanding. In addition to understanding, the purpose of translation and own-language use

by Austrian teachers is to highlight similarities and differences between English and German language structures. Turkish teachers, however, are more concerned with explaining and clarifying language structures in English. Code-switching between languages at the lexical level is considered as a conversation builder because it helps conversation progress, promotes learning new words. It clearly seems that the practices of Teachers are compatible with the claims made by the proponents of own-language use and translation. Regarding a humanistic aspect, Teachers have noticed that lower-level students feel comfortable and motivated to participate in classroom activities when own language and translation are used as mentioned in the literature review. Teachers would prefer to foster students' communicative skills and some follow a strict ban on using their own language. From the point of students, when Turkish is used in certain situations, advanced-level students in Turkey feel significantly less enforcement than intermediate students. Regarding the pedagogical aspects, bilingual teaching is claimed to be beneficial for language learning besides considering learners' cultural and linguistic identity. Similarly, some nonnative teachers in my study said that own-language use and translation are sometimes inevitable and favored bilingual teaching. Others, however, stress the importance of exposure to the target language and prioritize monolingual teaching, especially at higher levels due to students' proficiency. However, when asked about the attitudes of nonnative teachers towards bilingual teachers and native teachers, respectively, interviewees agree that they are one step ahead of monolingual teachers because they also have knowledge of students' own language and culture. The contribution of translation into multicultural and linguistic diversity in the classroom was confirmed by the all of the Turkish teachers, while Austrian teachers held negative or neutral attitudes. Nonnative teachers generally carefully consider when to use own language and translation with teenagers but they use the techniques more readily with beginner, elementary, pre-intermediate students. Otherwise, teaching translation is found to be more appropriate for advanced students. This result aligns with the recent studies which claim the benefit of translation and own language at lower levels. Regarding the practical aspects of own-language use and translation, according to the results of my study, the Teachers consider the use of own language and translation as time savers that hasten the learning process. Furthermore, when teaching translation as a fifth skill is in question, there is little interest among

nonnative teachers as it is believed to be time consuming. The results of the questionnaire suggest that students' perceptions parallel the attitudes of nonnative teachers. Both Austrian and Turkish students regard use of own language and translation time saver. All of the teachers in both countries (excluding S10) support integrating translation activities into course books because the activities are considered necessary for certain levels. Austrian teachers emphasize that they would exclude translation in a professional sense and lengthy and overburdened texts, while Turkish teacher S10 is against any use of translation in her course books although she favors using brief explanations in Turkish. The controversy between monolingual and bilingual teaching has been also seen in the use of dictionary. In my study, both Austrian and Turkish students report that bilingual dictionaries are helpful for better understanding. Turkish students said bilingual dictionaries make understanding more difficult than Austrian students, who said that bilingual dictionaries do not make things difficult to understand. Austrian and Turkish teachers favor combining translation activities with the other four skills rather than teaching translation as a fifth skill, according to the interviews. Students from both countries ranked the language skills reading and writing before speaking and listening in terms of the effectiveness of translation and own-language use. This result might justify why nonnative teachers tend to avoid using own language and translation as much as possible and the teachers' argument that frequent use of own language and translation can hinder the development of students' communication skills.

5. Conclusion

This study investigated nonnative teachers' and learners' attitudes referring to four themes: linguistic, humanistic, pedagogical and practical aspects of own language and translation. The research addressed the dilemma that nonnative teachers and tertiary-level students face about stopping their inner voices in their own language or using their own language as a resource. The general finding was that, although not completely favorable, using own language and translation among lower levels in predefined situations to some extent is considered necessary by nonnative teachers and students in Austria and Turkey. Further research is needed to investigate attitudinal dispositions of native speakers and nonnative teachers. Further studies might consider exploring the

relationship between linguistic attitude and achievement in language learning.

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An Exploratory Study on Attitudes of B Level Intermediate Students towards Multiplayer Online Roleplaying Games as a Language Learning and Teaching Tool

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Abstract

This study has been conducted for the purpose of determining attitudes of B Level Intermediate Students at a prep-school of a private university in Turkey towards Massively Multiplayer Online Role Playing Games as a language learning and teaching tool and finding out underlying reasons for these students' perceptions regarding the issue. Also, the study aims to see students' suggestions about these MMORPGs' integration as instructional tools. For this purpose, the student sample of the research consists of eleven, nine of whom are male and two of whom are female. All the participants have a gaming hobby playing MMORPGs such as WoW, LoL, and DotA. Data for this study has been collected through qualitative data collection tools, which are the semi-structured interviews. The findings provided clear answers to both of the research questions which explored the perceptions of B level Intermediate Students and integrating these games into English language teaching. The results showed that MMORPGs play a crucial role in improving vocabulary, speaking, reading and listening skills while they do not affect grammar and writing. In addition, the findings indicate that these games can be used as instructional tools, particularly in listening & speaking classes.

1. Background to the study & Literature Review

Massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) have drawn particular attention among language acquisition researchers (see, e.g., Bytheway, 2011; Rankin, Gold & Gooch, 2006; Thorne, 2008) .MMOGs are thought to promote enjoyable, collaborative play between different groups of players, encouraging language learners to be involved in communicative activities. (Nardi, Ly & Harris, 2007).To illustrate, Steinkuehler'(2007) study found that during game play in the context of Lineage II, an example

of MMOG, players participated in a variety of language practices and this made the players build interpersonal relationships and community in the game. Another further study, Thorne's (2008) examination of an intercultural communicative exchange between two WoW gamers indicates how the goal directed nature of MMOG activity can encourage language learning. Some studies, however, have taken a different approach by arguing that participation in MMOGs can help improve learners' second language vocabulary (Bytheway, 2011; Rankin, 2006). In Bytheway's study (2011), six Non-Native English Speakers (NNES) participants played the English version of WoW and MMORPGs provide rich vocabulary learning contexts. The results revealed that all participants developed and used vocabulary learning strategies that are suitable for the MMORPG context. In a similar study (Rankin, 2006), the students who played the game Ever Quest 2 increased their English vocabulary skills. Furthermore, Huang and Yung study showed that learners' vocabulary abilities have improved after they used the MORPG language learning environment. Also, Peterson (2010) suggests that MMOGs allow for role playing and risk taking by language learners as well as reducing inhibition in target language interaction. This is also obvious in a study by Reinders and Wattana (2011) and the results indicated that ESL learners demonstrated increase interaction through text and voice chat in consecutive gaming sessions. Furthermore, elementary school students who studied English with MMORPGs showed higher scores in listening, writing, and reading than those who studied English with face-to-face classroom instruction in elementary English education in Korea. When it comes to the perspective of the learne rs', a study in Finland indicated that upper- intermediate level students learnt new vocabulary items and they claimed that game would only be suitable outside the classroom and they could not be integrated into teaching for efficiency and for ensured learning. As for Turkey context, Turgut and İrgin did research on young learners' language learning via computer games and the findings indicated that they have potential benefits for vocabulary and motivation. However, there is no study conducted about MORPGs and students' perceptions were somehow neglected in most of the studies. Therefore, this study will discuss the perceptions and suggestions of the learners about the effect of MORPGs.

2. Methodologhy

This chapter presents the research questions, participants, the data collection tools along with the data collection procedures and data analysis.

2.1 Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are perceptions of B level Intermediate students at a prep-school of a private university in Turkey about the effect of Multiplayer Online Role Playing Games on improving their language learning which includes listening, reading, speaking, writing, vocabulary, grammar?

2. What are suggestions of B level Intermediate students at a prep-school of a private university in Turkey on how to integrate Multiplayer Online Role Playing Games as instructional tools?

2.2 Participants

This study was conducted exclusively on university students from different B level classes from the English preparatory unit of a private university in Turkey. The sample consisted of eleven students. Most of the participants were male (9 out of 11) while the rest was female. (2 out of 11) The participants differed in ages from 18 to 20. With regard to background in English Language, it was found out that seven participants started to study English when they were on the 4th grade and they were ten years old. One of the participants began studying English on the 3rd grade while others, three out of 11, have been studying English since kindergarten.

2.3 Data Collection Tools & Procedures

Data for this study has been collected through qualitative data collection tools, which are the semi-structured interviews. Students were interviewed by the researcher, recorded them via Sony IC recorder and transferred the recordings to the computer. Each student is interviewed separately. The interviewer had a list of questions so as to initiate students' talk. All of the interviews were carried out in the same week to prevent the students' talking to each other. Each interview lasted about fifteen to

twenty five minutes. If the students explained their ideas about the issue, the researcher did not ask any further questions. Moreover, the researcher sometimes changed the questions according to the flow of the conversations. Lastly, all the participants read and signed a consent form.

3.0 Results

In this section, the semi-structured interviews are analyzed and explained by the use of tables and excerpts from the interviews. Gaming background, nature and content of the games, effect of the MMORPGs on improving language skills and using them as instructional tools are the main headings to be discussed.

3.1 Gaming background

The participants in this study were part of a similar background. It can be clearly maintained that all the participants have a great experience in using computers and internet. Moreover, each of the participants in the study spends an average of 5 to 6 hours on the internet a day at home and at school. The findings indicate that most of the participants, 8 out of 11, were experienced gamers and they have been playing these games for about seven years while they played MMORPGs for at least 4 to 5 hours a day (sometimes exceeding 40 hours every week) for more than four years. The sample is given in (1):

> *(1)I am playing LoL these days. I play it when I go home and have dinner. I generally play until I go to bed. That is to say, I play at least 5 or 6 hours a day. I use 80% of my time on the internet for playing LoL. If I have nothing to do at the weekend, I play MMORPGs all the time. (Mehmet, interview, 17 May 2013)*

Although the participants have had experience playing a variety of games, mostly, they play World of Warcraft (WoW), League of Legends (LoL), Knight Online, Counter Strike and Defense of the Ancients (DotA). The reasons for playing MMORPGs are categorized into four groups, which are friends and having fun, the characteristics of MMORPGs, interaction with others and creating your own avatar. The examples can be seen in (2) and (3):

(2)WoW is a strategy game and increasing levels is the motivating factor. You always want to do better things and it is somehow mysterious. (Ümmühan, interview, 20 May, 2013)

(3)I think, in addition to having fun, interacting with other players and creating networks with them are great. I remember learning a lot about other cultures while speaking to native speakers. (Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)

3.2 Nature & Content of MMORPGs

Apart from the characteristics of these games such as requiring communication and teamwork, carrying out some tasks with other players and forming some strategies, some other characteristics of the games should be emphasized to understand their effect on language learning. When the data was analyzed thoroughly, it was obviously seen that nine participants in the study used both English and Turkish in these games. However, they stated that they used English mostly 90% by adding that utilizing Turkish is only possible on Turkish server and they seldom played these games on Turkish server and all the participants are of the opinion that they have been playing with people all around the world from a variety of nations. The frequency of interacting with native speakers is 100% on the west servers. The example is shown in (4):

(4)I have both Turkish and English server of LoL and I am using English on the west server and I am using Turkish on Turkish server. On the west server, we must use English 100% and there are both native and nonnative speakers all around the world. There are players from Bulgaria, France, England, Greece, that is to say, across the world. (Selin, interview, 20 May, 2013)

When the students' preferences are taken into account, it can be asserted that 6 participants do not prefer Turkish version of these games because of the following reasons: Turkish people's use of slang language and swearing in the game, their not knowing how to play these kinds of games, their not using English, other players' not understanding what you are saying, and Turkish people's saying what to do to other Turkish players.

3.3. Effect on English Language Learning

3.3.1 MMORPGs' effect on improving vocabulary

While analyzing the semi-structured interviews about vocabulary, the data was classified into two groups, which are strategies used in the games and the games' effect on how to improve vocabulary.

3.3.1.1. Strategies used by the participants while playing MMORPGs

During semi-structured interviews, participants reported vocabulary learning activities they purposefully are involved in while playing MMORPGs. Table 3.1 "strategies used by the participants while playing MMORPGs" indicates the five vocabulary learning strategies that were identified during the semi-structured interviews. Strategies are ranked in order of which strategies participants used most frequently or considered most valuable or effective.

Table 3.1 "strategies used by the participants while playing MMORPGs

Strategies used by the participants while playing MMORPGs
1. Using dictionaries (All the participants)
2. Guessing from the context (9 participants)
3. Research on the internet (3 participants)
4. Association image or action with the word (2 Participants)
5. Requesting / Giving Explanations (Only 1 participant)

> *(5) I am searching for the vocabulary items on Google or online dictionaries. I think that you cannot memorize the words without searching them by yourself. For example, we have an exam today and my friends gave a vocabulary list to memorize. I have read so many times, but I cannot memorize them. It is not possible to learn the vocabulary items in this way. However, in MMORPGs, I am searching for the word and I am putting that into sentence and immediately, I*

learn it because I put an effort and it is meaningful for me in this context.(Mehmet, interview, 17 May, 2013)

3.3.1.2 The effect of MMORPGs on Vocabulary

3.3.1.2.1 Encountering Learned Vocabulary Items in the Classroom Setting & Memorizing easily

All the participants claim that they encounter the words they have learnt through these games in the classroom context by adding that their friends do not know these words but they know what they mean from these games.

> *(6) My vocabulary knowledge is composed of these games (99%). For example, I learned 'frost' in the game and we learnt it in a unit about weather conditions. I knew it before learning it in the class. Another further example is that I learned 'trade' from the game and even if my friend do not knew it, I knew what it meant' (Alp, interview, 24 May 203)*

3.3.1.2.2 Daily Language & Teacher Talk

One of the participants asserted that the words he has learnt in these games are used in daily language and the teacher uses them while lecturing. In that sense, the student who knows the word from the game have a better understanding what the teacher or the other person talks about.

3.3.1.2.3 Encountering the words in the exam

Two participants claimed that they came up with the words in the game in the exams conducted by the prep-school. The case is seen in (7): *My friend wrote a word meaning 'paw, claw' in the game and last week, in the exam, I saw the word and I answered the vocabulary question in the reading passage easily.'* (Ahmet, interview, 23 May, 2013)

3.3.1.2.4 Helping guessing from the context

These intermediate level students will take TOEFL ITP and they should definitely have the sub-skill of guessing from the context because there are some basic questions regarding this skill in the reading section of the exam. All the participants, in accordance with this idea, noted that they developed this sub-skill thanks to MMORPGs. The sample is evident in the following excerpt: (8)

(8)Instead of using the dictionaries all the time while reading something, I developed 'deducing from the context' thanks to MMORPGs. Because I read lots of reading passages in these games and when I do not know a word, I try to guess it from the context not to lose any time, as a result, this reflected in my real life learning. (Can, interview, 21 May, 2013)

3.3.2 MMORPGs' effect on improving s peaking

3.3.2.1 Speaking in MMORPGs

On examining thoroughly the data, it was found out that four participants do not prefer speaking in MMORPGs because of not having enough self-confidence and being introvert. However, seven participants speak while playing these types of games. The reasons for speaking in the game are grouped into four sections, which are achieving the goal & duties in the play, talking about the strategies & collaboration, organizing the team & taking the responsibility of the team and interacting with native speakers & having fun. Seven participants suggested that they must speak to achieve their aims and gain an access to a new level, skill or area, so they talk about the strategies collaboratively with other players. In addition, three participants told that they should speak to organize the team to increase levels. Besides, three participants hold the idea that they like communicating with native speakers and having fun with them other than playing games. The example can be found in the following comments (9):

(9) 'On Skype or Team speak, all the players come together and one of them organizes the team. You take a responsibility for the team, so you must speak to manage the team and to improve in the game by talking about the strategies.(Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)

The games' own programmes, Ventrilo, Skype and team speak are the programmes suggested by the participants to communicate with other players during the game.

3.3.2.2 The effect of MMORPGs on Speaking

Table 3.2 The effect of MMORPGs stated by the participants

The effect of MMORPGs stated by the participants
1. Reducing inhibition in target language & Building confidence
2. Building interpersonal relationships & Community in the game
3. Speaking English without any hesitation
4. Practice
5. Success in exams

Table 3.2 "indicates how MMORPGs affect the participants' speaking skills. Most of the participants, 6 out of 11, reported that speaking in MMORPGs enabled them to build confidence and decrease inhibition in English. The samples are given (10) and (11):

> *(10) When I start a combat, for example, we say 'come with me, we have to win this game', we are using imperatives and we speak with a lot of people at the same time, so all these things improve my speaking skills, but I must say that I am confident to speak in English in the class because I am used to it thanks to these games and I am relaxed, even in the exams. (Ahmet, interview, 23 May, 2013)*
>
> *(11)My speaking skills improve thanks to these games and apart from that I made some friends from different cultures while speaking. Sometimes, we can talk about everything other than games. For example, I learnt a lot about French culture from my French friends in WoW' (Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)*

Finally, the participants are of the opinion that they do not have chances to speak outside the classroom environment and speaking is an ability which improves by practicing. In accordance with this idea, they hold the idea that MMORPGs are great opportunities for them to practice English.

3.3.3 MMORPGs effect on improving reading

Semi-structured interviews indicated that there are some causes of reading during MMORPGs. Carrying out the tasks and increasing levels are of central importance as it is sated before and the participants acknowledged that they should read the stories of the characters or the characteristics of the abilities or the items to move to the next level and they are like a story and pleasurable. The findings demonstrated five types of reading which are the stories of the characters & biographies, characteristics of the heroes and items, other players' writings, official websites of the games to get information and blogs of the games. There are a number of factors to be viewed in terms of the effect of the games on reading skill. Table 3.3 shows the effect of MMORPGs on Reading Skill.

Table 3.3 the effect of MMORPGs on Reading Skill

Effect of MMORPGs on Reading Skill
1. Deduction & Inference
2. Vocabulary learning
3. Influence on reading in the class & Speed in reading
4. Understanding the structure of the sentences
5. Success in the exam
6. Preventing attention deficit

As it seen in Table 3.3, MMORPGs affect reading skill in a variety of ways. Deduction & Inference is one of the sub-skills and it plays a crucial role in reading. According to three participants, they developed this skill while reading and it reflected in the reading passages done in the classroom and in the exams. What is more, they reported that the topics in these games can be found in other sections of the exam other than reading section and they understand what to do better contributing to their success. Furthermore, the participants hold the idea that these reading passages

provide the players with a great number of vocabulary items which improve their vocabulary capacity. The sample is given in (12):

> *(12): I can say I develop my deduction skill with the help of reading the passages in these games because you have limited time in the play and you want to become fast, so when you do not understand something, you try to guess, so I, now, can understand what is happening in any passage in English by looking at the context. Also, the vocabulary items can in these games can appear in the classroom, it is very good for me. Even, the topic in one of the reading passages appeared in our exam and I did not have any difficulty. As I said, these reading passages have full of information. (Ahmet, interview, 23 May, 2013)*

Apart from these results, one of the participants suggested that she had attention deficit and this had an unpleasant influence on my reading skill, but the fact that MMORPGs enable to gather attention was proved in science and she added that she has felt better in any reading passage since she started these games. Thus, it can be pointed out that these games even improve the attention span while reading.

3.3.4 MMORPGs effect on Listening

In MMORPGs, listening and speaking are integrated like in an English language class. The programs used for listening are the same as the ones in speaking which are Ventrilo, TeamSpeak and Skype. As for the kinds of listening, students stated that they listened to native or nonnative speakers of English, streams of proficient players and blogs of proficient players about item and skill characteristics in the games. What kind of an effect these games have to improve listening is the topic to be touched on and the participants reported five categories with regard to the issue: being familiar with the language and different accents, understanding the conversations easily in English, success in the exam, chance to listen to native speakers and contribution even to TOEFL listening section. The situations are given in (13) and (14):

> *(13) I am using team speak and Skype for speaking and I am, of course, listening to other players at the same time in this way. Since there is a variety of the players' nation, you have a chance to listen to different accents and you become familiar with them in this way.(Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)*

(14)I do not practice any listening other than the ones in MMORPGs and I can say I continuously listen to native speakers while talking about the tasks with them. I think it really developed my success in listening section of TOEFL. (Alp, interview, 24 May 203)

3.3.5 MMORPGs effect on Writing

The participants write when they do not need to speak according to the data in the current study. Upon analyzing the content of the writing in MMORPGs, most of the participants, eight out of eleven reported that they use informal language with abbreviations while writing other players. Only two female participants stated that they use formal language Effect of MMORPGs on writing is totally different from reading, listening, speaking and vocabulary. Nine participants out of eleven are of the opinion that these kinds of games do not have any effect to improve writing skill and they do not affect success in this area. The example is seen in (15):

(15) We are using an informal language while writing and I must say that the use of abbreviations is very common. I do not think that it affects my writing in the classroom and outside the classroom.

However, two of the participants have the opinion that their writing in MMORPGs has an influence on explaining the events in order and they have become familiar with some basic sentence structures.

3.3.6 MMORPGs effect on grammar

The results gathered related to grammar is in line with the findings of writing skill. Eight participants acknowledged that there is a difference between structure use in the game and the classroom as they use informal & daily language in MMORPGs while writing and speaking. Therefore, they do not think that these games have an impact on improving grammar. The case is clear in (16):

(16) I do not think that these games improve grammar because of the language content used in the games, in my opinion; you cannot learn grammar without getting formal teaching or instruction. (Mehmet, interview, 17 May 2013)

Nevertheless, three participants are opponents of this idea stating that they should use grammar correctly because if they do not use grammar well, other players cannot understand what they mean. Also, one of the

participants holds the idea that other players correct what they write when they make mistakes in grammar, which discourages her to write them. The sample is given in (17):

> *(17) When I use an incorrect tense, the other player does not understand me or misunderstands what I say and the play goes in a different direction. (Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)*

3.4. Using MMORPGs as instructional tools in ELT

Upon analyzing suggestions by the participants about utilizing MMORPGs as instructional tools in English language teaching, it was found that three participants did not find these games as suitable for integrating into teaching. The reasons given by the participants are that students will use Turkish, they play the game among themselves and they will lose their motivation when these games are used instructional tools. An example is seen in (18):

> *(18): I think, Turkish students will abuse this situation, they will play the games just to have fun and they will not use English. (Hikmet, interview, 24 May, 2013)*

Most of the participants, six out of eleven participants favor the idea that these games can be used in listening & speaking classes while one of them prefers reading & writing and the other one finds these games for vocabulary teaching. The data in the current study showed some results regarding motivation of the students when these games start to be used in classroom. Six participants agree with the idea that this situation will increase motivation in the course as in the following case (19):

> *(19) : I think integrating these games into class would be great and more beneficial. These games make people addicted. You will both have fun and learn some things. Motivation in that course will definitely increase. (Can, interview, 21 May, 2013)*

One of the participants believes that this depends on the student whereas another participants states that using these games will decrease motivation for these games. The last participants hold the idea that it will create a doping effect as it is seen in her statement (20):

> *(20): If the games are obligatory, they will lose their attraction. It will increase motivation so much that it will create a doping effect at the*

first time, but then it will start to be monotonous. (Selin, interview, 20 May, 2013)

Assessment is another issue to be considered according to the participants; however, only two participants suggested certain assessment types related to MMORPGs. One of them reported that there can be a programme which record what students write; and as a consequence, they can get grades. Another student thinks that there should not be grades as a result of playing games since it may discourage them to continue playing games.

How MMORPGs can be conducted is the main answer to the second research question. Most of the participants are of the opinion that students can do practice in listening & speaking class. They think that students can use earphones on Skype, so no one disturbs each other in listening & speaking class. What is more, most of the participants noted that the teacher could create an account, follow the game and even teach vocabulary items used in the games. The point all the participants agree with is that it is not possible to integrate these books with the books used in the classroom. They usually hold the idea that these games can be utilized to practice listening and speaking separately. The samples are given: (21):

(21): I everyone plays these games in a course; they will improve reading and listening. We can wear our earphones, so we will not disturb each other. It will increase motivation, I think. Maybe, the teacher can also participate in the game. (Can, interview, 21 May, 2013)

4. Discussion

The findings provided an obvious answer to the first research. Firstly, all the participants have a gaming hobby and spend a great deal of time on MMORPGs. The results indicate that vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking can be improved through these games while they do not have a great impact on grammar and writing. This idea may result from the fact that the language of these games is informal and the players do not pay attention to structure so much. Since grammar is associated with explicit teaching and formal language is used in writing and grammar, the findings are not surprising. The present study shows that the students playing MMORPGs improve their vocabulary in pleasurable ways. The students

who are reluctant to use dictionaries, search for the word in the classroom or guess the meanings from the context to carry out these actions in the games. This may arise from the fact that they have an aim to achieve in the games and they need to know the meanings of unknown words to be able to continue in the game. These findings confirmed the study of Bytheway (2011) stating that the participants need to learn vocabulary to play. Moreover, the participants are of the idea that they encounter these words in the classroom environment, even sometimes in the exams, daily life, and as a result, they become more motivated. What is more, they claim that they develop skills in deducing meanings despite not knowing all the new words in the game and it is a well-known fact that this strategy is needed in every phase of language learning. Also, Gass & Selinker (2001) maintains that the natural repetition in games allows language learners to be exposed to the target language creating opportunities for acquisition to occur. In that sense, the perceptions of the participants are in line with research.

Also, this study drastically showed that these games play a vital role in improving reading skill. According to the participants, as they read in the game each day, they improve deduction & inference, skim and scan fast, vocabulary learning in the passages of the games. Upon analyzing the results of this study it can be obviously said that this study is quite parallel to the studies of Peterson (2010) and Reinders and Wattana (2011) mentioned in literature review because most of the participants stated that speaking through these ga mes enabled them to be more relaxed in speaking English and they believe that they do not hesitate to speak since they talk to native speakers of English through these games almost every day. This case may spring from the fact that the atmosphere in the ga mes is non-threatening including enjoyment. They interact with each other to complete a task, which requires collaboration and communicative negotiation of meaning. As a result, they improve their speaking skills. These ideas are also supported by Steinkuehler (2007) and Thorne(2008) which say that these games cause the players build a community and interpersonal relationships. Moreover, speaking is a productive skill to be practiced a lot in order to be competent and the participants practice almost every day having an objective in their mind. As for the listening skill, the situation is somehow similar to speaking. Students become familiar with different accents and they have a chance to listen to native speakers outside the classroom, which will give rise to ample amount of, comprehensible

and pleasurable input. The result of the second research question is quite to the contrary to the one of the studies explained in literature review. The study conducted by Eskelinen (2012) with upper-intermediate level students indicated that games could not be integrated into teaching for efficiency and for ensured learning. However, the current study has taken a different approach by stating MMORPGs can be used as instructional tools in the classroom environment. This may spring from the fact that the participants in this study are somehow addicted to MMORPGs, so they cannot resist playing these all the time. Most of the participants believe that these games can be used in listening & speaking classes. The reason why t hey think so can be caused by the characteristics of these games and the lack of practice related to listening & speaking in the classroom. As informal language is used and vocabulary is sometimes repeated, the students, most probably, hold the idea that these games cannot be used in other skills as much as listening and speaking.

5. Conclusions and Implications

Computers games are criticized for a variety of reasons such as wasting time, causing violent behavior in children and young adults, unsociable people and being harmful even for health. However, it seems that this qualitative study claims some positive results in terms of computer games. The fact that students devote their most of their time to MMORPGs does not say that they do not learn anything. This study shows that enjoyment and motivation is enhanced by the MMORPGs interaction and all the skills of English language is affected by these games. The studies in literature review and this current study involve evidence suggesting that MMORPGs facilitates language learning. If a curriculum wants to use computer technology, it should search to comprehend more about students 'out of school learning and experiences with the computer games. In this way, more creative and enjoyable activities for students can be applied in the classroom as the students suggest. It is generally thought that these games cannot be integrated to classroom, but the learners have contrary views .It should not be forgotten that the learners are the ones who are influenced by the changes in the curriculum, so their suggestions can be taken into account and these kinds of games can be used in the class, especially in listening & speaking classes.

The recommendations will be useful for a similar study in the future. Firstly, this study is an explanatory one and it only reflects the perceptions of the learners who are fond of playing MMORPGs. In the future, teachers' attitudes towards the issue can be analyzed, especially for using these games as instructional tools. Secondly, an empirical study may be conducted to see the instructional effectiveness of these games. Lastly, the number of students is not so high, so it can be increased for better generalizations.

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