



İSTANBUL SABAHATTİN ZAIM UNIVERSITY

1st International ELT Symposium:
“A Historical Evaluation of ELT in
International Context:
Lessons From the Past to
Shape the Future”

İstanbul 2013

İSTANBUL SABAHATTİN ZAİM UNIVERSITY

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Preface

The Foundation of Knowledge Dissemination has been serving our country for many years, in numerous ways. The establishment of İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, by this foundation is one of the latest and non-negligible examples of its services.

The newly established **İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University** has already become a hub of higher education, dedicated to sciences and arts. Its contribution is of vital importance to the academic scene in Istanbul. It works towards a spiritual revival of our national culture and arts.

In this regard, the 1st International ELT Symposium : **”A Historical Evaluation of ELT in International Context: Lessons from the Past to Shape the Future”** aims to tackle urgent problems of the theoretical and practical aspects of teaching English, from the perspectives of linguistic and methodological findings. So the backbone of this symposium is to deal with the problems and challenges encountered in the past, in order to find a solution to prevent their repetitions, and pave the way for more comfortable teaching opportunities for the future. In this context we owe much to our speakers and attendants whose contributions will always be appreciated.

Hence the aim of this symposium is to exchange ideas and practical knowledge concerning the problems of ELT and conducting research in modern society. The symposium will be held in the framework of innovative techniques and methodologies of teaching English.

This international symposium, that signifies the promising future of this university, may be taken as one of the remarkable activities as well as an initial step towards its forthcoming programmes in the international sphere.

In the organization of this symposium our dear chief of trustees Prof.Dr. Ramazan Evren; Rector Prof.Dr. Adem Esen; vice-Rector Prof. Dr. Ömer İnan; the Dean of the Faculty of Education, Prof. Dr. Hikmet Savcı; spared nothing to meet the needs and reach the expected end, because they are conscious of the significance of this symposium as the first international step towards the recognition of our university . Therefore, I am proud to be thankful to them, and am aware that we are indebted much to their efforts. I also thank Doç.Dr. Iryna Semeniuk (coordinator) who dedicated herself fully to realising this symposium. I must not forget to thank İbrahim Yılmaz and Tolga Mar, who contributed to the preparation and design of this book.

Lastly, I would like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to the presenters for their valuable papers, as well as to all those who participated in the symposium.

I have no doubt that this book will be an invaluable contribution to the field of English Language Teaching.

Prof. Dr. İbrahim Yılgör
Chair
Symposium Organization Board

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Designing an ESP Lab-Based Course to Technical Students: Towards more Innovative Teaching

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Abstract

In an age of shrinking resources, there is an increasing prominence for responsibility in community life, including education. In foreign language teaching/learning, one of numerous consequences is the growing significance attached to careful studies related to learner needs as a vital requirement for successful course design. Hence, our aim in the present paper is to design an English lab-based course to technical students to develop their competence in this globalised society where English is crucial in their professional careers.

Technical English aims at helping this category of students increase their knowledge of technical English and develop the vocabulary and grammar needed. By using technological materials, like the language laboratory, students become more motivated, accurate and more appropriate in a range of key technical contexts.

Key words: Syllabus design, ESP Lab-Based Course, Technical Students, Innovative Teaching.

Introduction

The need for language is generally defined within very general educational, social and academic purposes. The rationale for associating language with goals like these is to motivate policy and planning for language education at the national level.

The most important thing to consider in the present paper is to design an English lab-based course to technical students which may help students be linguistically competent and responsible for their own learning, this is by attempting to incorporate technology in designing the syllabus, including listening and speaking activities which assist learners reach a level of specificity that can garner the support of policy makers towards the actual demands for language teaching.

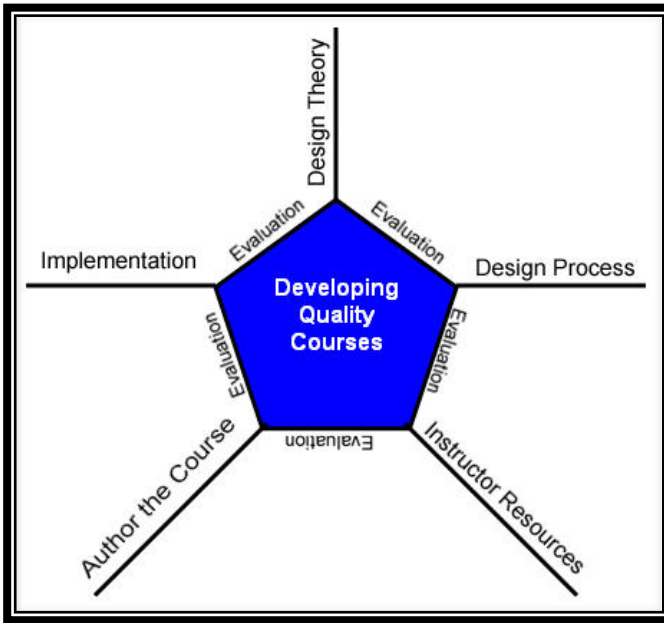
Problematics

Our problematic then is to design a lab-based course in the teaching of English to technical students, considering that the need for English is vital to cater for the needs for their own learning pace. Hence, teachers have to design and illustrate a wide variety of task-based and learning methodologies based on using the language lab which satisfy the needs of these students. The main aim of the English course is to develop students' ability in extracting information from technical manuals and textbooks in a wide range of technical areas including mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, workshop practice, electronics, etc.

This lab-based course needs to take into account the everyday reality of the working teacher as they design short and long instructional units. It is based on a real life question, such as: Who are the students? When is the lesson? What can go in to a lesson or course? How do people learn? How can I teach? What materials can I choose? How can I get started on planning? What are my constraints and freedoms? What activities can I use and adapt?

Course Development

Each course should contain many practical principles clearly explained. The course designed may help inexperienced teachers gather working routines and sequences of ideas and to help experienced teachers to refresh the routines they have grown used to. It examines the issues of designing language courses from three distinct perspectives: *Teachers' Voices*, which are authentic accounts of teachers' experiences; *Frameworks*, which are comprehensive discussions of theoretical issues; and *Investigations*, which are inquiry-based activities. It should be mentioned that we needs analysis, syllabus design, materials development/adaptation, and evaluation are the core for designing such a course. The following diagram illustrates this:



Course Development

Additionally, it goes without saying that learners have special rights when it comes to deciding the content of courses they are to undergo, our aim is first to provide students with a basic knowledge of general English which require an elementary course in English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The second scientific and academic aim is to design user-friendly technical concepts which will be clearly presented using motivating texts and clear audio visual illustrations. The technical aims are enclosed under the use of updated topics which reflect the latest developments in technology and are relevant to students' needs and interests.

Courses should be flexible, i.e., the course uses core language common to a range of specializations, for instance technical and scientific English. In addition to this grammar will have a place in this project, it will be regularly practised and there will be a very complete grammar summary section with practical activities. Finally, communicative skills will also take place in this course; learners will be familiar with the four skills which are integrated in realistic contexts.

Technology-Based Courses

Many corporate activities require the use of foreign languages. The need for technical-oriented foreign language skills has major importance: for instance, foreign language use is a way of preventing miscommunication among members of societies. It is generally assumed that solid command of the mother tongue of the foreign business partners is especially valuable for writing and speaking with legal consequences. Foreign language pedagogues have proposed few models and educational guidelines which interweave language competence with specific domains.

Considering the fact that as in all instructions, the use of educational technology should focus on helping learners effectively construct new knowledge rather than trying to effectively transmit information. Learning is more than accumulation of information, but rather involves organizing, reorganizing, and linking new information and experiences with prior knowledge and past experience. This process, known as elaboration, constitutes the core of all learning. Educational technologies will be most effective inasmuch as they encourage learners to construct robust, meaningful knowledge structures.

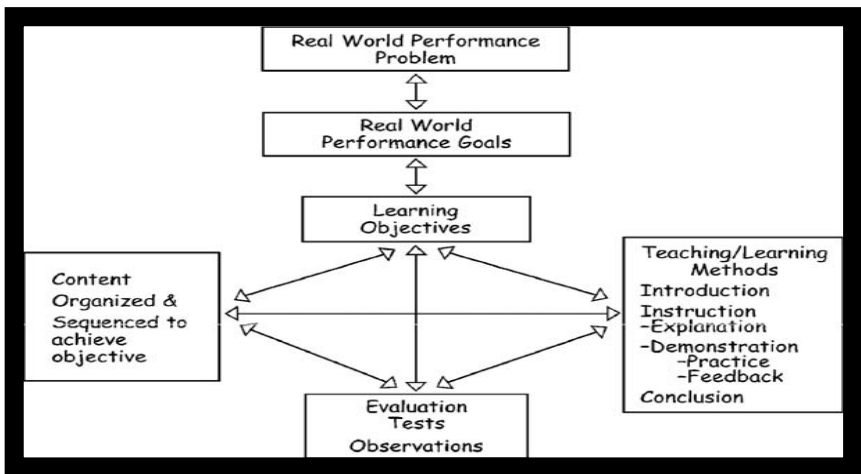
Besides, keeping abreast of the latest information and communication technologies, requires efficient access to these information resources mainly in English. Thus, to contribute to the national scientific development, our course is based on lab use. As it is generally acknowledged, English is considered as being secondary, this is proven by the fact that curriculum planners gave no attention to the content, methodologies and references to this elite of students. Our argument is that, despite this fact, the researchers in this project will try to make a step towards helping both teachers and learners.

Therefore, ESP teachers will be able to follow this design of a series of integrated instructional units that result in learner acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The courses aim at meeting the both the societal and educational needs, describing the real world performance problem the course addresses, a course goal, an overall course objective, an audio-visual model of the course units, and a description of the course content. The course units will, in all probabilities, lead learners to attain the course

goal. Each unit contains its own objective, content, instructional/learning strategies, and learner evaluation strategies with communication practice.

English-Lab Based Course

ESP teachers have already called for an urgent need for such a kind of practice. Yet, many Algerian teachers in charge of ESP course strongly feel the lack of professional competence in ESP. There is still a strong perception that ESP teaching means knowing about students' field of study, in which ESP teachers do not feel themselves competent. In view of this, the following instructional design is suggested:



Course Framework

In a more detailed way, teachers should follow the following suggested phases:

- Assess the learners on the desired knowledge and skills (English level) by identifying their perceptions of their language needs, through the use of questionnaires and interviews.
- Review the curriculum for the presence or absence of the desired knowledge and skills.
- Describe the real world performance problem the course addresses through a clear rationale for the course.
- Establish course objectives, which inform your learners of how they will be assessed.

- Integrate language skills such as listening, speaking and communication skills.
- Use the language lab to create motivation and develop learners' computational skills.
- Design the content according to the learners' needs, preferences and interests.

Conclusion

This paper targets and focuses on course design – how to design an ESP course and how did experienced ESP teachers set about developing courses. It is based on the idea that we can learn a good deal from observing experienced teachers/course developers. Technology should be incorporated to motivate learners in their learning process. In addition to this, before designing any course, teachers may become developers and adopt and evaluate what is appropriate to their learners.

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The Beliefs of University Students and Their Teachers about Language Learning

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Abstract

This paper investigated the beliefs of language learners (74) learning English as a foreign language and their teachers (15) in the Department of Foreign Languages at Ondokuz Mayıs University. The primary aim of the study was to determine the learners and their teachers' beliefs in EFL context. Secondary aims were to investigate how far learner beliefs differ from those held by the teachers in the study and to examine the effect of gender on the beliefs held by university students. A total of 74 student (55 females, 24 males) and 15 teachers participated in this study. Data were collected by Horwitz's BALLI- Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (a 34-item Likert-Type scale) modified for the Turkish EFL learners and their teachers. Data were analyzed descriptively and the results were given by percentages. Beliefs of learners were classified under five subheadings as suggested by Horwitz (1988). The results of this study indicated that two groups yielded rather consistent results on learning beliefs, although some differences between the learners' and their teacher's beliefs were also found. Similarly, the results demonstrated that overall males and females held similar beliefs about language learning. However, there were six items on which responses of males and females differed. The items which revealed statistically significant differences between males and females' beliefs were stated and discussed.

Keywords: Belief about language learning, learner beliefs, foreign language learning

Introduction

In recent years, researchers in the field of second language acquisition have shown great interest in learners' individual characteristics that can affect the learners' success in language learning. Beliefs about language learning have been one of the research focuses. Researchers have found that language learners come to the language class with some preconceived ideas or beliefs about language learning and these beliefs can indicate what expectations the learners have and what actions in their language learning they will take. A number of studies have been conducted in the past two decades to examine beliefs about language learning in different context (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999; Peacock, 200; Altan, 2006; Büyükyazı, 2010).

Horwitz, one of the pioneer researchers of the studies on beliefs about language learning, did not give operational definition of beliefs about language learning in her articles. She only refers to beliefs using the terms such as preconception, preconceived ideas, and preconceived notions without giving specific descriptions about the construct (1988, 1999). According to Victori and Lockhart, beliefs are ‘‘ general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning and about the nature of language learning and teaching’’ (1995; p.224).

With these assumptions about how beliefs can affect learners' behaviors and success, researchers have been investigating learners' beliefs about language learning for more than two decades with the hope that an understanding about the beliefs that second and foreign language learners bring to class may help them design language classes and that accommodate learners' beliefs. In addition, beliefs that can potentially cause negative effects on learners' success in language learning are hoped to be refined. Horwitz (1988) claimed that some misconceptions or erroneous beliefs may undermine learners' success in language learning. What learners believe about learning is frequently influenced by the context in which they learn. Language students have often been exposed to common and contradictory notions about language learning. This, in turn, has

a great influence on learners' effectiveness. For example if a student believes that learning a foreign language mostly involves learning new vocabulary, he will spend his energy on vocabulary acquisition. An unsuccessful learning experiences could easily lead a student to the conclusion that special abilities are required to learn a foreign language and that s/he does not possess these special abilities. If learners have preconceived ideas and negative or unrealistic expectations about how foreign languages are learned, learner satisfaction with course, confidence in the teacher, and achievement may be affected. Also, Horwitz stated that learners' beliefs about language learning were influenced by their previous language learning experiences as well as cultural background (1988). Learner beliefs have potential to influence both their experiences and actions as language learners. So, it was important to understand learner beliefs about language learning in order to understand learner approaches to and satisfaction with language instruction (Horwitz, 1999).

In recent years, the researchers switched from teachers' role to the students' functions as foreign language learners, because it has been claimed that learners' attitudes and perspective will influence not only the way that they attempt to learn English but also the method that will be used by them. Language experts identified that during the process of language learning as a foreign language, students bring complex issues such as beliefs, attitudes, norms and expectations into the course syllabus.

Foreign language students may hold strong beliefs about the nature of the language under study, its difficulty, the process of its acquisition, the success of certain learning strategies, the existence of aptitude, their own expectations about achievement and teaching methodologies (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005)

Beliefs are a basic construct in every discipline that deals with human behaviour and learning. Teachers' beliefs influence their consciousness, teaching attitude, teaching methods and teaching policies. Teachers' beliefs also strongly influence teaching behaviour and, finally learners' development.

Teachers have realized that language learners as individuals approach language learning in their own unique way. Language teachers may take into consideration the distinctive characteristics of each language learner but must deal with the more general aspect of learner beliefs (Horwitz, 1999).

Understanding learner beliefs is a kind of necessity, since it has been noted that successful learners develop insightful beliefs about language learning processes, their own abilities and the use of effective strategies which have facilitator role on students' learning. On the other hand, poor learners develop negative beliefs about their capacity to perform some tasks and about the strategies they use to compensate their deficiencies (Victori & Lockhart, 1995). Knowledge of learner beliefs about language learning should also increase teachers' understanding of how students approach the tasks required in language class and help teachers to promote more effective learning strategies in their students (Horwitz, 1988).

Research findings showed that aptitude, attitude, norms and perceptions have the potential to affect learners' language process, their motivation and their ability and proficiency in learning a foreign language. Consequently, these items can be considered as push or pull factor to help learners' success in learning a language in shorter time (Bernat&Gvozdenko, 2005).

It is claimed that learner beliefs do not change over time. Kern (1995) proposes that learner beliefs do not automatically change when learners exposed to new methods, and that learner beliefs were quite 'entrenched' (p.76). Supporting that idea Peacock (1999) suggests that if beliefs do no change naturally, it is advised that EFL teachers should take a more active role in finding out what beliefs their learners hold, and to work towards correcting some of those beliefs. Similarly, Altan (2006) proposes that foreign language teachers are aware of the fact that learners bring these beliefs with them into the classroom and therefore, teachers should make a great effort to help learners getting rid of these inaccurate beliefs to be more effective language learners. As

Horwitz (1988) suggests teacher will likely encounter in their own classroom many preconceived notions or beliefs, some enabling and some truly detrimental to successful language learning.

A number of studies have proven that the learner beliefs influence not only to the way that they attempt to learn English but also the methods and techniques that are chosen by their teachers. So it is important to investigate EFL learner beliefs and their teachers' beliefs about language learning. The main aim of present research is to determine the learners' and their teachers' beliefs in EFL context. In other words, it is investigated how far learner beliefs differ from those held by EFL teachers in the study. In addition, it is examined whether the gender affect both learner and teacher beliefs.

Purpose of the study

Based on the related researches, it is clearly evident that studying the beliefs of both learners and their teachers is of great importance to have a clear understanding of their beliefs in the language they are learning and teaching. Therefore, the aim of this study is to investigate the beliefs of students learning English and their English teachers at Ondokuz Mayıs University and to compare the learner beliefs to those of their teachers. Thus, this study fills an important gap in current research on the language belief of learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the local context. In addition, this survey aims to assess the influence of gender on students' beliefs. Finally, the researcher proposed the following research questions:

1. What are the students' beliefs about learning English as a foreign language in Ondokuz Mayıs University?
2. Is there any relationship between students' and their teachers' beliefs?
3. What is the effect of gender on learners' beliefs?

Research Method

Participants

A total of 79 EFL students and a total of 15 EFL teachers from Department of Foreign Languages of Ondokuz Mayıs University voluntarily participated in the study. All the students were in their preparatory year. Of the 79 students 55 were females and 24 were males.

Data collection instrument

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz (1988) was administrated to assess Turkish foreign language learner opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning. The BALLI contains thirty-four items and assess the student beliefs in five major areas: 1) Difficulty of language learning; 2) foreign language aptitude; 3) the nature of language; 4) learning and communication; 5) motivations and expectations. The BALLI is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The inventory was almost not changed since the purpose of the study was to replicate and expand on Horwitz' 1988 study in a Turkish context. In order to collect data Turkish version translated by Büyükyazı (2010) was used in the study. Cronbach Alpha of Turkish version was 0.87 which showed acceptable consistency of reliability. The same inventory was modified for teachers. Items which are directly related learners beliefs (items 12, 15, 18, 23, and 31) were excluded from scale. Thus, a 27 item scale was given to totally 15 teachers teaching English as a Foreign Language. The response rate of the teachers was 100 %.

Data analysis

Data was analyzed using 17.0 SPSS package program. Collected data was analyzed by descriptively (mean, scores, frequencies, standard deviations, and percentages). For each item, the difference between learners and the teachers was determined via a t- test for independent samples. Significant level were set at $p<0.05$.

Results

This study aimed to investigate the learner and teacher beliefs about English as a foreign language and compare the learner beliefs to those of their teachers'. Thus, this study fills an important gap in current research on the language belief of learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the local context. In addition, this survey aims to assess the influence of gender on students' beliefs. The frequencies are analyzed, and the results were given as percentages in the following tables. Two positively worded points (agree and strongly agree) and two negatively worded points (disagree and strongly disagree) were grouped together to see whether the subjects had positive or negative beliefs on one item. The categories suggested by Horwitz (1988) were used for data categorization. In each category, the beliefs of learners and teachers were presented in percentages and differences by means of a t-test and the significance value was given.

The first category suggested by Horwitz (1988) was difficulty of language learning. In Table 1, it is seen that teachers and learners showed agreement for each item in that category. A significant portion of teachers (~84 %) and learners (~81 %) believed that some languages are easier than the others ($p>.05$). Another item which revealed no significance difference between teachers and the learners was that the ease of reading and writing than speaking and understanding the foreign language. A small proportion of teachers and disagreed with the item 28 (~25 % of the learners and ~27 % of teachers; $p>.05$). Both learners and teachers showed agreement on duration necessary to learn English. They believed English can't be learned less than a year or in 3-5 years by spending only one hour a day (~28 % of the learners and ~28% of the teachers; $p>.05$). However, with the smallest percentage of learners believed one cannot learn English in 1 hour a day (~25%; $p>.05$). A significant portion of learners (~35%) and teachers (~47 %) agree that one cannot learn English in 1-2 years by spending only 1 hour a day.

A large majority of learners and teachers also agreed in terms of difficult and understanding a foreign language (~49 % of learners and ~87% of teachers). An overwhelming majority of teachers (~93 %) and learners (~91%) agreed or strongly agreed with item 6. It is interesting to see that teachers and learners all believe that they ultimately learn to speak this language very well. Both learners and teachers thought that English is not a very difficult language. Although a vast majority of teachers (~50%) with a smaller percentage of learners (~23%) indicated that they had differing beliefs on English is an easy language, it could not find a statistically significance difference between the learners and the teachers in this item ($p>.05$).

Table 1: Difficulty of Language Learning (in percentages)

| Item# | Item | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------|-------|-------|--------|------|
| 3 | <i>Some languages are easier to learn than others.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 81.0 | 11.5 | 5.1 | .082 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 84.6 | 15.4 | ----- | |
| 6 | <i>I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 91.1 | 6.3 | 2.6 | .662 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 93.4 | ----- | 6.7 | |
| 24 | <i>It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 24.1 | 26.6 | 49.3 | .57 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 13.4 | ----- | 86.6 | |
| 28 | <i>It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 51.9 | 22.8 | 25.4 | .227 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 33.4 | 40.0 | 26.6 | |
| 4 | <i>English is:</i> | <u><i>Students</i></u> | | | | .080 |
| | <i>1) a very difficult language,</i> | ----- | ----- | | | |
| | <i>2) a difficult language,</i> | 17.6 | 6.7 | | | |
| | <i>3) a language of medium difficulty,</i> | 58.1 | 40.0 | | | |
| | <i>4) an easy language,</i> | 23.0 | 46.7 | | | |
| <i>5) a very easy language.</i> | 1.4 | ----- | | | | |
| 14 | <i>If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it</i> | <u><i>Students</i></u> | | | | .507 |
| | | <u><i>Teachers</i></u> | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|------|------|--|--|--|--|
| <i>take him/her to become fluent?</i> | 6.7 | 6.7 | | | | |
| <i>1) less than a year,</i> | 34.7 | 46.7 | | | | |
| <i>2) 1-2 years,</i> | 20.0 | 20.0 | | | | |
| <i>3) 3-5 years,</i> | 12.0 | 13.3 | | | | |
| <i>4) 5-10 years,</i> | 25.3 | 13.3 | | | | |
| <i>5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.</i> | | | | | | |

*Note: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree; p<.05

The second category examined was Foreign Language Aptitude and the results obtained in that category are given in Table 2. A large majority of participants agreed that language learning is easier for children than adults (learners: ~96%; teachers: ~87%). Learners and teachers were determined to have found similar beliefs. All the teachers and a significant proportion of learners (78 %) agreed or strongly agreed with item 2 which stated that some people have inborn capacity for language learning. Both believed that learning another language is easier if you already know a language (~70% of learners, 80 % of teachers). Despite no statistical significance, a majority of teachers (53 %) agreed or strongly agreed with the item stating that women are better than men at learning foreign languages; however, a smaller percentage the students (~40%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item. Learners and teachers showed agreement on people who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages. Similarly, a large majority of learners (~55%) and teachers (~80%) disagree that people who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages. Another item on which an overwhelming majority of learners and teachers had similar beliefs was that everyone can learn a language (88% of the learners and 86 % of teachers; p>.059). The biggest difference was obtained in item 32, which stated that people speaking more than one language well are very intelligent. It is interesting to see that all the teachers

agreed or strongly agreed with that item while only 41% of the learners thought so ($p > .05$).

Table 2: Foreign Language Aptitude (in percentages)

| Item# | Item | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| 1 | <i>It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 96.2 | 1.3 | 2.5 | .052 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 86.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 | |
| 2 | <i>Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 78.5 | 11.5 | 10.2 | .60 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 100.0 | ----- | ----- | |
| 10 | <i>It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 69.7 | 24.1 | 6.4 | .234 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 80.0 | 13.3 | 6.7 | |
| 15 | <i>I have foreign language aptitude.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 55.7 | 29.1 | 15.2 | |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | ----- | ----- | ----- | |
| 22 | <i>Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 25.4 | 34.2 | 40.5 | .75 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 53.3 | 20.0 | 26.7 | |
| 29 | <i>People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 20.3 | 24.1 | 55.7 | .107 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 6.7 | 20.0 | 83.3 | |
| 32 | <i>People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 40.5 | 29.1 | 30.4 | .018* |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | ----- | 53.3 | 46.6 | |
| 33 | <i>Turkish people are good at learning foreign languages.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 20.2 | 55.7 | 24.5 | .150 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 6.7 | 40.0 | 53.3 | |
| 34 | <i>Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 88.6 | 6.3 | 5.1 | .820 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 86.6 | 6.7 | 6.7 | |

*Note: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree; $p < .05$

Item numbers 8, 11, 16, 20, 25, and 26 determined ‘The nature of Learning’. A significant portion of learners (43%) and teachers (53%) showed agreement on the importance of knowing the foreign culture to speak the foreign language. Similarly, an overwhelming majority of learners (~97%) and teachers (~88%) thought that it is best to learn a foreign language in the foreign country ($p > .05$). A significant portion of learners (~65%) and the teachers (~43%)

believed that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new words. Most learners (~54%) and with a smaller proportion ~27 % of teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item stating that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules. A large majority of teachers (~87%) disagreed with the item stating learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating into English; however, a smaller percentage 60% of the learners disagreed. It is inferred from this item that the teachers do not believe in the translating from one language into another while learners believe in it.

Table 3: The Nature of Learning (in percentages)

| Item# | Item | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------|------|--------|-------|
| 8 | <i>It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 43.0 | 24.1 | 32.9 | .341 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 53.4 | 26.7 | 20.0 | |
| 11 | <i>It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 97.5 | 1.3 | 1.3 | .191 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 86.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 | |
| 16 | <i>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 64.6 | 20.3 | 15.2 | .105 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 42.8 | 7.1 | 50.0 | |
| 20 | <i>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 26.6 | 19.0 | 54.4 | .187 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 13.3 | 60.0 | 26.7 | |
| 25 | <i>Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 96.2 | 3.8 | ----- | .326 |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 86.6 | 6.7 | 6.7 | |
| 26 | <i>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating into English.</i> | <i>Students</i> | 6.3 | 29.1 | 64.6 | .012* |
| | | <i>Teachers</i> | 6.7 | 6.7 | 86.6 | |

*Note: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree; p<.05

Learning and communication strategies are essential components of language learning process. Items 17 and 21 investigated learning strategies. It is found that learners and the teachers shared the same belief since the majority of them believed that repetition and practice are very important in language learning ($p > .05$).

Most of the learners believed that it is important to practice in the language laboratory (81%); however, a smaller percentage ~47% of the teachers agreed with that item ($p>.05$). In addition, findings about communication strategies were examined. Both learners (87%) and teachers (87%) agreed on guessing the meaning of an unknown word ($p>.05$). Similarly, a significant portion of learners (54%) and the teachers (53%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item stating that mistakes should be corrected immediately. However, a majority of learners (~84%) believed that speaking with an excellent accent is very important, only ~7 % of the teachers thought so ($p<.05$). Similarly, while ~89% of the learners disagreed that one should keep quiet until saying something correctly, all the teachers disagreed ($p<.05$).

Table 4: Learning and Communication Strategies (in percentages)

| Item# | Learning Strategies | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|-------|------|--------|-------|
| 17 | <i>It is important to repeat and practice a lot.</i> | Students | 97.4 | --- | 2.6 | .778 |
| | | Teachers | 93.3 | ---- | 6.7 | |
| 21 | <i>It is important to practice in the language laboratory.</i> | Students | 81.0 | 13.9 | 5.1 | .043* |
| | | Teachers | 46.7 | 26.7 | 26.6 | |
| Item# | Communication Strategies | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
| 7 | <i>It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.</i> | Students | 83.5 | 6.3 | 10.1 | .000* |
| | | Teachers | 6.7 | 6.7 | 86.6 | |
| 9 | <i>You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.</i> | Students | 3.8 | 7.6 | 88.6 | .001* |
| | | Teachers | --- | --- | 100.0 | |
| 12 | <i>If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.</i> | Students | 67.1 | 31.6 | 1.3 | |
| | | Teachers | ---- | --- | ----- | |
| 13 | <i>It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.</i> | Students | 87.4 | 7.8 | 2.6 | .475 |
| | | Teachers | 86.7 | ---- | 13.3 | |
| 18 | <i>I feel self-conscious speaking the foreign in front of other people.</i> | Students | 49.4 | 30.4 | 20.2 | |
| | | Teachers | ---- | --- | ----- | |
| 19 | <i>If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.</i> | Students | 25.6 | 20.5 | 53.8 | .813 |
| | | Teachers | 33.3 | 13.3 | 53.4 | |

*Note: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree; $p<.05$

Table 5 showed the findings related to the BALLI's last categorization 'Motivation and Expectations'. Both learners (~73 %) and teachers (40%) showed agreement on knowing a foreign language is important in Turkey ($p > .05$). It is clearly evident that an overwhelming majority of learners (92 %) had instrumental motivation to learn the language as they believed that they could find a good job if they knew a foreign language. Also, a vast majority of learners (94 %) agreed that they would find many opportunities to use the language.

Table 5: Motivations and Expectations (in percentages)

| Item# | Learning Strategies | Subjects | 1 + 2 | 3 | 4 + 5* | p |
|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|-------|------|--------|------|
| 23 | <i>If I get to speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.</i> | Students | 93.7 | 6.3 | ---- | |
| | | Teachers | ----- | --- | ----- | |
| 27 | <i>If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job.</i> | Students | 92.4 | 6.3 | 1.3 | .162 |
| | | Teachers | 86.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 | |
| 30 | <i>Turkish people think that it is important to speak a foreign language.</i> | Students | 73.4 | 12.7 | 13.9 | .060 |
| | | Teachers | 40.0 | 13.3 | 46.7 | |
| 31 | <i>I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better.</i> | Students | 30.4 | 15.2 | 54.4 | |
| | | Teachers | ----- | ---- | ----- | |

*Note: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree; $p < .05$

Table 6 showed the findings of student beliefs about learning English as a foreign language according to gender. The BALLI items were analyzed and the items which revealed statistically significant differences between males (24) and the female students (55) were stated in Table 6. In this table, the mean analysis of student beliefs about learning English and its relationship with gender was represented. As it is obvious female students had higher mean in two items. Item numbers 13 and 18 determined "Communication Strategies". Females had higher mean scores in items 13 (1.89) and 18 (2.82) compared to males. High mean score indicated that females used communication strategies more effectively than males. In other words, females used a very important strategy

guessing the meaning of a word in English, and also they felt self-conscious while speaking English in front of other people.

According to mean scores, males had higher mean in item 4 (Difficulty of Language Learning). A vast majority of males believed that English was an easy or a medium difficulty language; however, most of the females agreed that English is a difficult language to learn. In addition, males and females differed in item 22 (Foreign Language Aptitude) which indicated that women are better language learners than men. The males had higher mean (3.92) than females (3.02). Most of the males agreed with that item; however, females disagreed. This meant that males are more likely than females to believe that women are good at language learning. Males and females in the present study differed from each other in the last category (Motivation and Expectation). In item 30 the mean score of males (2.54) higher than that of females (2.05). It was clear that males believed in the importance of speaking English. On the other hand, females had higher mean (3.56) than males (2.83) in item 31 stating they would like to learn English to know its speakers better. The result showed that female students might have integrative motivation learn English.

Table 6: The Students’ Beliefs about Language Learning according to Gender

| Item# | Item | Gender | Mean | St. Deviation | t | df | p |
|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|--------|----|-------|
| 4 | <i>English is:</i> <i>1) a very difficult language,</i> <i>2) a difficult language,</i> <i>3) a language of medium difficulty,</i> <i>4) an easy language,</i> <i>5) a very easy language.</i> | <i>Male</i> | 3.41 | .590 | 2.836 | 72 | .006* |
| | | <i>Female</i> | 2.94 | .669 | | | |
| 13 | <i>It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language</i> | <i>Male</i> | 1.54 | .779 | -2.045 | 75 | .044* |
| | | <i>Female</i> | 1.89 | .640 | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|-------|--------|----|-------|
| 18 | <i>I feel self-conscious speaking the foreign in front of other people.</i> | Male | 2.17 | .816 | -2.803 | 77 | .006* |
| | | Female | 2.82 | 1.002 | | | |
| 22 | <i>Women are better than man at learning language.</i> | Male | 3.92 | 1.100 | 3.118 | 77 | .003* |
| | | Female | 3.02 | 1.209 | | | |
| 30 | <i>Turkish people think that it is important to speak a foreign language.</i> | Male | 2.54 | 1.103 | 2.020 | 77 | .047* |
| | | Female | 2.05 | .931 | | | |
| 31 | <i>I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better.</i> | Male | 2.83 | 1.341 | -2.444 | 77 | .017* |
| | | Female | 1.167 | 1.167 | | | |

*Note: $p < .05$

Discussion

The main purpose of this study is to determine the beliefs of a group of Turkish EFL learners and their teachers held in language learning. It is also aimed to investigate whether gender affects learner beliefs. The findings showed that male and female students held similar beliefs about language learning, with only six items being statistically significant. The results of the present study indicated that both learners and teachers held similar beliefs. In other words, there is no gap between students and their teachers' beliefs. They also differed in their beliefs about learning English on some certain BALLI items.

The majority of the learners believe that they will ultimately learn to speak English. Both learners and teachers agreed that English is not a very difficult language. These positive beliefs may lead to high motivation which is key factor for learning a foreign language success. In addition, learners are aware of the fact that speaking English well will be advantage for them to find a good job and most of the learners think that knowing a foreign language is very important in Turkey. It is clearly evident that they are instrumentally motivated to learn English. In fact, the learners contradict with themselves because half of the learners think that they do not have foreign language aptitude. The majority

of learners believe that everyone can learn to speak language. It is very interesting to see that half of the teachers think that Turkish people are not good at learning a foreign language. English teachers agree that some people have inborn capacity for language learning. Similarly, most of the learners hold the same belief. In addition, both teachers and learners think that children learn language easier than adult and learning another language is easier if someone already know a language. Indeed, they all support the general principles of language acquisition and learning process. A number of studies examined and approved these hypotheses in terms of some variables. As it is seen teachers and learners have the similar beliefs in almost all items related with foreign language belief in BALLI.

The present study showed that learners and teachers had differing beliefs about language learning. For example, half of the teachers agreed that women are better language learners; however, the students disagreed with that statement. Although the subjects of the study were 55 female students and 10 female teachers, it is interesting that female students displayed negative belief about language learning and its relationship to gender.

Half of the learners disagree that learning a language is a matter of learning grammar. They do not want to learn about language but to use language. They have a tendency to disregard the principles of traditional method. Because, learners, also, think that learning a language is not a matter of translation. Their teachers showed agreement with learners on these two statements. The learners need to be given opportunities by their teachers. They hold positive beliefs to use language not to know grammar rules. They need to learn English to use it in classroom context. They need to practice in real context instead of inducing structure of English by mechanic drills. The majority of learners and teachers showed agreement on learning a foreign language is matter of learning a lot of words. The learners believe that one should enrich vocabulary to speak in that language. They agree the necessity of vocabulary.

However, learners displayed negative belief about error correction technique. The learners agree that mistakes should be tolerated by the teachers. As mistakes are natural outcome of language, the teachers should choose and use an effective technique that does not demotivate learners while speaking in English. Correcting the mistakes immediately may increase learners' anxiety and decrease motivation to speak as they learn English as a foreign language. They think that they feel relax if they speak fluently without interrupting by the teacher. In addition, classmates should ignore the mistakes at the time of speaking. However teachers and students differed from each other when it came to accent. Learners believe that speaking with an excellent accent is very important, but teachers do not think so. Despite the opposite beliefs of teachers on this issue students' beliefs on speaking with an excellent accent may prevent them from taking part in the classroom discussion.

As it is known learning takes time and needs an effort. So all the learners and teachers agree that English cannot be learned less than a year or in 3-5 years by spending only 1 hour a day. In fact, learners contradict with themselves because majority of them believe that English is not a difficult language.

This study aims to reveal that whether there is a significant difference between gender and students' beliefs. The results show that males and females in this study generally held similar views about language learning in all categories of survey instrument BALLI. However there were six items on which responses of males and females differed. In other words, results indicated that overall males and females held similar beliefs about language learning, with six items being statistically significant. The findings obtained confirm that female students had higher mean score than that of male in items 13 and 18 which determined Horwitz's fourth category (Learning and Communication Strategies). This result shows that females are good at using communication strategies than males. Males feel shy speaking English with the other people. On the other hand, males hold more positive beliefs on difficulty of language

learning than females. They agree that English is an easy or a medium difficulty language. Another big difference determined between males and females in the category of 'Foreign Language Aptitude' which indicates that women are better language learners than men. Most of the males agree with that item, however, females do not believe the relationship between gender and language learning in favor of females. They disagree that women may have innate talent for language learning biologically and psychologically, as well. Males and females in the present study differed from each other in the last category (Motivation and Expectation). Based on the findings, it is clear that males believe in the importance of speaking English in Turkey. It may be concluded that they are instrumentally motivated to learn English. On the other hand, females state that they would like to learn English to know its speakers better. This result may indicate that female students in this study have integrative motivation.

The findings obtained confirm both students and teachers may bring some certain negative feelings or perceptions about language learning to their learning contexts. There may be numerous reasons in holding negative beliefs. The shortcomings of curriculum, ineffective teaching methods and techniques used, poor materials, limited time allocated to practice, ineffective strategy use, being unaware of learning styles, lack of metacognitive strategy training, teachers attitudes and beliefs about language learning etc. are key components that shape students beliefs. As it is revealed that there is a close relationship between students and their teachers' beliefs. The most important reason for the negative feelings held by the students may stem from teachers' perceptions about language learning as they are not native speakers of English. With the assumptions that learners develop their beliefs from their learning experiences in the classroom and that teacher beliefs may influence the learners' experiences, a relationship between teachers and students beliefs has been interests of some researchers. In recent years, the function of the teacher in teaching process has changed. These changes assign new roles to teacher. Apart from teaching the

target language, the teacher is regarded as a facilitator, an organizer, a guide, and etc. The teachers should help learners to perceive the value of English. As it is known, beliefs may have changed. Therefore, foreign language teachers should make a great effort to help learners getting rid of these inaccurate beliefs to learn a foreign language.

Suggestions

A number of studies have proven that the learner beliefs influence not only to the way that they attempt to learn English but also the methods and techniques that are chosen by their teachers. So it is important to investigate EFL learner beliefs and their teachers' beliefs about language learning. As it is stated by many researchers, beliefs may be influenced by different factors, therefore, they should be investigated in differing times in different context. It is advised that EFL teachers should take a more active role in finding out what beliefs their learners hold, and to work towards correcting some of those beliefs.

In conclusion, the learners' beliefs should be investigated from different perspectives. Future research should investigate apart from gender, a number of social, cultural, contextual, cognitive, affective, and personal factors in different contexts. In terms of pedagogical implications, In addition to identification of beliefs, how learner beliefs change over time, from person to person, and from setting to setting needs to be explored. A similar study can be carried out at the beginning and at the end of the program so that any changes could be determined throughout a specific training period. The beliefs of the learners may have been influenced by the instructional practices.

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Table 7: The Teachers' Beliefs About Language Learning In Respect To Gender

| Item# | Item | Gender | Mean | St. Deviation | t | df | p |
|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|------|---------------|---|----|---|
| 5 | <i>English and Turkish have the same grammar structure.</i> | Male | | | | | |
| | | Female | | | | | |
| 8 | <i>It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.</i> | Male | | | | | |
| | | Female | | | | | |
| 19 | <i>If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to</i> | Male | | | | | |
| | | Female | | | | | |

Two Dimensions of the Lexical Competence: Vocabulary Size and Depth

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Abstract

Vocabulary size and depth are two important dimensions of lexical competence. During the learning process of a foreign language L2 learners mostly learn the first meaning of the related word and neglect the other meanings of the word. They also neglect phonological, morphological, syntactic, pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of the words they learn. They just focus on learning the meanings of the given words in their course books. But the amount of vocabulary learned is not enough for them to express themselves and to comprehend the texts they read or the speeches they expose to. There is no clear cut number about how many words must be known by a L2 learner in order to be efficient and effective language user in target language. But it is clear that those who have richness in their vocabulary knowledge both in size and depth can easily express their ideas in a more native-like manner because they have a better communicative competence in target language. So as to make L2 learners better and successful language users, a new classroom application shedding light on vocabulary teaching and learning must be put into practice especially in non-native language learning environments.

Key words: vocabulary size, vocabulary depth, lexical competence, vocabulary teaching, language skills

People who are learning English as a foreign language in a non-English environment can achieve to have a good command of English grammar. However due to their limited vocabulary they still have problems in understanding the texts written in English and the utterances they expose in their communication with native or non-native speakers of English. There is no doubt that limited active vocabulary is the real source of the problems related to production and comprehension of the target language.

Especially the learners who are living in a non-English environment learn English in a classroom setting following a pre-planned curriculum mostly based on a course

book written by a group of writers who are speaking target language as their native language. Most of those learners have no chance to use the target language outside the classroom. For most of them actual input sources are the course books and instructor they follow in their classroom. Those learners' limited opportunities to use the target language also limit their communicative competence. That's why a large number of learners actually learn about the language that they study due to the grammar based teaching in the classroom setting. They never achieve to be an efficient and effective language user, and they always stay as language learners even after spending years and huge amount of money in the process of learning a target language.

In order to be an efficient and effective language user to know and to use the grammar rules are not the only prerequisites. Learner must have acquired a large repertoire of the target language, and had a schematic organization of the target language concepts in his mind. Target language repertoire and schematic organization of concepts can only be obtained by means of exposing large amount of target language vocabulary in rich context.

Rules of a language do not change so rapidly, changes in structural rules or additions of new grammar rules take a longer time compared to vocabulary development in any language. All technical innovations, medical developments, social, political, cultural changes, economic activities reflect their effects on our daily life through new concepts and new words. Till we die we may not learn a new grammar rule but we keep going on learning new concepts and new words that shape our lives and thinking both in our native and target languages. However, almost in all foreign language learning settings except the ones where the target language is spoken, priority is given to teaching grammar rules of the target language. As Maera (1996:1) emphasized lexical competence is an aspect of L2 competence which has not received a great deal of attention as it is lumped indiscriminately with other forms of linguistic form. But Maera (1996) underlines that the lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence.

As Shen (2008:135) claims in recent years, second language vocabulary acquisition has been an increasingly interesting topic of discussion for researchers,

teachers, curriculum designers, theorists and others involved in second language learning. All experts mentioned above accept vocabulary as the most important element in language. But when we scrutinize the classroom practices, the class hours devoted for vocabulary teaching within the curriculum is quite limited and just covers the words given in the course book. In addition to this observation, teachers' attitudes towards teaching vocabulary show differences. From the standpoint of teachers, Maera (1996:2) states that "the way you think about your own vocabulary and the implicit assumptions you have about it influence the way you go about teaching L2 vocabulary to learners". Depending on the Maera's above mentioned assessment, non-native English language teacher's active vocabulary size and depth of knowledge on words gain importance for the efficient vocabulary teaching in ELT classroom settings. Foreign language teacher's vocabulary knowledge not only affects his/ her self-confidence in his/ her teaching practice, but create positive or negative impact on his/ her students' perception as well, and has a motivating drive on his/ her students' attitude for enlarging their vocabulary.

As Moras (2001) states a lexical item is most likely to be learned when a learner feels a personal need to know it, or when there is a need to express something to accomplish the learner's own purposes. Therefore, it means that the decision to incorporate a word in ones productive vocabulary is entirely personal and varies according to each student's motivation and needs. As Hatch and Brown (1995:373) says natural learner interest or motivation may cause learners to pay more attention to some words than others. In addition to interest, actual need may make a difference in whether encountered words are learned. We seem to learn words more quickly if we have felt a need for them in some way. That's why especially non-native English language teachers have a great responsibility for building their learner's lexical competence through clarifying their students' both practical and academic needs in L2 use.

Valesco (2007:166) defines the lexical competence as the ability to use words in appropriate and effective ways in verbal interaction. As it is known very well that the basic dimension of lexical competence is size and depth of a language user's vocabulary knowledge. Those who have a huge amount of vocabulary both in size and depth are

more proficient in wide spectrum of language skills, traditionally called as reading, writing, listening and speaking. They are more prolific and feel more comfortable and secure themselves in situations where the target language is used as a medium of communication. However, the number and the depth of the words that should be needed by a L2 user is not so clear. Within this context, "How many words does a second language learner need?" is very commonly asked question. According to Nation (1990:11) there are two ways of answering this question. One way is to look at the vocabulary of native speakers of English and consider that as a goal for second language learners. The other way is to look at the results of frequency counts and the practical experiences of second language teachers and researchers and decide how much vocabulary is needed for practical activities.

As Nation (2008:17) claims a young native speaker adds 1,000 words in his one year of life so a seven-year-old native speaker is likely to have a 7,000 word vocabulary, and a ten-year-old a 10,000 word vocabulary. However, a non-native learner has no chance to have such a large amount of vocabulary as he or she learns a foreign or second language in an environment where the target language is not part of daily life. But throughout the years depending on his or her reading and listening frequency in target language and capability of speaking and writing in target language he or she may develop his or her vocabulary both in size and depth.

Many scholars who are dealing with vocabulary acquisition in a foreign or second language have confronting ideas about the size and depth of the vocabulary knowledge necessitated by an L2 learner. As Nation (2008:37) claims a non-native learner may not need as big vocabulary as listening while speaking in target language. According to Nation the most frequent 2,000 words of English cover around 90% of the running words in most colloquial spoken text, which is much higher coverage than the same number of words provides for written text. However, in case of extensive reading a non-native learner must have a huge amount vocabulary.

Nation (2008), cited in Hu and Nation (2000), says that extensive reading can only occur if 95% - 98% of the running words in a text are already familiar to the learner or are no burden to the learner. The findings (Hirsh and Nation, 1992), (Nation, 2000) say that a learner would need a vocabulary of well over 2,000 words to read the

easiest fiction novels written for teenagers or a vocabulary of 8,000 – 9,000 words to read novels written for adults.

When we take into consideration the writing process of a non-native learner in target language, Raimes (1985:248) stresses the need for an adequate vocabulary if learners are going to generate, develop and present ideas in their writing. The question is focused on the number of the vocabulary needed for writing in target language. Nation (2008:83) mentions that work in the simplification of texts has shown that a small number of words around 2,000 to 3,000 can be used effectively to express an enormous number of ideas. So the above mentioned numbers used in simplification of the texts can be accepted as the minimum vocabulary knowledge needed for writing in target language. As it is known very well lexical richness of a learner has not only aesthetic but productive effect in his or her writing process.

Lexical richness or vocabulary knowledge of a L2 learner is multi-faced phenomenon. This multi-faced phenomenon includes receptive and productive vocabularies, size and depth of vocabularies, and teaching and learning of vocabularies.

As it is known very well receptive vocabulary – known also as passive vocabulary- refers to the words and expressions L2 learners can comprehend when they read or hear them. On the other hand productive vocabulary – called also as active vocabulary - refers to the words and expressions that L2 learners can use correctly while speaking and writing. There is no doubt that both receptive and productive vocabulary has an utmost importance and clear role in L2 learners' communicative competence besides their grammar knowledge.

Size and depth of vocabulary is one another aspect of L2 learner's vocabulary knowledge. As it is mentioned above for different language skill tasks such as reading, writing, speaking and listening, an L2 learner may need different amounts of vocabulary. Especially size and depth of vocabulary knowledge is closely related to the quality of L2 learner's performance. The number of the words known by an L2 learner is not enough just to be an efficient and effective language user. An L2 learner must also have huge information about the words he acquires. This process, depth of vocabulary, includes knowing about the morphological, phonological, syntactic,

sociolinguistic aspects of the word besides its meaning. As Nassai (2004:112) underlines researchers have indicated "the complexity and multi-dimensionality of word knowledge and have suggested that knowing a word well should mean more than knowing its individual meanings in particular contexts".

The final aspect of vocabulary knowledge is related to teaching and learning target language vocabulary. Teaching and learning the vocabulary of a target language is the most problematic dimension of the process. In teaching and learning process of target vocabulary teacher's and learner's priorities depending on their real life interests and needs are in contradiction.

For teachers, the vocabulary given in the course books has the priority to teach. But for the learners, who are learning a foreign language in a non-native environment, learning, recalling and using the new words accurately and precisely are the most difficult parts of the process of learning a foreign language. Most of the L2 learners express their insufficiency in learning, recalling, and using the words in target language.

Mostly L2 learners have a tendency to learn the most common or subject related meaning of a given word and neglect the other meanings. And most of the time if they are not familiar with their monolingual dictionary prepared in target language they have difficulty in learning and enlarging their knowledge on words.

Most teachers prefer direct teaching to contextual inferencing, but contextual inferencing force L2 learners to use different skills such as outside knowledge, guessing strategies, and pragmatic knowledge, on the other hand some scholars such as Krashen claims that the best way of learning vocabulary is reading but most of the L2 learners, depending on their age, structure and vocabulary knowledge, assess short story readings in foreign language not as pleasure reading but as pressure reading. In this perception especially young L2 learners' limited reading habit both in their native language and in target language is of negative impact in the process of learning L2 vocabulary.

One another reason of the limited vocabulary both in size and depth for L2 learners is their insufficient skill in writing. Writing is the most appropriate tool for the L2 learners who have no chance of speaking in target language. Through writing tasks L2 learners' lexical competence can be developed and their productivity in target language can be achieved. Their all sort of passive knowledge related to target language

– structural and lexical- can be activated through writing activities. But writing in target language, especially in non-native language environments, is one of the neglected activities of the foreign language learning process by teachers and L2 learners.

In addition to all these shortcomings, in foreign language classes, a specific time is not devoted for vocabulary studies. Vocabulary teaching activities are realized as a part of a reading comprehension. Teachers have a tendency to teach new words through direct teaching either giving their meanings in native language or giving their short definitions or synonyms in target language. Especially pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of words are mostly neglected, spelling is corrected only in exam papers and pronunciation is given without using International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

As a conclusion, size and depth of vocabulary knowledge is of crucial importance in L2 learners' competence and performance. Special emphasize must be given to vocabulary teaching within the process of foreign language teaching. In order to make L2 learners efficient and effective target language users in addition to grammatical knowledge, their lexical competence both in receptive and productive vocabulary level and also in size and depth must be developed through activities specially designed for vocabulary building.

In these activities not only the individual meanings of target vocabulary but its phonological, morphological, syntactic, pragmatic, and sociocultural aspects must be examined. L2 learners must be exposed almost all usages of the related vocabulary, they must also learn colloquial usage of the related words.

L2 learners must achieve to build a mind map about the vocabulary they learned. That's why L2 learners' cognitive skills on building mind map must be developed and foreign language teachers must be well furnished on cognitive skills related to language acquisition and learning.

Foreign language teachers must be a driving force for their students in vocabulary learning. Teachers' vocabulary size and depth has beneficial effects on their students' motivation for sparking curiosity about learning new words in target language. Teachers, especially those who are using direct teaching of vocabulary, must also give chance to improve their students' contextual inference skills through developing their

guessing abilities, improving their knowledge on affixes, and especially enlarging their outside world knowledge depending on L2 learners' interests.

To know how to use a monolingual dictionary of the target language has an utmost importance especially for those who are learning a foreign language in a non-native environment. At the very beginning of a foreign language teaching process, L2 learners must be furnished with appropriate knowledge on how they will use dictionary all along their L2 learning process effectively.

Class hours devoted for vocabulary teaching must be arranged within the curriculum of foreign language teaching. In these hours L2 learners' active and passive vocabulary both in size and depth is to be enlarged. In order to achieve this, basic word list covering 3000 words, prefixes and suffixes of the target language can be studied. Letting L2 learners present oral and written summaries in target language, draw mind maps on recently learned words, talk on subjects first in their native language and furnish them with necessary vocabulary for subjects to be talked in target language will also help to enlarge their vocabulary both in L1 and L2.

All in all, we perceive the world within the limits of our language. Our language limits are clearly defined by our vocabulary that represents our knowledge on concepts of L1 and L2. The more we know about the words, the more we know about the concepts that shape our world. We can improve our structural knowledge on language just reading a grammar book again and again but in order to improve our vocabulary knowledge in a non-native environment we must devote a great deal of time to reading and writing in target language.

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Using Peer Coaching to Enhance EFL Learners' Overall Achievement

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Abstract

This study investigated the effect of using peer coaching on EFL learners' overall achievement. A sample of sixty homogenized female Iranian junior students of intermediate level was selected. In the first semester, the participating students acted as the control group during which their teachers taught the course individually. However, in the following semester, the participating students acted as the experimental group where the same teachers taught the course, practicing peer coaching. Subjects took achievement test both as pre and post-test. To test the null hypothesis of the study repeated measures ANOVA was carried out. The result indicated that in the experimental condition group, where teachers taught through peer coaching, students had higher degree of achievement than the condition during which their teacher taught individually. The results of the questionnaire also revealed that the participating teachers benefit from peer coaching in different aspects.

Key words: Peer Coaching, Overall Achievement

Introduction

From the 1970s to the present, there has been a marked shift in our understanding of what we mean by teacher preparation in teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL). In the earlier period, teacher training was dominant, but beginning in the 1990s teacher development assumed a central role. Teacher development serves a longer-term goal and, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), seeks to facilitate growth of the teacher's general understanding of teaching of himself or herself as a teacher; it often involves examining different dimensions of one's own practice as a basis for reflective review, and can hence be seen as a bottom-up process. However, moving along the pathway of development seems to require the collaboration of colleagues for any teacher. In the word of Showers (1985) "especially important is the agreement that

curriculum and instruction need constant improvement and that expanding our repertoire of teaching skills requires hard work, in which the help of our colleagues is indispensable" (p. 106).

A very useful area of teacher development is conducting classroom research with other teachers with the same interests in order to reflect on teaching practice. Some language education researchers imply that action research involves working together with at least one colleague and possibly with faculty teams (Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Pickering, 2003). This way, all participants will benefit from initiating dialogue with colleagues and using a model for how to communicate effectively when reflecting on improving teaching performance in a reflective learning community.

One strategy for teacher development particularly well suited to the formation of a reflective learning community is that of peer coaching, defined as the process of two teachers working together in and out of the classroom to plan instruction, develop support materials, and watch one another work with students. Such a definition implies that peer coaching is non-evaluative, based on classroom observation followed by feedback, and intends to improve specific instructional techniques (Skinner & Welch, 1996; Swafford, 1998).

Due to its effectiveness, peer coaching is used in many educational contexts (i.e. Ball State University, Illinois High School, and Maryland University College, cited in Annis, 1989, pp. 7-9). Teachers report that peer coaching is effective in helping them meet their goals. Many find it comforting to see that the behaviour problems they face in the classroom (e.g. talking in class) are not unique to their classes. Teachers in one peer coaching program reported "increased motivation and renewed interest in teaching" (Menges, 1987, p. 91).

Furthermore, teachers are notorious for ignoring comments made by students and administrative evaluations, but this is not true for peer coaches. One evaluation found that less than 25% of teachers made changes based on student evaluations and less than 10% reacted to administrative comments (Spencer & Flyr, 1992, p. 12). On the contrary, more than 80% of peer coaches report making changes in their teaching (Millis, 1994).

Therefore, though traditionally the improvement of teaching practices was left to individual teachers working in isolation, perhaps coming together for a workshop, seminar, or lecture-based training session, nowadays the focus is on a collaborative framework as the outcomes of individual effects have not been as promising as hoped (Pierce & Hunsaker, cited in Goker, 2006). New definitions of professional development characterize professional development as a systematic, intentional process, involving multiple members of the educational community, with a clear focus on the improvement of student learning (Goker, 2006).

In our teaching context, teacher development seems to be off the shores of practice. Instead, teacher training is dominant in language schools and supervisors do strict observations of teachers' teaching and provide suggestions to improve their teaching and thus the learning of the learners. However, the results are not satisfactory and often teachers behave differently in the presence of the supervisor and deviate from their usual practices. Learners also become reluctant in front of an external observer and their degree and quality of interaction are affected.

Thus, it is the right time to investigate alternatives to this method of observation. Since evidence shows that peer coaching can have beneficial effect on teacher development and learners' achievement, it is essential to investigate the impact of such a method in our culture and teaching context. Therefore, as the purpose of this research was to find out to what extent teacher peer coaching affected EFL learners' overall achievement, the following research questions were raised:

Q₁: Does teacher peer coaching have any significant impact on EFL learners' overall achievement?

Q₂: What is the attitude of teachers toward peer coaching?

Literature review

The use of effective professional development strategies to improve teacher quality and educational practices of teaching has become a critical aspect of school improvement across the world. As a matter of fact, in Iran, improving the quality of teachers through professional development has become a pressing concern (Sarkar Arani, 2006). Iranian teachers and educational administrators should develop their

understanding and attitudes toward improving teacher quality. Improving the quality of teaching should not be limited to raising the teaching and learning skills of individual teachers. Educational practice in Iran must be directed toward a more cooperative learning system that includes mutual learning and team teaching (Sarkar Arani, 2006).

Definitions of Teachers' Professional Development

Professional Development is defined by the APTA Board of Directors (2008) as follows: Professional Development encompasses the entire scope of a career beginning with pre-professional education and continuing through one's professional life span. Professional development enables individuals to assume an attitude of inquiry and to engage in assessments and actions which will provide the opportunity for (1) maintaining and updating knowledge and skills; (2) induction into new responsibility; (3) recapturing the mastery of concepts; and (4) creating, anticipating, and actively responding to change.

Furthermore, Lieberman (as cited in Sarkar Arani, 2005) characterized effective professional development as that which is grounded in inquiry, reflection, and participant driven experimentation, naming the role of the teacher, researcher as an appropriate means.

Research on Teachers' Professional Development Studies

During the past decade, a considerable body of literature has emerged on professional development, quality improvement of teacher education programs, teacher learning, and teacher change. The research literature contains a mix of large- and small-scale studies, including intensive case studies of classroom teaching, evaluations of specific approaches to improving teaching and learning, and surveys of teachers about their pre-service preparation and in-service professional development experiences. In addition, there is a large literature describing "best practices" in professional development, drawing on expert experiences (see for example, Blacke & Lansdell, 2000; Garet et al., 2001; Edmonds, 2007; Reusser et al., 2007).

Some influential researches on teachers' professional development has been done by Sarkar Arani and Matoba (2006), and Sarkar Arani, Shibata and Matoba (2007). Sarkar Arani, the postdoctoral fellow in the Graduate School of Education and Human Development of Nagoya University, Japan, the associate professor of Allameh

Tabatabaee University, Tehran, and the selected researcher of the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) in 2004, has carried out several researches on the impact of the Japanese model of teachers' professional development in Iran.

He also has reported the results of the implementation of this model in the United States. The model is called Jugyou Kenkyu. According to Sarkar Arani and Matoba (2006), Jugyou Kenkyu is a collaborative research on teaching-learning process. The Nagoya University research group translates it as collaborative research on classroom activities and the United States scholars enlighten it "Lesson Study".

Sarkar Arani argued in his articles that the contemporary situation of School-Based In-Service Teacher Training (SB-INSTT) such as Jugyou Kenkyu in Japan provides various opportunities for change and enrichment of classroom practices, for teachers' professional development, and for the improvement of school activities and environment. To define Jugyou Kenkyu more practically, Sarkar Arani (2006) pointed out the most important features of Jugyou Kenkyu as collaborative planning, doing and reflecting.

Through Jugyou Kenkyu all teachers actively participate and share their experiences. Thus, for effective Jugyou Kenkyu to take place it is necessary to create a cooperative occupational culture through collaborative participation (Sarkar Arani, 2006). Moreover, it can be thought of as a means of action research. As a result, as you see, it is very much similar to the peer coaching approach in TEFL.

Sarkar Arani and Matoba (2005) asserted that Japanese teachers view professional development and enhancement of their teaching skills as a lifelong pursuit. They know that experience, self-study, critiques of their teaching by their colleagues and self-reflection are important parts of this process. Rather than "one-time" workshops on the latest educational topic they are engaged in a "long-term" process of self-reflection and development.

Taylor (2002) emphasized on developing teachers' professionalism through conducting research in their own classroom. In this article, Taylor has described the major stages of carrying out an action research study which include generating a meaningful research problem, finding out the findings of others' investigations on our topic, collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data, and finally, reporting the results.

While Taylor (2002) introduced action research as a tool for professional growth, Ross and Bruce (2007) suggested teacher self-assessment as a powerful technique for improving achievement. In this study, they outlined a theory of teacher change that linked self-assessment by teachers to their professional growth. According to Ross and Bruce (2007), provision of a self-assessment tool contributed to teacher growth by: (1) influencing the teachers' definition of excellence in teaching and increasing his ability to recognize mastery experiences; (2) helping the teacher select improvement goals by providing him with clear standards of teaching, opportunities to find gaps between desired and actual practices, and a menu of options for action; (3) facilitating communication with the teacher's peer; and (4) increasing the influence of external change agents on teacher practice.

The study, then, argued that providing a self-assessment tool is a constructive strategy for improving the effectiveness of in-service education provided that it is bundled with other professional growth strategies: peer coaching, observation by external change agents, and focused input on teaching strategies.

Purposes of Peer Coaching

Olsen & Winn (1990) contend that coaching is a “developmental process, used for exploring, developing, strengthening, and refining teaching skills while developing stronger ties between faculty members. Coaching is collegial in nature...it is not supervisory or evaluative” (p.1). Robins (1991) in much the same vein, mentions the goals while defining the peer coaching as “a confidential process through which two or more colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new skills; share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace. It is not evaluative, and the term coaching is not meant to suggest that one partner has a higher status than the others” (p.1). Similarly, Showers (1985) summarizes the purposes of coaching as follows.

- First of all, it will continuously engage teachers in the study of teaching/learning process through communal activities and professional relationships.
- Second, it will develop skills needed to make collegial work successful, “especially important is the agreement that curriculum and instruction need constant

improvement and that expanding repertoire of teaching skills requires hard work, in which the help of our colleagues is indispensable” (p. 189).

- Third, it will promote a foundation for acquiring new teaching skills and strategies. Olsen and Winn (1990), Robins (1991), and Showers (1985) and many more scholars had claimed that peer coaching could be one of the best strategies for teacher development. However, they did not address the traditions and culture of the people who would be interested in using peer coaching for their professional development. Their discussion focused on the process as a whole and in particular in phases.

Phases of Peer Coaching

The peer-coaching process normally consists of three phases: pre-observation meeting, the observation itself, and post-observation (Skinner & Welch, 1996). Sometimes observer(s) or/and the observed may need extra time to reflect on what was observed before the feedback conference. In this case peer coaching will comprise four phases. In both three-phase and four-phase cycles the aim is to acquire professional growth. The observation cycle goes as follows.

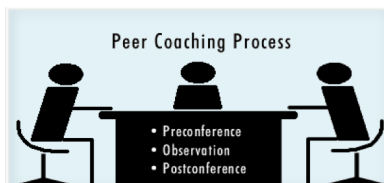


Figure 1 Phases of peer coaching (Skinner & Welch, 1996)

- A pre-observation meeting is the first phase where the participants meet to reach a consensus concerning the purpose of the observation and decide what teaching/learning behaviors an observer is going to look for while in class. They also design observation schedules or decide the tools that allow the observer to gather appropriate information on classroom transactions such as the type of questions teachers ask, the way they respond to their students' enquiries, and students' participation in class activities or contribution to their learning achievements (Hopkins 1994).

- The observation itself is the second phase during which the observer writes a description of what actually happens in class particularly in terms of the teaching/learning aspects or behaviors agreed on during the pre-observation meeting.

- The analysis/planning phase is optional. During this phase, the observer and/or the observed may need some time to organize his/her notes or reflect on what was observed.
- The last phase is the post-observation conference or coaching. During this phase, the participants reflect on the evidence collected by the observer(s) and then exchange ideas on how a particular activity or an instructional behavior can be improved, examine students' responses, and generate solutions to any perceived problems.

Does Peer Coaching Affect Students' Achievement?

A culture of coaching improves teaching and improves student learning. Teachers once entered a classroom, closed the door, and taught primarily on their own, doing the best they could, relying on their years of education and experience. They were there to impart knowledge and see that learning occurred. Those days are long gone. Teachers are now not only charged with helping students learn in a world drowning in new information and technology but are called upon to serve as social worker, nutritionist, counselor, whistle-blower, cop, nose-blower, and more. We all know teaching has changed. Like all other professions, the need for support from colleagues, coaches, and mentors is long overdue.

In the past 20 years, teacher professional development (PD) has been used as one of key policy mechanisms for educational reform initiatives (Cohen & Hill, 2000; Corcoran et al., 1998). The passage and implementation of the No Child Left Behind Act (*NCLB*) heightened the attention given to teacher PD as a potential strategy to boost students' academic gains and close the achievement gaps. *NCLB* mandates all teachers to receive high quality PD. In addition, *NCL* requires that activities supported with Title II funds must be based on a review of scientifically based research that shows how such interventions are expected to improve student achievement.

Furthermore, the law stipulates that PD activities are regularly evaluated for their impact on teacher effectiveness and improved student academic achievement. In light of *NCLB*'s emphasis on assessing the impact of PD on improved student learning, it is imperative to examine the available research-based evidence on the effectiveness of PD

as it relates to student academic outcomes. It is also important to identify effective professional development programs and models that exist.

Showing that professional development translates into gains in student achievement poses tremendous challenges, despite an intuitive and logical connection between them (Borko, 2004; Supovitz, 2001). To substantiate the empirical link between professional development-peer coaching and student achievement, studies should *ideally* establish the links among professional development, teacher learning and practice, and student learning.

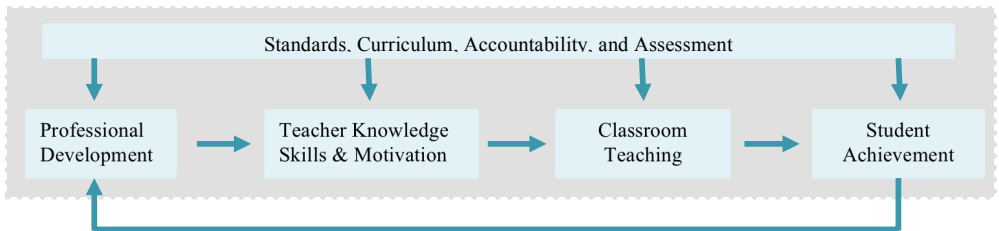


Figure 2 The impact of professional development on student achievement

Professional development affects student achievement through three steps. First, professional development enhances teacher knowledge, skills, and motivation. Second, better knowledge, skills, and motivation improve classroom teaching. Third, improved teaching raises student achievement. If one link is weak or missing, better student learning cannot be expected. If a teacher fails to apply new ideas from professional development to classroom instruction, for example, students will not benefit from the teacher's professional development.

Research on Peer Coaching and Achievement Studies

In the past, studies were conducted with individual teachers or small groups, now Joyce and Showers (1988) involve faculties that volunteer as a whole. The premise that good teachers produce good results has engrossed the attention of most educational institutions worldwide. One effective strategy for improving the quality of teaching and learning is peer coaching. Joyce and Showers (1988) were among the first to replace “observation” with “coaching”: a non-threatening, non-sensitive, beneficial, and congenial term. “Feedback” and “coaches”, which imply more collaboration and lack of superiority among the participants, were immediately used. They now help whole faculties determine students’ most pressing needs, select appropriate content, help them

design training and assess the impact on students. Attention to the social organization is extremely important.

A recent study of peer coaching by Neufeld and Roper (2003) found that there is no conclusive evidence that coaching alone produces increases in academic achievement. Despite the lack of clear proof that coaching leads to increased academic achievement, Neufeld and Roper were quick to point out that "... coaching does increase the instructional capacity of school and teachers, a known prerequisite for increasing learning" (p. v). Their conclusion is shared by many leading researchers in the field.

Method

Participants

The researcher chose 60 Iranian female junior students of the intermediate level of proficiency at Hermes Language School from among 100 participants based on their performance on the Preliminary English Test (PET). The mentioned 60 learners were first assigned to the control group for one semester and then, they participated in the study as the experimental group in the next semester receiving peer coaching program as the treatment. Since 60 is too large a number for the students in one English class, a collection of four classes of 14, 16, 18, and 12 students were formed who participated once as the control and once as the experimental group.

The project took place at one of Tehran branches of Hermes Language School which had 15 teachers including three teachers teaching the elementary level, seven teaching intermediate, and five teaching upper-intermediate level. The participating teachers were two female pairs of teachers, holding BA and had less than two years of teaching experience from those who taught the intermediate level and who announced their interest when the program was introduced. Participating teachers selected their own partners for the project. The researcher used this procedure to encourage teachers to participate and ease their anxiety about the process.

Instrumentation

1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

The Preliminary English Test (PET) was used to select homogeneous participants from among 100 students available as the target sample of the intermediate students at Hermes Language School. The test was piloted before with a sample of 25 intermediate students and consisted of two papers: Paper 1 Reading / Writing and Paper 2 Listening. Since it was not possible for the researcher to include the speaking part of the test, it was excluded from the very beginning.

2. Observation Sheets

There were three separate observation sheets, one for each observation (pre-observation conference, observation, and post-observation conference). Both pre- and post-observation sheets consisted of five open-ended questions. The purpose of the pre-observation sheet was to help the coach and the coachee to decide and plan for the observation session. The post-observation sheet was used to give the peers the opportunity for reflection and plan for their future step.

It is worth noting that the observation sheet (the one used after pre-observation and before post-observation) included a table with three sections/columns: Approval Statements, Questions to ask coachee, and Ideas/Options for future which were filled during the peer observation by the coach to note down points about the classroom event and refer to them later on during the post-observation conference.

3. Questionnaires

The researcher administered two questionnaires to the four teachers who participated as the coach and coachee in the study: a feedback questionnaire for peer observation after each observation and one final questionnaire on the process in general. The feedback questionnaire consisted of 10 open-ended items and the final questionnaire included 15.

The questionnaire was administered two weeks before the final exams. The researcher explained the purpose of the questionnaire to the applicants to ensure that she would receive authentic responses from them. The questionnaire was completed and returned back in less than a week.

4. Achievement Tests

Two achievement tests were designed by the researcher, one served as both the pre- and post-test for the participants when they underwent the control group condition

and the other served as both the pre- and post-test for them when they underwent the experimental group condition. The participants took part in the study in one semester as the control group attending the JW1 (Junior Way-Stage) intermediate course and as the experimental group in the following semester attending the JW2 intermediate course. JW1 including 12 multiple-choice listening comprehension items, 12 multiple-choice grammar items, 20 grammar fill-in-the-blank items, eight rewriting items, and eight multiple-choice reading comprehension questions was administered as the pre-test at the beginning of the term and as a post-test at the end to the participants when they participated as the control group.

Another achievement test named JW2 including 12 multiple-choice listening comprehension items, 20 multiple-choice grammar items, 20 grammar fill-in-the-blank items, 10 rewriting items, and 10 multiple-choice reading comprehension questions was administered as pre-test at the beginning of the term and as a post-test at the end to the participants when they acted as the experimental group in the following semester. Both tests were designed based on the content of the related course.

Ninety minutes was allocated to each of the aforementioned tests. Before administering the achievement tests to the target sample, they were piloted with 30 students at the same level of proficiency who attended a similar course in the language school.

Procedure

To be able to test the null hypothesis of this study, several steps were taken successively. At first, to select the participants of the study, the researcher administered the PET among 100 intermediate participants at the language school. In order to satisfy and ensure the assumption of homogeneity of the sample group, 60 subjects whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected to participate as both control and experimental groups in two consecutive terms.

The 60 participants first served as participants of the control group. As the next step, the JW1 achievement test was administered as the pre-test to the participants. The purpose was to compare the results of this test when administered before and after the course to determine the amount of participants' achievement. Then, the researcher

started the course for the participants. Since it was not possible to have 60 participants in a class, there were four classes of 14, 16, 18, and 12. The course material and procedure for the first semester during which the participants acted as control group are discussed in detail below. When the semester was over, the achievement test (JW1) was administered again, now as the post-test.

Prior to the next semester, participant teachers attended an introductory information meeting about peer coaching and were asked to perform a set process consisting of a pre-conference, classroom visit, and post-conference. The researcher worked with a partner to model the process. Each pair observed and had conference with each other once a week during which they shifted their roles as coach and coachee.

Then, in the next semester before participants started the JW2 course, JW2 achievement test was administered as the pre-test. In this semester the participants acted as the experimental group and were put in the same four classes (14, 16, 18, and 12 participants). During the second semester the participants received the treatment that consisted of taking part in a course whose teachers conducted peer coaching. Note has to be taken that the teachers who practiced peer coaching in this semester were exactly the same teachers who practiced individual teaching in the previous semester. Finally, when the JW2 course was over, the participants took the same achievement test (JW2 test) as the post-test.

The course in each semester consisted of 18 sessions of 105 minutes spanning over a period of approximately three months. To control the effect of learner and teacher variables, teachers and students were the same in both semesters or treatment conditions. During both treatment conditions Communicative Language Teaching approach was employed. The participants received instruction based on Touchstone 3 by M. McCarthy, J. McCarten, and H. Sandiford (units 7-9 during control group condition and units 10-12 during experimental group condition) as their course book, Touchstone 3 workbook and the related CDs. The same amount of instruction was presented during the two treatment conditions.

A. Instruction during the Control Group Condition

During the control group condition, teachers worked individually. They were supposed to pay attention to their own lesson plans based on the language school's TTC

(teacher Training Course). If they confronted any problems during their teaching, they were required to ask the mentors who would try to clarify the issues and guide the teachers through the specific framework discussed in the TTC. Therefore, the teachers basically practiced the same routine, i.e. the Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) of the language school without any changes. There was a sense of competition among the teachers during the control group condition (first semester). Although working with other teachers was not abandoned, the trace of cooperation and negotiation of ideas was nearly zero.

During the control group condition, the teachers were supposed to teach the units as required under the current working system. Students in the control group condition were paired in practicing dialogues. New words were taught in isolation in the manner that teachers wrote them on the board and explained the meaning and then talked about the conversation.

Moreover, as recommended, the teachers did not follow the order of the book in regard to the text and grammar parts. They were required to teach grammar before the text by using huge amount of input. The rationale behind this was that students could learn the grammar well which resulted in a better understanding of the text. They were mostly asked to do the grammar and vocabulary parts on their own and later they checked their answers with their teacher and sometimes with the help of their classmates.

For the reading sections, students had warm-up before reading the text which included one of these procedures: guessing what the reading was about by looking at the picture or the title, having some key words on the board and asking their ideas about them, and/or trying to relate the topic of the reading to their real life by eliciting ideas. For the while reading section, students were asked to read the text and undergo the processes of skimming and scanning to do tasks such as chart completion, gap-fill, or answering comprehension questions. They were supposed to have a discussion over the reading topic for the post reading section.

In view of listening, teachers were supposed to have warm-up before the students listened to the text like looking at the pictures or the title or reading the directions. Having listened to the text, students would do the relevant tasks as required. After the

first listening and doing the tasks, they were supposed to listen again and discuss the new words.

Considering the writing section, students were asked to write and present three compositions during the term. Teachers were expected to take into account all necessary points needed for a standard composition. They underlined or crossed out the inappropriate words or phrases and then provided the correct form. In other words, students wrote their compositions individually and received feedback individually.

And finally, for the speaking, students were placed in groups of three or four and were guided by the teacher as to what to do during free discussions. In this phase, the teacher moved from one group to the other to observe them and find their weaknesses. The teacher acted as a source of help for the students and the students were more willing to ask about their problems in this phase. As was mentioned before, at the end of the course (the treatment period for the control group condition), all subjects underwent the same 60-item achievement test as the post-test.

B. Instruction during the Experimental Group Condition

In the following semester, when the experimental group condition began, the same teachers worked together, i.e. practiced peer coaching, and taught the same 60 participants. Peer coaching was carried out in this study following the philosophy that the greatest teachers are those with the longest list of options at their disposal. The teachers were guided to work together in a manner that provided opportunities for them to practice their profession consciously and to afford them opportunities to teach differently (Neufeld & Roper, 2002).

To this end, coaches provided feedback on each other's strategies and helped one another brainstorm new strategies or options. It was a process during which teachers observed each other while teaching, and later met to discuss and provide constructive feedback on what they had observed. The peer coaching process consisted of three phases: pre-observation meeting, observation itself, and post-observation; the aim was to acquire professional growth. There were three separate observation sheets for each observation, and also a feedback questionnaire to be filled after each observation.

The observation cycle went as follows:

1. The pre-observation meeting was the first phase where the participants met to reach a consensus concerning the purpose of the observation and decided what teaching/learning behaviours an observer was going to look for while in her peer's class. They also designed observation schedules or decided the tools that allowed the observer to gather appropriate information on classroom transactions such as the type of questions teachers asked, the way they responded to their students' enquiries, and students' participation in class activities or contribution to their learning achievements.

2. The observation itself was the second phase during which the observer wrote a description of what actually happened in class particularly in terms of the teaching/learning aspects or behaviours agreed on during the pre-observation meeting.

3. The last phase was the post-observation conference or coaching. During this phase, the participants reflected on the evidence collected by the observer and then exchanged ideas on how a particular activity or an instructional behaviour could be improved, examined students' responses, and generated solutions to any perceived problems.

After each observation phase, as explained in the instrumentation section, a feedback questionnaire was administered by the researcher to the teachers. Finally, as explained before at the end of the course in addition to the achievement post-test administered to the students, the four teachers were given a final questionnaire in order to determine their overall attitude with respect to the concept of peer coaching.

The main procedure of instruction in terms of the four language skills and the language components were the same as the one explained for the control group condition as explained above. Therefore, they were not repeated in this section. However, the peer coaching cycle described above resulted in many changes in teachers' teaching compared to the school SOP of the language school, which is normally followed by the teachers. These changes were the direct result of the observations and conferencing of the teachers during which they constantly monitored the improvement of the students. Some examples are provided hereunder to delineate the change of practice that evolved out of practicing peer coaching in the experimental group condition.

Writing: In regard to writing, teachers did not correct the compositions by underlying or crossing out the mistakes and writing the correct form as in the control group Condition. As a result of conferencing, they came up with a new strategy for correcting the compositions instead and named it "using correction symbols". There was no exact list of symbols and they selected the symbols based on some course books. The teacher would write the symbol above or next to the mistake or inappropriate use of a language feature in the students' writing. The students, knowing what it meant, made the necessary adjustment to their writing.

Reading: Peers offered helpful suggestions to each other for reading, some are mentioned below:

- Jigsaw reading
- Paired reading
- Reciprocal reading
- Predicting from words and pictures

Speaking: Teachers found the following activities helpful in getting students to practice 'speaking-as-a-skill':

- Information-gap activities
- Telling stories
- Surveys
- Presentations

Listening: Students were exposed to different types of listening activities like:

▪ Play the video without sound or play the audio without the picture students and teachers discussed what they saw and what clues it gave them, and then they guessed what the characters were actually saying. When they predicted the conversation, the teacher rewound the video and played it with sound to check their understanding. The reverse procedure was practiced too. While the student listened, they tried to judge where the speakers were, what they looked like, what was going on, etc. when they predicted this, they listened again, this time with the visual image as well to check their guesses.

- Freeze frame
- Jigsaw listening

- Note taking

Vocabulary: Considering vocabulary, teachers paid attention to the following items:

- Word sort - Teachers used word sorts as a simple small group activity. Students listed key words from a reading selection. They then identified the meaning and properties of each word and subsequently sorted the list in to collections of words with similar features.

- SVES (Stephens Vocabulary Elaboration Strategy) - Students were required to have a vocabulary notebook. Whenever a student confronted a new (or unclear) word, she wrote in down and defined the term in the vocabulary notebook. Students were asked to regularly review these words because they were encouraged to use these new words in their written and oral presentations.

- Semantic feature analysis - This strategy asked students to identify key words in a reading selection and relate these words to the major concepts of the text. Students used a graphical matrix to list the key words of a reading selection, identify the meaning and properties of these key words, group the key words in to logical categories, and relate the words (and categories) to one another.

- RIVET - This is a variation of the childhood game, HangMan. This game introduces vocabulary terms and encourages better spelling.

- Dictionary game

Grammar: To present grammatical points, several strategies were used such as game puzzles, and fun tasks.

Results and discussion

To investigate whether there was a significant difference between independent variable, i.e. teacher peer coaching and the dependent variable, i.e. the overall achievement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners, the data were analysed as explained in the following sections.

A. Descriptive Statistics of the Proficiency Test

The researcher used the PET as an instrument for homogenizing the subjects of the study in Hermes Language School. On the whole, 100 students participated in the

test administration with the researcher administering the test twice, each time to 50 students. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the test with the mean being 41.26 and the standard deviation of 12.5.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for the Total Score on PET

| | | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------|-----|---------|---------|-------|----------------|
| TOTAL | 100 | 32.00 | 72.00 | 41.26 | 12.54124 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 100 | | | | |

Those subjects whose scores fell within one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected. The reliability of the PET in this actual administration for the homogenization of the participants was calculated (Table 2). An index of .84 reassured the researcher of the reliability of this test.

Table 2 Reliability of the PET

| Cronbach's Alpha (α) | N of Items |
|-------------------------------|------------|
| .84 | 67 |

B. Descriptive Statistics for the Pre- and Posttest of the Control Group Condition

The achievement test for the control group condition was administered both as a pre- and post-test. Table 3 demonstrates the Cronbach Alpha index for pre- and post-test of the control group, the number of cases, and the number of items.

Table 3 Cronbach Alpha index for pre- and post-test of the control group Condition

| | No. of Cases | No. of Items | Alpha Coefficient |
|----------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Pretest | 60 | 60 | .86 |
| Posttest | 60 | 60 | .77 |

The descriptive statistics for the pre and posttest scores of the control group, i.e. the mean and the standard deviation are reported in Table 4.

Table 4 Descriptive statistics for the control group - pre and post-test scores

| | No. of Cases | Mean | Std. error of mean | Sd | Skewness | Std. Error Skewness | Kurtosis | Std. Error Kurtosis |
|----------|--------------|-------|--------------------|------|----------|---------------------|----------|---------------------|
| Pretest | 60 | 32.25 | 1.271 | 9.85 | -.353 | .309 | -.428 | .608 |
| Posttest | 60 | 33.92 | 1.005 | 7.79 | .154 | .309 | -.626 | .608 |

Referring to Table 4, the mean and the standard deviation of the scores for the 60 subjects of the control group came out to be 32.25 and 9.85, respectively on the pretest, and 33.92 and 7.79 on the posttest.

C. Descriptive Statistics for the Pre- and Posttest of the Experimental Group Condition

When the period of individual instruction was over and the participants took part in the achievement post-test, with the interval of one week, they started the new semester during which they were instructed by the same teachers who practiced peer coaching. Therefore, the subjects acted as the experimental group. They took the achievement test for the experimental group condition both prior and after the instruction.

Table 5 below indicates that the number of cases and items for the pre- and post-tests of the experimental group were 60 and Cronbach Alpha Index for pre- and posttests of the control group came out to be .83 and .76 respectively. Therefore, the Cronbach indices of the two administrations of the test in the control group were satisfactory.

Table 5 Cronbach Alpha index for pre- and posttest of the Experimental group Condition

| | No. of Cases | No. of Items | Alpha Coefficient |
|----------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Pretest | 60 | 60 | .83 |
| Posttest | 60 | 60 | .76 |

The following table (Table 6) reports the descriptive statistics for the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental group.

Table 6 Descriptive statistics for the Experimental group - pre and posttest scores

| | No. of Cases | Mean | Std. error of mean | Sd | Skewness | Std. Error Skewness | Kurtosis | Std. Error Kurtosis |
|----------|--------------|-------|--------------------|------|----------|---------------------|----------|---------------------|
| Pretest | 60 | 29.87 | 1.168 | 9.05 | -.327 | .309 | -.523 | .608 |
| Posttest | 60 | 34.78 | .978 | 7.58 | .298 | .309 | -.789 | .608 |

According to the table above, the mean and the standard deviation of the scores for the 60 subjects of the control group came out to be 29.87 and 9.05, respectively on the pre-test, and 34.78 and 7.58 on the post-test.

Testing the Null Hypothesis

In order to be able to test the null hypothesis of the study, i.e. to see whether teacher peer coaching had a significant impact on EFL learners' overall achievement, repeated-measures ANOVA or mixed ANOVA was carried out as the same participants took part in both control and experimental conditions and that the researcher needed to take individual variation into account.

Table 7 below shows the within-subjects factors, which was time of testing and had two levels Total pretest (PRETSTT) and total posttest (POSTT).

Table 7 Repeated Measures ANOVA –Within-subjects Factors

| Measure: MEASURE-1 | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| TESTTIM | Dependent Variable |
| 1 | PRETSTT |
| 2 | POSTT |

The next table (Table 8) shows between-subject factors, which was the treatment condition having two levels, the control group condition (condition 1) where the participants underwent instruction which was carried out individually by each teacher, and the experimental group condition (condition 2) where peer coaching was used.

Table 8 Repeated Measures ANOVA –Between-subjects Factors

| | Value Label | N |
|----------------|--------------------|----|
| Condition 1.00 | Control Group | 60 |
| 2.00 | Experimental Group | 60 |

Table 9 represents the descriptive statistics for total pre and posttest scores of the two different conditions. The mean score of the control group condition on the pretest was 32.25, whereas the one for the experimental group was 29.87. On the posttest, the mean score for the control group condition came out to be 33.92 and for the experimental group condition it came out to be 34.78. These figures show that when participants underwent the control group condition, they demonstrated a 1.67 gain in their mean score. However, when they underwent the experimental group condition, they demonstrated a 4.92 gain in their mean score.

Table 9 Descriptive Statistics for the Pre-test and Post-test of the Control and Experimental Group

| | | Condition | | |
|----------------|--------------------|-----------|----------------|-----|
| Condition | | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
| Total Pretest | Control Group | 32.2500 | 9.84563 | 60 |
| | Experimental Group | 29.8667 | 9.04690 | 60 |
| | Total | 31.0583 | 9.49064 | 120 |
| Total Posttest | Control Group | 33.9167 | 7.79024 | 60 |
| | Experimental Group | 34.7833 | 7.58029 | 60 |
| | Total | 34.3500 | 7.66598 | 120 |

However, in order to see whether this difference was significant or not, the results of the tests within- and between-subjects effects had to be checked.

Part of the process of ANOVA requires estimation of Mauchly's test of sphericity, the results of which are demonstrated in Table 10.

Table 10 Mauchly’s Test of Sphericity – Repeated Measures ANOVA

Measure: MEASURE-1

| Within Subject | Mauchly’s | Approx. hi-Square | df | Sig. | Epsilon | | |
|----------------|-----------|-------------------|----|------|--------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | | | | Greenhouse-Geisser | Huynh-Feldt | Lower-bound |
| TESTTIM | 1.000 | .000 | 0 | . | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized t proportional to an identity matrix.

^a May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

^b Design: Intercept+CONDITN
Within Subjects Design: TESTTIM

The results of the tests within-subjects effects are demonstrated in the Table 11 below.

Table 11 Tests within-subjects effects – Repeated Measures ANOVA

Measure: MEASURE-1

| Source | | Type II Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared | Noncent. Parameter | Observed Power |
|-----------------|------------------|------------------------|--------|-------------|--------|------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| TESTTIM S | Sphericity Assum | 650.104 | 1 | 650.104 | 52.222 | .000 | .307 | 52.222 | 1.000 |
| | Greenhouse-Geiss | 650.104 | 1.000 | 650.104 | 52.222 | .000 | .307 | 52.222 | 1.000 |
| | Huynh-Feldt | 650.104 | 1.000 | 650.104 | 52.222 | .000 | .307 | 52.222 | 1.000 |
| | Lower-bound | 650.104 | 1.000 | 650.104 | 52.222 | .000 | .307 | 52.222 | 1.000 |
| TESTTIM*CO | Sphericity Assum | 158.437 | 1 | 158.437 | 12.727 | .001 | .097 | 12.727 | .943 |
| | Greenhouse-Geiss | 158.437 | 1.000 | 158.437 | 12.727 | .001 | .097 | 12.727 | .943 |
| | Huynh-Feldt | 158.437 | 1.000 | 158.437 | 12.727 | .001 | .097 | 12.727 | .943 |
| | Lower-bound | 158.437 | 1.000 | 158.437 | 12.727 | .001 | .097 | 12.727 | .943 |
| Error (TESTTIM) | Sphericity Assum | 1468.958 | 118 | 12.449 | | | | | |
| | Greenhouse-Geiss | 1468.958 | 18.000 | 12.449 | | | | | |
| | Huynh-Feldt | 1468.958 | 18.000 | 12.449 | | | | | |
| | Lower-bound | 1468.958 | 18.000 | 12.449 | | | | | |

a. Computed using alpha = .05

The first row of Table 11 shows the main effect of the time of the test (pretest vs. posttest). The figures for all correction factors (Greenhouse-Geisser, Huynh-Feldt, etc.) are the same ($F_{(1,118)} = 52.22, p > .05$) and demonstrate that the effect of within-subjects factor (time of test) was significant. This means that participants demonstrated significant gain in their posttest score compared to their pretest scores.

Partial eta-squared, which demonstrates effect size as the magnitude of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable, was .307, showing that this factor accounted for 30% of the variance on scores. This effect size is quite large according to Larson-Hall (2010).

The second row of Table 11 demonstrates the interaction between testing time (pretest and posttest) and the treatment condition (peer coaching and teaching

individually). This interaction is in fact the interest of the research to see which treatment condition demonstrated more gain from pretest to posttest. This interaction came out to be significant ($F_{(1,118)} = 12.727, \rho = .001 > .05$). Partial eta-squared (.097) demonstrates that this interaction accounted for almost 10% of the variation in the dependent variable. According to Larson-Hall (2010), this is a medium effect size. Additionally, the power analysis shows that this interaction had sufficient power (observed power = .94, i.e. 94%) to find statistical differences in the interaction.

Therefore, the researcher was able to reject the null hypothesis which stated teacher peer coaching does not have any significant impact on EFL learners' overall achievement.

Table 12 below shows the test of between-subjects effect. The ρ value for condition is .615 and larger than .05 and insignificant. However, since it was demonstrated that the two-way interaction which involved condition was significant; this particular result is not very much informative.

Table 12 Test of between-subjects effects – Repeated Measures ANOVA

Measure: MEASURE-1

| Source | Type II Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared | Noncent. Parameter | Observed Power |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| Intercept | 6695.004 | 1 | 6695.004 | 84.22 | .000 | .941 | 887.229 | 1.000 |
| CONDITION | 34.504 | 1 | 34.504 | 9 | .615 | .002 | .254 | .079 |
| Error | 6049.992 | 118 | 136.017 | .254 | | | | |

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Although the pre-test mean score for the control group condition was higher than that of the experimental group, the posttest mean score for the experimental group was higher than that of the control group. This shows that in the experimental condition group, where teachers taught through peer coaching, students had a higher degree of achievement than the condition during which their teachers taught individually.

Questionnaire

To answer the second research question about the teachers' attitude toward peer coaching and to explore suggestions that could improve this process, taking into account the context and the participants, or to find alternatives to the process of peer coaching, the researcher used a questionnaire as a data collection tool. The overall findings of the

two administered questionnaires showed that coaching increased teachers' confidence in teaching and their ability to work as a team.

Nearly all teachers agreed that the peer coaching experience facilitated the exchange of teaching methods, materials, approaches, and techniques. Interestingly, the teachers agreed that their different backgrounds, especially their diverse teaching experiences were an enriching component that allowed them to function complementarily. Because of this diversity, they were able to supplement each other in their weaknesses. For example, one of them mentioned that the combination of other teaches' experience and their background in linguistics, phonetics, and testing allowed each of them to fill each other's gaps in order to produce better lessons. In sum, all teachers felt pleased to see how helpful they had been to their peers, agreeing that experienced teachers could help inexperienced ones become better teachers. Responses in the final questionnaire revealed that teachers felt that it was enjoyable to share responsibility and to complement each other's strengths, weaknesses, and skills.

In regard to the observation, the results indicated that peer coaching fostered development of teaching skills primarily through peer observation and discussions. Teachers reported that peer observation aided designing lesson plans, and made teachers aware of possible inconsistencies in their lesson plans and practices. The data indicated strong collaborative participation among the teachers in making decisions about objectives, content, activities, sequencing, timing, and materials of their lessons. Such collaboration helped teachers feel confident enough to try out various methods and procedures that they had discussed in observation conferences and to eliminate weaknesses and highlight strengths of their lesson plans and actual teaching.

The results also revealed that peer coaching led teachers to improve their organizational and class management skills as they became aware of the need to increase their energy level and become more flexible in class. Furthermore, teachers reported an increase in their level of responsibility and willingness to make changes in their beliefs. They also recognized that they needed to be less self-conscious about their own work, more receptive of criticism, and open to outside suggestions. Finally, results indicated that peer coaching increased teachers' awareness of their individual

responsibilities to review and revise what they did in class, as well as of the benefits of working as a team to improve the quality of their classes.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

In order to provide answers for the abovementioned question and test the null hypothesis, 60 students were brought under investigation from among 100 participants based on their performances on a general English proficiency test, i.e. PET. Moreover, four English teachers participated in the study. The 60 participants were divided into four classes and underwent the control group condition in one semester during which their teachers practiced teaching the courses individually. The subsequent semester, the same participants underwent the experimental group condition during which their teachers practiced peer coaching.

Two achievement tests were administered in this study, one as the achievement test for the control group condition, and one for the experimental group condition. Each test was once used as a pretest and once as a posttest. Therefore, the achievement of the participants was measured before and after each period of instruction and consequently, the researcher was able to compare the degree of participant's overall achievement when instructed individually and when instructed through peer coaching.

To answer the second research question, other instruments were utilized in this study, namely the feedback questionnaire, final questionnaire, and observation sheets. The observation sheets consisted of three sheets, pre-observation, observation, and post-observation conferences and were used for guiding and planning before, during, and after peer observation. The feedback questionnaire was given to the teachers after each observation to investigate about their feelings and the difficulties they encountered during the process, and the way the process affected their teaching. The final questionnaire investigated the teachers' overall attitude towards peer coaching.

When the data were collected, the researcher first conducted statistical analyses on the data obtained from the achievement tests in order to examine the impact of the independent variable (teacher peer coaching) on the dependent variable (learners' overall achievement) of the study. In order to test the null hypothesis that stated "teacher peer coaching does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' overall

achievement", repeated-measures or mixed ANOVA was carried out because the same participants took part in both the control conditions and experimental conditions and that the researcher needed to take individual variation into account. The assumptions for running repeated-measures ANOVA were also checked prior to the analyses.

The analyses showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the results of the participants in the experimental group condition and that of the control group condition on the achievement test. Furthermore, the results indicated that the participants demonstrated higher achievement when undergoing the experimental condition compared to when they underwent the control condition. Consequently, the researcher was able to reject the null hypothesis. This indicated that teacher peer coaching had a significant impact on the EFL learners' overall achievement at the intermediate level.

Subsequently, the researcher analyzed the results of the questionnaire to be able to answer the second question that asked what the attitude of teachers toward peer coaching was. This question inquired about the candidates' subjective understanding of peer coaching process: its benefits, difficulties, and impacts.

The results indicated that the responses mostly favored peer coaching. Almost every teacher who participated in the project and provided feedback on the project as a whole felt that peer coaching was more valuable than many other professional development activities. Teachers said with peer coaching they got feedback related directly to what happened in the class. Moreover, they maintained that the feedback was from a colleague without judgment and did not result in a permanent record of what occurred. They felt that feedback allowed them to try practice or strategy changes without having the activity used as a formal evaluation of their teaching ability.

The results also indicated that peer coaching was a valuable tool for formative evaluation as all the four participants said that they would recommend peer coaching as a professional development activity and almost all said they would participate in peer coaching again.

The finding of this study is consistent with the ideas of some foreign language researchers. Neufeld and Roper (2003) concluded that, "coaching can become a powerful vehicle for improving instruction, and, thereby, student achievement" (p. 26).

Peer coaching might provide teachers with the opportunity to experiment and implement novel ideas and activities in their classes by sharing responsibilities with colleagues of the same status (Showers & Joyce, 1996; Gottesman, 2000). The constructive character of such collaboration might promote much less stressful and more energizing professional exchange among teachers, academic coordinators, and directors. Hence, teacher might feel more comfortable engaging each other in conversations about their practice and sharing their individual perceptions (Richards & Lockhart 1996; Richards & Nunan, 1990). In addition, as peer coaching involves teachers in mutual observation of actions, reflection on the observed actions, and description of the tacit knowledge implicit in these actions (Schon, 1988), teachers will be given the opportunity to “construct their own knowledge, by observing others gain self-knowledge and self insight” (Fanselow, 1990, p. 184). This, in turn, might prepare teachers better for supervisory visits that aim to make them accountable for the quality of their classes.

The results of this study also adds another piece of evidence to the body of literature on the importance of peer coaching in foreign language teaching, this time with the specific focus on collegiality and opening the door to not only let others in, but find out what others are doing. It encourages teachers with varying degrees of skills to contribute to the professional development of one another. Furthermore, peer coaching might be used to add to the number of hours that traditional in-service training programs allocate for observation and practice of new methods, approaches, and techniques, enabling teachers to establish associations between the situations presented in training sessions and those they face in actual classrooms. That way, teachers might continuously recycle and enrich their active repertoire of teaching skills (Cosh, 1999; Farrel, 2001).

Also, through peer observation, both the coach and the coachee may have the opportunity to become aware of noted inconsistencies in their practice (Wallace, 1991), also to learn from reflecting on how their peers handle complex situations (Schon, 1988). Teachers also might share their expertise and thus become more conscious of the methods and processes they employ in their classrooms. Such reflective exercise, if constant and continuous, promote teachers' competence in making informed decisions

and then assessing how those decisions impact their students' learning. The reflective exercise also might foster teachers' analytical skills, enabling them to critically assess educational theory and research (Pennington, 1990).

Such an enriching process might enhance teachers' self-confidence and reduce the fear of having their personal theories of teaching challenged by their colleagues. Taking into consideration what has been said so far, the researcher perceives the relationship between peer coaching and students' progress as follows:

Peer coaching Higher instructional skills Students' progress

To sum up, this study sought to evaluate the degree to which peer coaching could facilitate professional development of teachers and enhance learners' achievement. The results from this study suggest that participation in peer coaching is perceived to be a valuable experience. While the process of peer coaching was unique to each of the participants and was unlike evaluation and conventional in-service education programs they had been involved in their previous years of teaching, they welcomed the collaboration with peers as a non-evaluative, low-stress means through which to reflect upon and improve their own teaching.

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The World's Language: English as a Lingua Franca

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English has established its position as the lingua franca without any doubt (Macaulay, 2009); it has become the symbol of our era together with globalisation, politics, science, technology, media, music, documents and so on. Every person thinks he could communicate with a sufficient degree of English, but what arises as the question is which English it is. Is it the same, which students are taught at schools or is it something that needs to be redefined and examined carefully in terms of teaching? As the most available means of communication in many fields, English is vital for those who are in need of communicating through the language rather than knowing about the language. In fact, it is widely accepted that English is more prestigious when it is one of these 3 core varieties, namely, British, American and Australian yet there is also English as a Lingua Franca (henceforth ELF) which has been subject to much debate. On the one hand, it has been suggested as a threat to local languages and cultures; on the other hand its global uses have been seen as a threat to Standard English. At the same time it is seen as the symbol of efficiency for various jobs as it addresses to the globalised world. The most common language relating to science, technology, tourism, business and finance, and academic information is English (Coury, 2001) and this commonality makes English lingua franca generally between non-native speakers. In short, ELF refers to the use of English as a medium of communication between peoples of different languages.

In order to determine ELF status as a language, firstly examining Kachru's (1985) three-circle model would be essential. English use is divided into three categories; that is, Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. Inner circle varieties are those spoken in North America, Australia and Britain, where English is the official, main, dominant language. Outer circle refers to new Englishes whereas they do not have the same prestige as core

Englishes. In addition, outer circle Englishes co-exist with many other indigenous languages. Expanding circle Englishes are those spoken as EFL. This model is nation, function, and variety status based, however ELF aims to unite all speakers of English in cross-cultural communication in a world where English does not belong to any one nation that we must speak not of unique English but of Englishes. Nevertheless, ELF may not be counted as a new variety since it is not homogenous in itself at least for the time being. Also, it lacks two main characteristics that mark out new varieties via nativisation which means developing characteristic structural features and institutionalisation (Mollin, 2006). Thus, ELF may be said to have the potential to develop into a variety like Standard English. Getting meaning across from one non-native to the other may lead to a common structural variety in the future so it will be more suitable to classify ELF not as a variety but as a register that is defined by the circumstance and purpose of the communicative situation rather than by the individual user, ethnic or social group. The context of use is the crucial determinant in identifying register in terms of field, tenor and mode subsequently social setting, relationship between the interlocutors and medium of communication. Still ELF faces a serious contradiction and resistance especially against its form though it has widely accepted functions. One of the problematic sides is pronunciation. Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) have special status around the English speaking world. Yet, RP is not much practiced. ELF argues that instead of the minority, the speech of majority should be focused on as Macaulay states:

Since RP is not necessarily the easiest or most appropriate accent of British English for learners to learn, the choice of RP as a model is difficult to justify. It would be better for everyone if linguists, phoneticians, and teachers overcome their fascination with the accent of an elite minority and concerned themselves more with the speech of the majority of the population. (Macaulay, 1988, 115)

In ELF contexts, much of the communication does not involve native speakers of English at all. Moreover, some intelligibility problems (Jenkins, 2009) could be traced directly back to pronunciation. According to her, the main features of Lingua Franca Core are as follows:

- Consonant sounds except voiced/voiceless *th* and dark *l*
- Vowel length contrasts (eg: the difference between the vowels in pitch and peach)
- Restrictions on consonant deletion (not omitting the sounds at the beginning and in the middle of words)
- Nuclear stress production/placement

Jenkins (2009) also defines some other typical features unnecessary for pronunciation intelligibility in ELF. These features are:

- Vowel quality except for the vowel sound in RP ‘fur’
- Consonants in clusters separated by the addition of vowels as well as vowels added at the ends of words (eg. Japanese English ‘product’ as peroducuto and Korean English ‘luggage’ as luggagi)
- Features of connected speech such as elision, assimilation, weak forms
- Consonant sounds *th* and dark *l*
- Word stress placement
- Pitch direction

It is hence argued that speakers engaging in ELF communication should be free to pronounce English with their own first language regional accent influence instead of the native speaker way, without being seen as making pronunciation errors (Jenkins, 2009). It is crucial to remember that there is a strong link between language and identity; even more that they are representatives of each.

As Ur (2009) states, it is possible to establish some general implications for ELF and English teachers. The user of English as a lingua franca is likely to be skilled in communicative and comprehension strategies. What’s more the fully competent user of ELF is a speaker with a wide vocabulary, accurate

grammar and easily understood accent. ELF users may or may not be originally native ones. Therefore, it is more useful to define the three circles in terms of language competency. In the centre would be the fully competent speakers, next the fairly competent and the outside the limited. The insights forming her study can be outlined as:

➤ The language to be taught may be one of the mainstream native varieties, a 'common core' syllabus, diverse models or a standard variety each bearing both advantages and disadvantages. Among all, the most probable one seems to me is a standard variety based on one of the main varieties or a combination but eliminating specific local idiom, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling.

➤ From the learner's perspective, implied inferiority of the mother tongue should be eliminated from the classroom removing 'try to think in English' or letting comparison with L1.

➤ The goal for the learner should be to achieve an internationally acceptable English level be an English-knowing bilingual. Reading any literature written in English should also be placed in teaching process.

➤ The model should be the English teacher who has achieved a proficient level of the target language.

➤ Language should be a vehicle for a wide variety of cultures. Learners need to be helped to develop intercultural competence.

➤ Materials should be redesigned in content, texts, characters, cultures.

It seems that the issue with ELF is largely attitudes rather than a linguistic one. On the other hand, some results do show linguistic issues as well. In Mollin's findings of 'The Euro-English Project' (2006) there were not meaningful differences in grammatical variables which are associated with ELF such as countability, invariable tag, distribution of relative pronouns *who* and *which*, inflectional marking of the third person singular etc. and a great deal of common features uniting all lingua franca speakers could not be reached. Mollin (2006) even argues that commonalities in ELF are not structurally meaningful rather a function of communication strategies.

Yet still, it is too early to discard ELF as it is an area that should be discussed precisely.

Under the lights of points stated so far it may be concluded that ELF is on the way to develop as a model. It focuses on intelligibility and aims to make learning easier. In addition, it does not promote errors. ELF is a more flexible view of language. At the same time, it holds a more pluralistic approach to competence (Leung,2005) and requires understanding of the need for multiple proficiencies in communication or perhaps a ‘multi-norm’, ‘post-method’ approach (Canagarajah, 2005). Additionally, patterns are more context depended and meaning driven. However, ELF has a long way ahead to implement minor pedagogical changes with policy making, planning, and restructuring the dominant paradigm. It is probable that a common ELF variety will be agreed upon and then undergone a standardization process, namely, selection, codification, elaboration, and acceptance.

As previously mentioned, ‘English as a Lingua Franca and some implications for English teachers’ (Ur, 2009) shows that the language to be taught, learner goals, the model for learners, and materials will undergo some changes in terms of content and paradigm. Cultural topics and intercultural competence will be of great importance to educate a fully competent speaker of English as a lingua franca.

With insights of ELF, in order to achieve language development via cultural issues and real communication with world’s non-native speakers of English, an e-Twin project has been launched in Fatih Sultan Mehmet (FSM) University. It was at first planned to be an extension of “Conversation Club” yet later decided to be sent to National Services and approved as a part of European Union Lifelong learning programmes.

As it is stated in the official website of eTwinning project; it offers a platform for staff working in a school in one of the European countries involved, to communicate, collaborate, develop projects, share, feel, and be part of most exciting learning community. The eTwinning action promotes school collaboration in Europe through the use of Information and

Communication Technologies (ICT) by providing support, tools, and services. The eTwinning Portal (www.etwinning.net) is the main meeting point and workspace for the action. The portal provides online tools for teachers to find partners, set up projects, share ideas, and work together. Launched in 2005 as the main action of the European Commission's eLearning Programme, eTwinning has been integrated in the Lifelong Learning Programme since 2007.

When it comes to our project with a school from Austria, a descriptive outline will be as below.



Participants: FSM University, Istanbul, Turkey

Höhere Bundeslehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe Türitz, Austria

Subject Areas: Foreign Languages, History, Music, Politics, Culture, Law, Literature, Religion, Education, Art...

Tools to be used: Video conference, Chat, E-mail, Project Diary, Twin Space, Other software

Aims: By the end of this project students will have;

- exchanged information about culture, education, everyday life, religion, history, customs and habits of their own societies.
- improved their English speaking skills at a reasonable level.
- practiced presenting their cultures, lifestyle, opinions, traditions and values in English.
 - discussed the mentioned topics with a partner.
 - made friends from a different culture.
- worked cooperatively both with their group members to present their topics or to request information and with their partner to build a better understanding of the differences and the similarities.
 - expressed themselves more effectively and become more fluent in English.

In order to grasp students' attention to the project, meaningful topics have been chosen especially focusing on real life contexts. Topics to elaborate are categorized under certain headings and currently being discussed on pre-determined dates. Each week requires a different topic, groups for Skype talk and partners' information exchange. The following is a summary of areas to focus on.

1.Week: General Information about country, town, school

2.Week: Lifestyle (Family:Size, Mother&Father Roles, Members' Responsibilities, Typical Day:Weekend/Weekday Activities, Life in the City/Life in the Country, Purpose in Life, Politeness and Habits)

3.Week: Food (Diet Habits, Desserts, Typical Drinks, Specialities, Meal Times, Worldly Known Tastes)

4.Week: Traditions and Religions (birth-death, clothes, religions' influence on life, weddings, holidays)

5.Week: History, Politics, Different Laws, Education and Health (elections, former civilisations, education system, prestigious jobs)

6.Week: Attractions, Famous Places and Architecture (historical attractions, natural attractions, architecture, winter and summer tourism and the most famous cities of Turkey and Austria)

7.Week: Music, Literature, Art, Dance, Movies

8.Week: Prejudice, stereotypes..

Through these specific topics listed, students will be engaged in a communicative, interaction oriented work process during which they are to discuss with their partners and present their own culture. The path to follow is:

- Students will work in groups of five. Each week, a specific group will be present in the video conference to discuss their ideas via Skype.
- Students will follow the schedule for topics, groups and dates.
- Students will have partners to exchange information and they may use different tools to communicate.
- As well as the ones in video conference, all of the students will send e-mails

- or chat with their partners on that week's topic.
- After each link, there will be a 30-minute discussion session to give students a chance of evaluation in their own groups.
- All students will have at least two video conference experiences and various numbers of mailing according to partner decisions.
- Voluntary students have the chance to observe the Skype talk every week even they will not make a presentation on that "CultureLink".
- There will be a reflection part at the end of the project with all students in their own countries.

It is thought that students' feedback is really important to give an idea about their perception both about ELF and cultural diversity in the world thus for the reflection part;

At the end of the program, students will choose one of the four options;

Writing a paper, reflective essay

Making a presentation

Recording a video or

Exhibiting pictures and drawings about their ideas, the process of project and new things they have raised awareness on.

Students actively take part in e-twin space for liveliness of the project. On its online portal, they may keep a project diary and share a variety of things. For each week's focus of attention, as admins Teachers send an e-mail to everyone in the project telling the topic and subheadings. Furthermore, admins create project activities on TwinSpace where the participants find online collaborative workspaces. Each activity includes a selection of applications such as; blog, file archive, forum, image gallery, wiki or web content. Activity blog is a space where members can record opinions, information etc on a regular basis. File archive is to upload, store and share files there is also another gallery to upload images. Forum is used to create new topics and exchange ideas and views; Wiki allows members to add and edit content like a joint diary. Web content is besides available to share page links or HTML. The ones to be utilised for each topic are selected by the

administrators. It is an ideal place for project members to get to know each other¹. Also on TwinSpace there are special sections like Teachers, Pupils and Chat which are only available to the targeted group. Both students and teachers effectively use them all.

All tools and topics taken into account, students become more aware of their self-identity and cultural identity while trying to tell about their culture, which is one of the project's main goals. Here I would like to attach some sample student works.

Austrian Eating Habits

Austrians eat 3-4 times a day. Only a few people have only two meals a day. Our main meal is the lunch. Lunchtime is the most important mealtime, followed by dinner and breakfast. Lunch and dinner are mostly hot meals.

The most Austrians eat their lunch at home, about 25% at school and 15% at their working place.

More and more Austrian people tend to eat healthy. They know that fruits and vegetables in combination with sport are important for their healthy lifestyle. Moreover, Austrians are used to eat daily at least one hot meal. 53% of the Austrian population dislikes smoking during mealtimes. We consider as impolite if people are munching, burping, reading or watching TV (if there are more people eating), speaking with a full mouth, playing with food and so on. Austrians are very hospitable and sociable. We like to welcome guests at our homes and have a nice talk with them. Austrian women like to cook and bake and offer their self-made delights to guests.

Types of meat: Austrians eat all types of meat like poultry, beef, pork, game (=animals living in the wood) and fish.

Wiener Schnitzel

Sachertorte

¹ So far, we have generally, formed file archives to upload any kind of files from PowerPoint slides to Word documents, forum to ask questions or share page links and image gallery both illustrating our topic and our meetings.



Schweinsbraten



Kaiserschmarren



Dirndl and leather trousers

In Austria we have a special dress code for traditional performances. For women there are dirndls and for men there are leather trousers. The dirndl consists of a blouse a special dress and an apron. The dirndls and leather trousers are very popular in Austria and they are going to be popular in other countries. We wear these special dresses not every day. Normally we wear it on traditional performances. In former days it was worn every day.



There are other special dresses in Austria, for example the hunters are dressed in green and have a special huntsman's hat.

Religion influences only older people's life. Every Sunday they go to the church. For most of the young people religion is not so important. For children makes the church organizes fun things. For example in the Christmas time, they can dress up as the holy three kings and write C+M+B on the door. This means "Christ should protect this house"! There are also a lot of things which brings luck. On New Year's Eve we get a lot of lucky charms from our friends. Some lucky charms are filled with chocolate. They look like horse shoes, chimney sweepers and pigs.

Weddings in Turkey

In Turkey you have to do a civil wedding. There is henna night in Turkish customs. Most people usually cry and sing some folk songs. While the bride has this henna, the groom may celebrate with his friends. In henna, the bride generally wears "bindallı" a special garment for our weddings.



Before wedding, there is a typical custom in Turkey. When two young people decide to marry they get their families' consent. This is often harder for the groom ☺ the groom comes to the bride's home with chocolates and flowers and the elder members of his family asks for the consent of bride's family. Then bride's father asks his daughter. After bride smiles to accept, she makes Turkish coffee and serves it to everyone, however there is an exception here, the groom's coffee is salty. If groom drinks all coffee, it means he will support his wife through marriage. And of course all grooms drink salty coffee without any doubt ☺ In today's Turkey this is just a formality but we still have this little ceremony.

For the household, families often help young couple. The bride's family is generally responsible for furniture and the groom's family helps with white appliances, that is, refrigerator, washing machine, dish washer etc.

We have different folk dances, “halay” is very popular for the henna and wedding. Weddings lasts for two days generally, one night henna, and the other day getting bride from her family’s home with “davul” zurna” or” mehter”

Davul-zurna



halay



In some of the weddings parents may hire a “mehter” to celebrate. You may find the link to see what it is under the heading of “forum”.



Guests present gold coins or money, jewellery in general. Also they may buy something necessary for the household.

People eat food like rice as seen below or they have some drinks together, the beverages and food is again from family's.



Apart from Word documents, students generally prepare PowerPoint Slides. They also share page links for that topic, example music and so on. All along, each student gains confidence in language use even I remember some students' telling for their partners' pronouncing some words in a different way or making some small grammar 'mistakes'. It is also apparent from the results of an eight-question survey, which was realised to assess students' attitudes towards ELF (see *Appendix 1*)

I think the project shows a successful implementation of ELF in language teaching. Describing one's culture as the triggering point and inherently international characters makes it an ELF sample. However, it is

also necessary to remember that students could communicate with a limited grammar, vocabulary and making so called pronunciation 'errors'. It is undoubtedly accepted that the aim to learn a new language is to communicate through a common language. So maybe we shouldn't worry too much about such points of accuracy in our teaching (Jenkins, 2006).

As well as eTwinning projects there are thousands of chances to make students meet people from different cultures and communicate in the world's common language. Social networks gains subtle importance here, especially Facebook events such as "Learn Languages Chatting on FB" where students meet peers to practice their languages. As it is stated on the event's wall;

To speak a new language, you have to SPEAK it! So, we are launching a "Conversation Club" right here on Facebook, where you will be able to speak a new language (or more), for FREE, anytime you want. It will be a lot of FUN. All you have to do is to JOIN the event, and you will get the ACCESS when it starts. Invite your friends to practice new languages together. We will invite as many speakers (of different languages) as possible. To make great progress, we need to get as many participants as possible.

Additional event information (according to the members questions):

- ✓ It's absolutely free. No additional payments required, you can only help us, inviting new members or share it to friends.
- ✓ It starts on the 2nd of March, but you'll be able to learn/speak anytime you want.
- ✓ All the event participants will receive additional information when it starts on the event page.
- ✓ It will be here on FB, and with more possibilities than on skype.
- ✓ All you need is a webcam, but it's not required.
- ✓ You can learn/speak any language the participants want.
- ✓ You'll be able to choose the languages that you want to speak, level and topics. So, it will be useful for beginners too.

Now, students shoot their own 'films' via a website; <http://www.xtranormal.com/>. It instantly turns your words into a 3D animated movie. Students decide on sets, scenes, actors, actresses, sound and voices. They may add gestures, facial expressions and movements to their characters or change camera angle. Yet, there is one feature, which is more important than the rest all. It is the facility that students may choose which voice and accent their characters will speak in. Without exception, all students have preferred to use an Indian, Japanese or an English of Outer Circle but native varieties to have a sense of how it will sound in a different accent and how

they could give meaning when they hear these new Englishes. So why shouldn't we give space to teach characteristics of different accents?

Although participants are not always accurate, they still manage a successful communication. It is possible to add more and more examples for the use of English as a Lingua Franca. In both the project and FB event, upon either talking to a German guest in one of the classes or shooting a movie, particles of talks remind the features of ELF. As Graddol (2007) states intelligibility is of primary importance rather than native-like accuracy and ELF focuses on pragmatic strategies required in international communication. Therefore, the target model of English is not a native speaker, who retains a national identity in terms of accent, and who also has the skills required to negotiate understanding with another non-native speaker. (Graddol, 2007)

Conclusion and Suggestions

In present paper, it is aimed to describe the position of English language as a lingua franca throughout the world and its would-be insights to language education. English is widely used and accepted in many fields, which makes it the most common language in the world. For a lingua franca that has been subject to too much debate, it is tried to determine its status in the classification of English language uses. So far, Kachru's model dividing English use into three but making this in a nation and nativeness based way has not been objected a lot. At a time when English is used as a lingua franca, it would not be very plausible to categorize its uses under headings which do not take its functions into account. ELF may only be seen as a register, but this is not contrary to the evidence that it has the potential to develop into a variety. With its widely accepted functions, ELF seems to cope with the resistance especially against its currently evolving form. As one of the problematic sides; pronunciation should be rethought and its teaching should be rearranged since learners are in need of ability to make sense of different accents which they generally encounter rather than RP or GA. The aim should be to pronounce intelligibly rather than native like. It is not fair to expect people to disregard their national identity while speaking in another language. Furthermore, the question whether it is possible to assign some characteristics to ELF has been elaborated as well, especially focusing on what ELF is and is not. In terms of general implications for ELF and English teachers, it is stated that the user of ELF is likely to be skilled in communicative and comprehension strategies. The fully competent user of ELF is a speaker with a wide vocabulary, accurate grammar and easily understood accent. In addition, a new competency based point of view to Kachru's tripartite has been stated. The language to be taught, learners' goals, the model for learners, materials and intercultural competence have been discussed as the outlining

features of ELF and it has been alleged that context dependent and meaning driven patterns of ELF are probable to undergo a standardization process in the near future. Some example ELF situations are examined from the aspects of content and culture. A detailed description for them has been given. Finally, the importance of intelligibility, making use of pragmatic strategies in international communication has been stated. Concrete pedagogical reflections on language teaching and classroom practices of ELF may be argued in later works.

What I suggest is that the primary aim for language learning should be to communicate successfully with people. Hence, it is not important if one sounds very native like when he cannot understand his interlocutor's Russian or German accent. Why shouldn't we give some room and priority to teach different accents for real interaction? Learners should be taught pragmatic strategies as well. In our current teaching paradigm in Turkey, learners are not taught effective strategies such as; indicating incomprehension, asking for clarification, paraphrasing, using formulaic language and checking or indicating understanding by summarizing the speaker's meaning or intention. Contextualized language items and samples of functional language will provide our students with competency in language use for real life communication. As learners are mostly exposed to English in seminars or simply giving directions to a tourist, why should we insist on teaching language mainly via reading texts some of which are not very meaningful for the learners in that specific country. Instead of focusing too much on teaching all grammar rules and pronunciation, what I believe is that it is better to focus on functional aspects of language like agreeing, disagreeing and stating one's opinion. As most of the learners have some pragmatic concerns like reading academic papers in their fields, making presentations in international seminars and doing business with foreigners, it will be more meaningful for them to learn how to communicate in certain daily life situations. If our students only become professionals at finding clues in order to determine whether a statement is True or False, and do not have enough time to practice language in class, it is not shocking to hear fair complaints like; "we know grammar and vocabulary but we cannot even give directions to a tourist." From my teaching and learning experiences, I know that materials giving information about different cultures and functional language make learning more interesting and purposeful. For example; in one of our Conversation Club meetings, we talked about gift giving customs in different countries and agreeing, disagreeing, (see *Appendix 2*), and students did their bests to learn and asked for more. Teachers should be more flexible and autonomous to design their own materials and choose the topics themselves. In a system where they are expected to cover a certain book in a given limited time, it is

not very possible to focus on pragmatic and communication strategies in detail. What’s more, though it is claimed that teachers should realise a communicative and interactive teaching, exams that students have to take still insists on accurate use of grammar rules and structures. As a result, we educate learners who know about the language, but cannot communicate through it. However, this does not mean we should leave all rules and create a language nobody understands. What it means is that our aim is not to raise English linguists but English speaking bilinguals and competent users of language. All student teachers who study at English Language Departments complete many credits with purposeful classes. They should be given the chance to utilise their knowledge like strategy teaching that they have learned in “Teaching Language Skills” classes.

To achieve a language learning which bears features listed, it puts too much responsibility on one teacher’s shoulders. Yet, now it is possible to create web contents and have many contributors. Teachers, learners, material designers, teacher trainers, testers and professors from all around the world or a country will shape language teaching together. Firstly, it may be tried to create a corpus on a national basis and it will be very useful as those who have the real experience of teaching in a country should be the most effective ones upon deciding on necessary language education. What has been suggested so far is open to debate. The important thing is to discuss, share our ideas then to reach a negotiation. The first thing to do is to adjust our attitudes towards ELF and change our minds that the way language teaching should be parallel to the most popular paradigm.

Appendix 1

| | strongly disagree | disagree | neither agree nor disagree | agree | strongly disagree |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|----------|----------------------------|-------|-------------------|
| It would be better if I could sound more like British or American. | | | | | |
| Pronunciation mistakes have led communication breakdown talking to my partner. | | | | | |
| Austrian friends are more advantageous in terms of pronunciation as their mother tongue is similar to English. | | | | | |
| I am not bothered about | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| mistakes as long as I understand what someone wants to say. | | | | | |
| It would be better if I sat at the computer and learned English by talking to people from different parts of the world. | | | | | |
| Native teachers of English are more effective to be a model. | | | | | |
| The content of language learning should focus on variety of cultures rather than British or American. | | | | | |
| Getting meaning across is more important than being wholly accurate in language use. | | | | | |

This mini survey has just given to assess whether there has been a change in students' attitudes towards 'ELF' as it is very normal to have a prejudice for it after having been taught English as a Foreign Language for years.

Appendix 2

ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS

1. What kind of gifts do you like to receive?
2. Who do you give gifts to most often?
3. Where is your favourite place to buy gifts?

WORDS THAT GO TOGETHER (gift giving / give up / make a suggestion)

1. She asks her mother to ----- about what gift to take to the party.
2. I don't want you to -----your studies because it's important to keep trying.
3. The ----- is over, so now all the guests have something to take home with them

DISCUSSION

1. What are the gift giving customs of your country? How do you present gifts? How do you receive gifts?
2. On what occasions do you usually give gifts to others? What is fun about gift giving? What is difficult?
3. What are the appropriate gifts for the following occasions: birth of a baby? Valentine's Day? Dinner with a boss? A child's birthday?

DID YOU KNOW?

. In the United States, people open gifts in front of the person who gives the gift

. In South Korea, cash is a popular gift for weddings. People put gifts of money in white envelopes.

. If a German invites you to his or her home, bring a gift such as chocolates or flowers.

. In Japan, before accepting a gift it is polite to refuse at least once or twice before finally accepting.

. In Japan, don't open the gift. If you open be careful that you don't tear the paper or cut the ribbon. Rewrap the gift.

. In Japan, giving 4 or 9 of anything is considered unlucky.

. In China, red ink symbolizes ending a relationship and in Japan funeral notices are printed in red.

CRITICAL THINKING

1. What are some reasons to give gifts? What shows thoughtfulness in a gift? What shows lack of thought? Why is important to give an appropriate gift for each occasion?
2. Why is important to know the customs of countries you travel? What happens when you don't know the customs?
3. Do you have a memory when you really needed to know some customs in that culture?

TOPICS TO DISCUSS

1. Breakfast is the most important meal of the day.
2. Alcohol should be illegal.

3. Studying grammar is more important than practising conversation skills.
4. Television is the leading cause of violence in today's society.
5. Dogs make better companions than cats.
6. Smoking should be permitted in public places.
7. Females are better students than males.
8. A parent shouldn't pierce a baby's ears.
9. Everyone should plan their own funeral.
10. Reading English is more difficult than writing English.
11. High school students should wear uniforms.
12. Life is better when you are laughing.
13. Family is the most crucial factor in shaping one's character.
14. English and Maths are more important subjects than Arts and Music.

| | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Stating an opinion | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• In my opinion...• The way I see it...• If you want my honest opinion....• According to Lisa...• If you ask me... |
| Asking for an opinion | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What's your idea?• What are your thoughts on all of this?• How do you feel about that?• Do you have anything to say about this?• What do you think?• Do you agree?• Wouldn't you say? |
| Expressing agreement | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• I agree with you 100 percent.• That's so true.• That's for sure.• You're absolutely right.• Absolutely.• That's exactly how I feel.• Exactly.• I'm afraid I agree with James. |

| | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have to side with Dad on this one. • No doubt about it. • (agree with negative statement) Me neither. • (weak) I suppose so./I guess so. • I was just going to say that. |
| Expressing disagreement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I don't think so. • (strong) No way. • I'm afraid I disagree. • (strong) I totally disagree. • (strong) I'd say the exact opposite. • Not necessarily. • That's not always true. • That's not always the case. • No, I'm not so sure about that. |

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Historical Progress Of Language Teaching

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Teaching language is one of the most important branches of education. Our world gets smaller day by day, because of the globalisation and great speed of the technological developments and tools take part in our lives almost every day. The use of internet and mass media caused our world be a village. In the village everybody recognises each other. Interaction and communication with each other are not avoidable. We can also see the international companies came into existence. The importance of the boundaries of the countries exists no more. So it gets clear itself that, how important interaction among the countries and people is. To be able to communicate with each other we need languages and to learn/teach them.

The spread of English and the related expansion of its utility generated keen interests in how to improve English language learning and teaching. Since language learning deals with issues regarding language and learning, it was quite common that ELT practitioners had to refer to the findings of linguistics and its branches like psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics to advance and broaden their understanding of English language learning and teaching. That is why, the first generation of ELT practitioners, such as the proponents of Audiolingualism and Situational language teaching have drawn heavily on the findings of linguistics to form new methods and concepts in ELT.

Before ELT, and searching the place of Teaching Grammar in Teaching Language, we think it is convenient to discuss that the Grammar and its place in any language is first. As we want to talk about Grammar, it immediately remains us linguistics and linguists. Linguists have been investigating the best way of describing knowledge and the grammatical system of a language for many years. What they have found is that the grammatical system is rule-based and that competent users of the language “know” these rules in some way. As a human, among our needs, I think communication, expressing yourselves, making the others understand you and the other people, comes first. To be able to achieve this goal, we need a language and to use it. So it is the grammar allows us to make completely

different meaningful sentences, in every language. In order to teach a language, we have some methods approaches and techniques.

Scientists claim that to distinguish a method from an approach and from a technique is confusing for teachers and researchers. An approach identifies the nature of the subject matter to be taught. It is the set of the hypotheses which cover theories related to the language and language teaching. Anthony defines approach as "the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified". There are various theoretical views of language and language learning, and from these views various approaches were developed (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Structural, functional, and interactional views are the examples for theories related to the nature of the language. Among these three, structural approach accounts language as "a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning". This approach considers the goal of language learning as "the mastery of elements of this system". Audi-Lingual method, Total Physical Response, and Silent Way are the methods which were developed as a result of this view.

Richard and Rodgers suggest that another view of language is functional, seeing language as a means of expression functional, seeing language as a means of expression of functional meaning. This theory puts the emphasis on semantic and communicative dimension of language rather than on the grammatical characteristics of language. Communicative Approach is an example of the methods which adopt this view.

Another view is interactional; it takes language "as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performances of social transactions between individuals" (Richards and Rodgers). According to this view the content of language teaching will be "specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction, or may be left unspecified, to be shaped by the inclinations of learners of learners as integrators".

Examples of views related to the nature of the language are: humanistic, behaviouristic, and cognitive. The supporters of the humanistic view believe that the success or failure of language teaching depends on "the extent to which one caters to the learner's affective domain". It is also claimed that "teaching should be made subservient

to learning”. Silent Way and Community Language Learning are examples of this approach.

Communicative Approach is the example of the methods which take some of their principles from the cognitive view. This view is “based on the belief that language learning is a process which involves active mental processes and not simply the forming of habits”. According to Richards, what is common in all methods is that they include “a set of specifications for how teaching should be accomplished derived from a particular theory of the nature of the language and second language learning. “Richards further claims that differences in the theories underlying the methods”. Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that “a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and practically realized in procedure”. At this point, we come across two other related terms: design and procedure.

To Richards and Rodgers, the term *design* answers the question of how to set up the instruction. It is the level of method analysis in which we consider the objectives of a method, content choice and organization of the syllabus, types of learning tasks and learning tasks and activities, roles of learners, teachers, and instructional materials

Procedure is defined as “the level at which we describe how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behavior” (Richards and Rodgers). Mainly, procedure focuses on how a method “handles the presentation, practice, and feedback phases of teaching”.

In relation to the above-mentioned terms, technique is “a procedure used in the classroom”. Anthony states that “a technique is implementational -- that which actually takes place in a classroom.” Drills, language games, role-plays are the examples of the techniques used in language classrooms.

To manage our goal of teaching/learning languages we use methods. Lots of language teaching methods appeared during the history, enable people to communicate in target language. Besides, in teaching each skill (reading, writing and so on) and fields (grammar, vocabulary and so on) many principles and techniques were invented and stated.

Since teaching grammar is included in teaching/learning language we want to write some comments about the theories on teaching/learning language and try to

profit from these ideas in teaching grammar. As we know by the history of language teaching, that there are a lot of researches having been done for centuries. In fact we can claim that they are as old as human being. As we stated before, we are social creatures and we have been interacting with each other, using languages during the whole history of human being. As a result of these searches and studies, lots of theories and methods have been found out, trying the base and the nature of teaching/learning process, and brought out a lot of techniques that we can use to teach/learn a target language more successfully.

A Brief Review of Methods and Approaches

a. Grammar -Translation Method

Grammar-Translation was dominant in the teaching of European and foreign languages from the 1840s to the 1940s. Stern (1987) explains that notwithstanding many attacks, this method continues to be widely used by many language teachers today. It was also realized that students would never use the target language, but mental exercises of learning would be beneficial anyway. So it was hoped that through study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with grammar of their native language that this familiarity would help them speak and write also their native language better (Diane Larsen-Freeman).

b. Direct Method

Stern explains that starting from 1850 until about 1900, particularly in Europe, language teachers and researchers sought for ways to make language teaching more effective. This method's goal is to provide the students how to use the target language to communicate. Since The Grammar-Translation Method was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively, The Direct Method became popular, (Diane Larsen-Freeman). In this method no translation is allowed and grammar rules are not taught directly. The target language is tried to be taught directly using target language, interacting with the students on any specified topic.

c. Audio-Lingual Method

Unlike Grammar-Translation and Direct Method, this method is mainly of American origin as a reaction to more "traditional" methods. Stern claims that Audio-

Lingual theory was, at that time, perhaps, the first language teaching theory to be derived from linguistics and psychology. This method was based on structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology which were previously explained.

d.Silent Way:

Silent Way is a prominent humanistic method and was devised by Caleb Gattegno. He is well known for his idea of using colors, numbers, and prepositions. In contrast to Audio-Lingual method which considers language learning as a product of habit formation, Silent Way takes it as a rule formation.

e.Suggestopedia

This method was developed by a Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator, Georgi Lazanov. Lazanov believed that there are psychological barriers which influence the ability of learning. This inefficiency results from the fear that they (the learners) will be unable to perform, or that they will fail. The use of mental capacity can be increased, and the learners can overcome these limitations by “the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music, and authoritative behavior of the teacher”.

f.Community Language Learning

This method was developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran who was a specialist in counseling techniques. Richards and Rodgers define counseling as a “person giving advice, assistance, and support to another who has a problem or is in some way in need.” This method is an example of a humanistic approach.

g.Total Physical Response Method

This method was developed by James Asher who believed that there was a parallelism between adult second language learning and child first language acquisition. Before starting to speak, a baby spends its time listening to the people around it. Even though nobody tells the baby to speak, when it is ready, s/he starts speaking. In parallel to this in Total Physical Response Method, emphasis is put on comprehension and the use of physical actions.

h.Communicative Approach

Richards and Rodgers state that communicative language teaching takes its roots

from the changes in the British Language teaching tradition which goes back to the late 1960s. While being introduced it is said, it is clearly realized that originators of the most of the methods discussed in that presentation, take as their primary goal enabling students to communicate using the target language. Many of the methodologists emphasize the acquisition of linguistic structures or vocabulary. Adherents of the communicative Approach, acknowledge that structures and vocabulary are important. Students may know the rules of language usage, but will be unable to use the language.

i. Natural Approach

In 1977, Tracy Terrell outlined "a proposal for a 'new' philosophy of language teaching which he called Natural approach". This was an attempt to present a new approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages based on a new theory of a new language. Later on, Krashen and Terrell collaborated on forming a theoretical rationale for the Natural Approach, utilizing Krashen's theory (1981) of second language acquisition. The book in which they gathered the principles and practices of natural approach contains theoretical sections outlining the basic theories on which the Natural approach is based and also sections on implications of these theories for the classroom situation.

As we have dug to find out the place of teaching grammar in language teaching methods, approaches and techniques, we have got the point that all of them conveys the importance of grammar, and says that grammar will never be able to be separated from language. Although they state the importance of grammar, none of them explains the exact ways, methods of teaching grammar, especially in prep classes of universities and special colleges where the educational language is English, and for skills (grammar, reading, writing, listening/spoken) of language taught separately. Again even all methods of teaching language have taken into consideration how to make language learning enjoyable and stated the importance of the students enjoying themselves while learning language not fearing of it, but they didn't focus on grammar teaching at all. And as everybody knows languages are taught in prep schools mostly, as the four skills, taught separately. Thus it gets clear how important teaching grammar and making grammar teaching enjoyable are. And

this topic requires a deep analysis in the future studies

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Meritocratic Discourse: Research Framework

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Abstract

This paper presents a reflection on the process of doing critical meritocratic discourse research. Examples from a current project on the discursive construction of ‘meritocrat’ identity are used to illustrate how major challenges inherent in undertaking meritocratic discourse research can be addressed. These involved initial justifications of discourse theory as a research framework, research design and data collection in order to contribute to broader debates about age, gender and social status.

Keywords: meritocracy; merit, meritocratic discourse; meritocrat.

Introduction

The today’s discourse analysis may be characterized in terms of vivid formation not only as a new scientific paradigm, but also as the new domain of disciplinary methods and theories. The latter are now characterized both in terms of their theoretical fragmentation and on the other side in terms of escalation of discourse as a methodological basis for integrated research. The article goal is to contribute to a better understanding of the modern discourse theories which have the potential for solving some of the acute theoretical problems that emerge due to the specificity of such phenomena as the discursive and communicative turn in humanities, the information society and the status of the subject of social and cultural research. We believe that the conceptual category of meritocratic discourse provides the basis for development of effective new models of interdisciplinary research which become more important in the situation of development of internal negative processes in the present-day humanities and social sciences.

The research is intended to contribute to existing knowledge by investigating an under-researched topic in the discourse literature – ‘meritocrat’ identity and its implications in meritocratic discourse. Firstly, applying a variety of methods permits a greater understanding of the complexity of processes of social construction of ‘meritocrat’ identity and its implications for power relations between different groups in

a specific socio-economic context. Secondly, the sampling approach adopted leads to an exploration not only of the discursive processes of construction of 'meritocrat' identity, but also of its suppression in meritocratic discourse. Thirdly, the study illustrates the value of using discourse analysis to research the processes involved in the development of government policy which has implications for the amount of public recognition and government attention and assistance certain groups would receive.

Meritocracy and Merit: Notions

New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy (2005) defines meritocracy as "*a government or society in which citizens who display superior achievement are rewarded with positions of leadership. In a meritocracy, all citizens have the opportunity to be recognized and advanced in proportion to their abilities and accomplishments. The ideal of meritocracy has become controversial because of its association with the use of tests of intellectual ability, such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test, to regulate admissions to elite colleges and universities. Many contend that an individual's performance on these tests reflects his or her social class and family environment more than ability*". The idea of meritocracy as a social system in which "merit or talent is the basis for sorting people into positions and distributing rewards" (Scully, 1997: 413) has received great attention since the term was popularized in 1958 by Young (1958).

In fact the term meritocracy by itself was coined by Michael Young in his critical social satire entitled 'The rise of meritocracy' (1958). Here, Young defines merit as an individual characteristic constituting of 'intelligence and effort...(I + E = M)' (Young 1958, p. 94). Young links the emergence of a society based on 'the principle of selection by merit' (Young 1958, p. 24) that replaced a society where status was 'ascribed by birth' (Young, 1958, p. 19) to changes in the British occupational structure.

Then a problem with 'merit' definition arises. McNamee and Miller (2004) think that an individual merit is generally viewed as a combination of factors including innate abilities, working hard, having the right attitude, and having high moral character and integrity. When factors associated with individual "merit" are related to income and wealth, it turns out that these factors are often not as uniquely individual or as influential as many presume. Most experts point out, for instance, that "intelligence," as measured by IQ tests, is partially a reflection of inherent intellectual capacity and

partially a reflection of environmental influences. It is the combination of capacity and experience that determines “intelligence.” Even allowing for this “environmental” caveat, IQ scores only account for about 10% of the variance in income differences among individuals (McNamee and Miller, 2004; Fisher, 1996). Since wealth is less tied to achievement than income, the amount of influence of intelligence on wealth is much less. Other purportedly innate “talents” cannot be separated from experience, since any “talent” must be displayed to be recognized and labeled as such (Chambliss 1989). There is no way to determine for certain, for instance, how many potential world-class violinists there are in the general population but who have never once picked up a violin. Such “talents” do not spontaneously erupt but must be identified and cultivated.

According to McNamee and Miller (2004) applying talents is also necessary. Working hard is often seen in this context as part of the merit formula. Heads nod in acknowledgment whenever hard work is mentioned in conjunction with economic success. Rarely is this assumption questioned. Neither of these measures of “hard” work is directly associated with economic success. In fact, those who work the most hours and expend the most effort (at least physically) are often the most poorly paid in society. By contrast, the really big money in America comes not from working at all but from owning, which requires no expenditure of effort, either physical or mental. In short, working hard is not in and of itself directly related to the amount of income and wealth that individuals have.

Next story about attitudes here is mixed as well (McNamee and Miller, 2004). First, it is not clear which particular mix of attitudes, outlooks, or frames of mind are associated with economic success. The kind of mental outlook that would be an advantage in one field of endeavor, may be a disadvantage in another field of endeavor. A different set of “proper attitudes,” for instance, may be associated with being a successful artist than being a successful accountant. Second, the direction of influence is not always clear.

An example of the difficulty in discerning the impact and direction of these influences is reflected in the “culture of poverty” debate. According to the culture of poverty argument (McNamee and Miller, 2004), people are poor because of deviant or pathological values that are then passed on from one generation to the next, creating a

“vicious cycle of poverty.” According to this perspective, poor people are viewed as anti-work, anti-family, anti-school, and anti-success. That is, if you are desperately poor, you may be forced to be present oriented. If you do not know where your next meal is coming from, you essentially have no choice but to be focused on immediate needs first and foremost. By contrast, the rich and middle class can “afford” to be more future oriented since their immediate needs are secure. Similarly, the poor may report more modest ambitions than the affluent, not because they are unmotivated, but because of a realistic assessment of limited life chances. In this sense, observed differences in outlooks between the poor and the more affluent are more likely a reflection of fundamentally different life circumstances than fundamentally different attitudes or values.

Finally, McNamee and Miller (2004) challenge the idea that moral character and integrity are important contributors to economic success. Although “honesty may be the best policy” in terms of how one should conduct oneself in relations with others, there is little evidence that the economically successful are more honest than the less successful. The recent spate of alleged corporate ethics scandals at such corporations as Enron, WorldCom, Arthur Andersen, Adelphia, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Duke Energy, Global Crossing, Xerox as well as recent allegations of misconduct in the vast mutual funds industry reveal how corporate executives often enrich themselves through less than honest means. White-collar crime in the form of insider trading, embezzlement, tax fraud, insurance fraud and the like is hardly evidence of honesty and virtue in practice. And neither is the extensive and sometimes highly lucrative so-called “irregular” or “under the table” economy—much of it related to vice in the form of drug trafficking, gambling, pornography, loan sharking, or smuggling. Clearly, wealth alone is not a reflection of moral superiority.

Advocates of meritocracy stress that in true meritocratic systems everyone has an equal chance to advance and obtain rewards based on their individual merits and efforts, regardless of their gender, race, class, or other non-merit factors. In the United States, for example, survey research repeatedly reveals that Americans endorse the meritocratic ethos. Most believe that meritocracy is not only the way the system *should* work but

also the way the system *does* work (Kluegel and Smith, 1986; Ladd, 1994; Ladd and Bowman 1998).

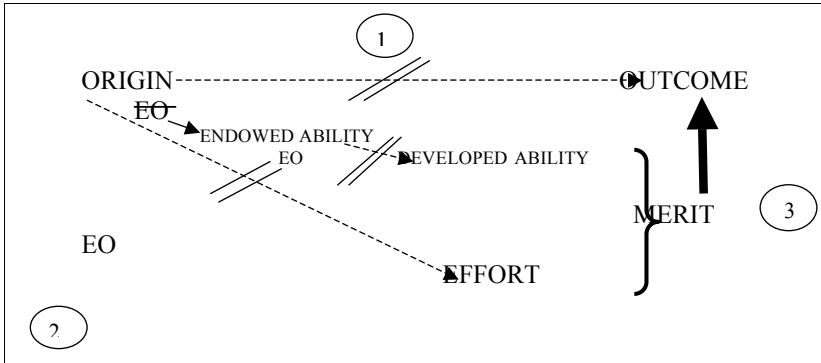
Because meritocracy has been culturally accepted as a fair and legitimate distributive principle in many advanced capitalist countries and organizations (Scully, 1997; McNamee and Miller, 2004), scholars have sought to assess the extent to which equal opportunity and meritocratic outcomes have been successfully achieved in society (Arrow, Bowles, and Durlauf, 2000; Dench, 2006).

Anna Zimdars (2007, p. 12) evaluates what meritocracy means in practice to select undergraduate students based on merit. Unfortunately, beyond the ultimately narrow consensus that we wish to live in a society where advancement depends on personal effort and ability, scholars, theorists and practitioners disagree on how exactly to operationalise merit (Sen, 2000: 5, Arrow, 2000: ix, Schwartz, 2004: 2). One may even argue that meritocracy is ‘essentially contested’, that is, ‘the proper use of [the concepts] inevitably involves endless disputes about their proper uses on the part of their users’ (Freedman 2003). Schwartz’s comprehensive review of access to higher education illustrates the contested nature of the term merit in relation to making actual admissions decisions:

‘Everyone agrees that applicants should be chosen on merit: the problem arises when we try to define it. Merit could mean admitting applicants with the highest examination marks, or it could mean taking a wider view about each applicant’s achievements and potential’ (Steven Schwartz, 2004: 2)

On the one hand, Steven Schwartz seems to suggest that the ‘highest examination marks’ is one possible operationalisation of merit. On the other hand, the idea that a wider view (contextual factors) is needed leads to the contrasting implication; namely that examination marks alone are not an appropriate proxy of an applicant’s merit. Figure 1 is designed by Anna Zimdars (2007, p. 15) to aid the understanding of Schwartz’s observation by mapping the theoretical normative working of the meritocracy by showing the relationship between social origin, ability, effort, merit and outcomes.

Figure 1.1: The theoretical model of meritocracy



Key: **EO** Equal Opportunities required; \neq does not affect,

EO Equal Opportunities not given; 1,2,3 points of empirical study

The figure shows that in meritocracies, there is a legitimate link (3) between merit and outcomes. An example of an outcome would be labour market destination – the most rewarding or powerful employment positions, or both, should be awarded to the most meritorious individuals. Merit, however, should normatively not be influenced by social origin. When Schwartz states that wider considerations might be necessary to generate the outcome ‘university admission’ for applicants, he is saying that educational attainment as a proxy of merit contains measurement errors because there is in fact a link (2) between social origin characteristics and merit. This could mean that the same examination attainment achieved in different social or schooling contexts may actually be the result of different underlying levels of ability and effort. The same mark may therefore hide differences in latent ability or ‘potential’ because not everyone had the same opportunities to shine (Zimdars, 2007: 16).

This brings the discussion to the concept of equal opportunities and merit is viewed as a property relative to opportunities, which is a precondition for the smooth and uncontroversial working of meritocracy-based society. It means that ‘people with the same academic aptitude or ability should be given equal access to advantaged sectors of education’ (Heath, 2006: 3). Factors that might affect how an individual’s

efforts translate into achievement should be ‘regulated as to neutralize external influences’ (Habermas, 1976: 81). Nonetheless, there is a large body of empirical work that shows that actual chances to succeed in education are structured by social background factors (Breen and Goldthorpe, 1999).

Background: The ‘Meritocrat’ As an Object of Study

Over the last ten years research on meritocracy has undergone a dramatic expansion. Yet much of it presents meritocracy as essentially problematic, focusing either on the social problems of social outsiders or poor people as a social (and economic) burden (Arber & Ginn, 1991) on the rest of society which Butler (1989) argues is evidence of a new and disturbing ageism towards the socially unsecured (McNamee and Miller, 2004). According to the ideology of the American Dream, America is the land of limitless opportunity in which individuals can go as far as their own merit takes them. According to this ideology, you get out of the system what you put into it. Getting ahead is ostensibly based on individual merit, which is generally viewed as a combination of factors including innate abilities, working hard, having the right attitude, and having high moral character and integrity. Americans not only tend to think that is how the system should work, but most Americans also think that is how the system does work (Huber and Form 1973, Kluegel and Smith 1986). McNamee and Miller challenge in book “The Meritocracy Myth” (2004) the validity of these commonly held assertions, by arguing that there is a gap between how people think the system works and how the system actually does work. They refer to this gap as “the meritocracy myth,” or the myth that the system distributes resources—especially wealth and income—according to the merit of individuals. There are a variety of ways to depict America’s unequal distributions of income and wealth. Income refers to how much one earns and wealth refers to how much one owns. In general, the more wealth one has, the more likely that wealth derives from sources of ownership that tend to appreciate in value. Net worth refers to the difference between assets (what one owns) and liabilities (what one owes). Net worth is an accurate measure of what one is really “worth” (McNamee and Miller, 2004).

Such concerns have also stimulated interest in research on meritocrats and the labour market. Trends such as meritocrats’ social roles in the modern society have

heightened concerns about whether societies need them. The meritocrats are also recognized as increasingly heterogeneous with substantial differences in socio-economic status, employment patterns and stability, education, ethnicity and gender (Hayes, 2012). More fundamentally, the definition of 'who' is a 'meritocrat' is ambiguous and contingent. Meritocrats put all of their energy into working hard and getting the right answers to the questions at hand – and no energy into acquiring the power to implement those answers. Meritocrats are good corporate citizens but often end up being "eaten" by co-workers who are more politically savvy and power-oriented. Sometimes they haven't made the shift from the educational setting (where simply getting the right answer gets you the highest grade) to a world in which that right answer has to be "sold." These people aren't necessarily new to the business world – they may be in their 40s or 50s – but they're still operating under the assumptions that haven't worked since they left school (Husen, 1974; LaVaque-Manty, 2009). Meritocrats are usually less effective than they might be because they fail to persuade people of the value of their ideas. They may even pride themselves on their refusal to sully themselves by "playing politics." In the worst-case scenario, they're the people who are let go in a downsizing because they haven't developed and maintained a contact network that would help upper management see their value. They also have a more difficult time finding new work for the same reason. This is a very common and very dangerous problem (Kingston, 2006).

From a multi-disciplinary review of literature (economics, labour market research, sociology and cultural studies) some specific research questions were developed to study the construction of 'meritocrat' identity. They related to exploring the versions of 'meritocrat' identity that were being discursively constructed, identifying those who were being targeted by these constructions (du Gay 1996), identifying the social actors involved in this discursive construction of 'meritocrat' identity and exploring the reasons for their involvement, and examining the implications of such constructions of identity. Much of the existing research on meritocracy and meritocrats has focused on the content of age-based stereotypes, their cultural meaning and the outcomes or material effects of the marginalisation of meritocrats in the labour market. Yet no research had explicitly addressed the issue of the processes of identity

construction and this was the potential contribution of discourse theory: coupled with a critical orientation it would permit an exploration of the processes of constructing social identity and its political implications in relation to the labour market.

Discourse theory as a research framework

There are many definitions of discourse but it can be understood as referring to a group of statements which provide a language for talking about a topic and a way of producing a particular kind of knowledge about a topic. Thus the term refers both to the production of knowledge through language and representation and the way that knowledge is institutionalized, shaping social practices and setting new practices into play (du Gay 1996: 43).

While approaches to discourse analysis also differ widely, they share some common characteristics: the use of naturally occurring, unedited text or talk as data, attention to the significance and structuring effects of language, a focus on the local and global context of discourse, a focus on discourse as social practice, that is, how discourse users enact or resist social and political structures, an attention to the ways in which social members interpret, categorise and construct their social experience and the use of interpretive and reflexive styles of analysis. Beyond these general similarities, discourse research varies in its focus and approach, for example, between descriptive or critical studies (van Dijk 1997). Descriptive studies explore the discursive processes of social construction whereas critical studies focus explicitly on the reproduction of power relationships and how structures of inequality (Fairclough and Wodak 1997), such as class, race and gender, are reproduced in discourse (Fairclough 1995). In this context, social texts can be used as empirical data that ‘articulate complex arguments about race, class and gender in contemporary life’. It follows then, that struggles for power and control underlie the creation and dissemination of such texts (Phillips and Hardy 1997). Texts provide discursive cues to these power relationships and thus, through textual analysis, the power implications of the different constructions of social identity can be studied.

The construction of ‘meritocrat’ identity in meritocratic discourse

From the perspective of discourse analysis, identity is an ongoing process accomplished through social interaction, particularly language and communication. This

is not to imply that people or objects do not have a physical or material existence but that the social meaning of this existence is discursively generated, rather than inherent and internal to the person or object itself (Burman and Parker 1993; du Gay 1996). Such constructivist view of social identity has implications for research design and methods: if social identities are seen as socially accomplished, then their relevance to social action can only be determined within the context in which they are accomplished (West and Fenstermaker 1995).

Meritocratic discourse constructs social identity of “meritocrat” (Hayes, 2012) by defining groups, group’s interests, their position within society and their relationship to other groups (van Dijk 1997). Social identity acts as an interpretive frame for social action (du Gay 1996) by indicating to people what they should think about a particular issue or group of people and in doing so, it functions as a mechanism through which collective group interests are played out in the social practices of individuals (van Dijk 1997). Language users engage in text and talk not just as individuals but also as members of multiple social categories and they construct or accomplish and display these social identities in discourse (van Dijk 1997). However such constructions are never fixed or stable as they are the outcome of a complex and contradictory interplay of discourses. Thus social identity may be fragmented, ambiguous and subject to continuous reproduction through political, social and discursive processes (Hardy, 1999).

Critical discourse analysis has been used to study social identity because ‘meritocrat’ identity reproduces and sustains power relationships between different social groups. Through discursive strategies of group definition and differentiation, ‘meritocrat’ identity is constructed through position and relation to other groups. Meritocratic discourse like any discourse is always connected with one’s own identity, that is to say, with the question ‘how do we see ourselves?’ The construction of identity is a process of differentiation, a description of one’s own group and simultaneously a separation from the ‘others’ (Wodak 1996: 126).

While ‘meritocrat’ identity has been rarely examined (Kingston, 2006; Hayes, 2012), the construction of gender and racial identity has been the subject of critical discourse research broadly referred to as ‘discourses of difference’ (Wodak 1996). For

example, gender studies research has explored how language use and behaviour constructs, reproduces and resists masculine and feminine identities, gender prejudice and gender-based inequalities in employment (Mumby and Clair 1997).

Thus the current research project attempts to extend this existing ‘discourses of difference’ tradition to research another body-based system of social categorization – ‘meritocrat’ identity. The discursive construction of social ‘meritocrat’ identity occurs through the complex interaction and convergence of various discursive moves, resources, and strategies. In recognition of this complexity, the research design for this project has deliberately attempted to apply a range of discourse analytic methods to the object of study, notwithstanding the widely acknowledged labour-intensive nature of data analysis (Burman and Parker, 1993).

There is also a range of initial findings illustrating the relational nature of ‘meritocrat’ identity. ‘Meritocrat’ identity is planned to be constructed in relation to a number of other groups including other social actors in the labour market institutional domain and other ‘disadvantaged groups’ in the labour market. These findings have confirmed the complexity of the processes of social construction as well as the need to consider multiple, overlapping social identities in research on ‘meritocrat’ identity.

In the pilot study, it was found that social actors such as ‘labour market service providers’ constructed versions of ‘meritocrat’ identity consistent with a favourable version of their own ‘identity’ and role within the labour market system and the meaning of labour market reforms. Critical linguistics was used to connect the use of a ‘meritocracy discourse’ and distinct lexical patterns to support these versions of identity (‘meritocrats’ as ‘executives’ or ‘co-workers’). This finding illustrates how close textual analysis enriches an understanding of the processes by which broader institutional structures and systems are maintained (Kingston, 2006).

The assertion that social identities are constructed implies that the meanings of ‘meritocrat’ identities are not a given but are contingent on history and context. Kingston (Kingston, 2006: 118) offered the example of “the very bright hardworking executive who alienates co-workers because of repeated failure to acknowledge others’ contributions” of the twentieth century, who would today be constructed as “meritocrats.” Contextual influences may also shift the meaning of meritocratic identity

for individuals. For example, the experience of being an outstanding test taker at school who is consistently rewarded for getting the highest score or later the equities analyst at a bank but having a naive reliance on the authority of objective, measurable facts, never accepting that in the real world, ideas have to be sold, negotiated, and shaped to meet political and organizational realities. This type of a person can seethe when people challenge his analysis of a company or ignore his recommendations, especially when they act only on their gut feel for the market. Likewise, when less bright but more politically savvy peers are promoted ahead of him, the person can be infuriated and his meritocratic behavior might sabotage the career.

Finally, to assert that social identities are enacted is to recognize that one creates identification through verbal performance and in negotiation with one's interactants. Thus, one may emphasize one aspect of identity (e.g., gender) in one context and emphasize another aspect (e.g., ethnicity) in another context. In fact, as much of the literature on language code shifting reveals, one may emphasize or de-emphasize various aspects of identity even within the course of one conversation (Blom & Gumperz, 1972).

Conclusions

Discourse analysis has some inherent challenges but the current study has shown that these are not insurmountable, although the strategies adopted will vary according to the particular characteristics of the research site, textual data and research questions. Consistent with the broader tradition of discourse analysis, the current study tries to adopt reflexive and interpretive styles of analysis (Burman and Parker 1993) while attempting to systematically manage the collection and analysis of textual data. The paper also reviews a range of studies concerned with social ('meritocrat') identity in meritocratic discourse. This study illustrates the potential of discourse research to contribute to broader debates about political struggles for recognition, unemployment and other current issues of socioeconomic and political importance such as concern over ageing populations and the distribution of work. More specifically it highlights the connections between the discursive construction of social identity, the processes of policy development and their potential affects on outcomes for different groups, connections which have yet to be fully explored in discourse research. Following on

pioneering works in this area, social ('meritocrat') identity analysts have shown that written discourse serves as a vehicle for expressing and constructing many facets of social identity, no less than does speech, it may contain linguistic markers by which writers convey ethnic, role, and gender identity. Many studies of variation in written language are consistent with this contemporary notion of social identity.

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The Falling Terminal Juncture as an Intonation Difficulty for Language Teachers and Demonstration by Computer

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Abstract

The term juncture signifies certain of pause that differ in duration as long or short, occurring after various types of utterance endings in form of rising, falling, sustained, rise-fall, or fall-rise cases, which are accepted as suprasegmental phonemes in intonation. Because they indicate pauses at the end of phrases, clauses, and sentences, they are called the *terminal junctures*. One of these junctures is the falling terminal juncture is a type of juncture that marks the end of utterances. Its functions and usages are mostly confused by a great majority of Turkish English teachers and students. Since there are other cases types of junctures that mark the ends of utterances in connected speech, a serious confusion of meaning contamination takes place. For example, in the sentence “*Are you going to the library*” the end is accompanied by a sharp rise of pitch at the end of final syllable. The same question form can take place as “*You are going to the library?*” without any change in the syntactic level whose meaning is different from the first one. The understanding and practice of this kind of meaning change is not noticed by many teachers and students of English. The **purpose** of this presentation is to explore the recognition and application power of Turkish English language teacher education students of English. There will be a pretest administered to them before they have no idea of the problem. The **method** comes from the error hunt approach in relation to contrastive intonation analysis. There will be the methods of **audacity programs** and **text to speech lab** applications by computer to demonstrate the sample sentences in at least near native-like speech. After an intense study teaching and application of three hours on the problem, a post-test with different

questions will be administered to the students. The **findings** will be discussed in the conclusion part.

Keywords: suprasegmental phoneme, juncture, terminal junctures, falling terminal juncture, intonation

Introduction

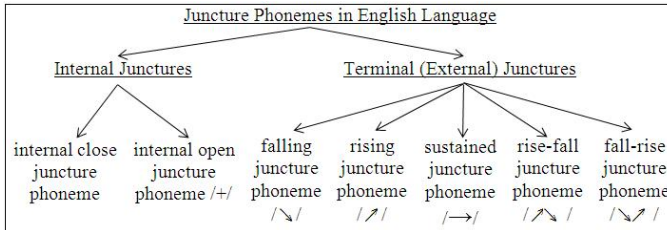
The term "terminal" indicates a sense of relationship between successive sounds, syllables words and word groups in speech, marking the "boundary tones in a mode of relationship between or among consecutive sounds, or end of phrases, clauses or sentences. Even though linguists defined the term juncture in different ways, it is a transition from a segmental phoneme to another, from a morpheme to another, from a thought group of words to another. This terminal juncture phoneme was symbolized as /#/ before (Trager and Smith 1951), but now it is symbolized as /□/. **This is a terminal juncture that indicates a fading away of pitch of voice of an utterance into silence at the end of a sentence**

The falling terminal juncture is the commonest type of suprasegmental phoneme that is encountered in the structure of current English language. The falling terminal juncture in English intonation is symbolized by a sign like /↓/. Since it marks the ends of utterances, it often appears before silence. The phonemes of junctures or terminals are classes of ways a speaker makes transitions from one speech segment to the next (Paterno, 2006: 7). Falling terminal juncture with the accompaniment of falling contour can be encountered in 51.2 % of all utterances in the intonation of English language (Dretzke 1988: 93, Crystal, 1969: 225). Therefore, its phonemic status as a suprasegmental phoneme must be explored and analyzed so as to establish tangible information especially for the use of teachers-on-the-job and students of English who will be prospective teachers.

The types of juncture phonemes in English language

Pike (1945) and Trager and Smith (1951) explained the existence of close and open internal junctures, falling, rising, and sustained terminal junctures in

English. Roach (2009) and Skandera & Burleigh (2005) added the fall-rise and rise-fall terminal junctures. Altogether, the following chart is used to indicate the existing junctures of English language:



Each of these juncture phonemes functions as meaning differentiating units whose specific precepts must be mastered by the teachers-on-the-job and students of English language education for the sake of professionalism. The falling terminal juncture phoneme is the commonest suprasegmental phoneme whose certain usages challenge the Turkish people. Since the position of juncture (or word boundary) can cause a perceptual difference, and therefore potential misunderstanding, it is usually recommended that learners of English should practice making and recognizing such differences (Roach, 2009).

The falling terminal juncture as a phoneme

The falling terminal juncture functions as a phoneme, which means that it is able to change the meaning, grammatical category of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. This fact can be typified by minimal pair tests; simply by changing the juncture tone from falling to raising the possibility of changing a statement to question is created. Then, difference in falling and rising intonation can cause difference in meanings.

At the word level:

sorry. /sorry \surd / One word statement.

Sorry? /sorry \surd / A question form

At the sentence level:

She was unable to sleep. /She +was +unable +to +sleep \underline{C} / A statement

Was she unable to sleep? /Was+ she+ unable +to +sleep C / A question

These shoes are uncomfortable. /These+shoes+are+uncomfortable \underline{C} /A

declarative statement Are these shoes uncomfortable? /Are

+these+shoes+uncomfortable C / A yes/no interrogative

The mayor was not there. /The+mayor +was +not+ there \underline{C} / A declarative statement

The mayor was not there? /The+mayor+was +not+ there C / A Yes/ No interrogative

You told them the truth, didn't you? The speaker is **UNSURE**.

/You +told +them +the +truth \square didn't+ you C /

You told them the truth, did you? The speaker is **SURE**.

/You+ told +them +the truth \square did + you \underline{C} /

As it is seen in the above mentioned example, the **unsureness** of the speaker is indicated by a rising terminal juncture ($/C$ /) while his or her **sureness** is shown by a falling terminal juncture ($/\underline{C}$ /) accompanied by a fading of voice downwards, and this very fact demonstrates that rising terminal juncture ($/C$ /) and falling terminal juncture ($/\underline{C}$ /) are two distinct suprasegmental phonemes in English phonology because they change the meaning of utterances.

The same incident takes place in the following minimal pair:

You aren't from Argentina, are you? The speaker is **UNSURE**.

/You+ aren't +from +Argentina \square are+ you C /

You aren't from Argentina, are you? The speaker is **SURE**.

/You aren't+ from +Argentina \square are +you \underline{C} /

The features of the falling terminal juncture phoneme

Falling terminal juncture, also known as the double cross juncture, is associated with a drop in pitch and a falling off or trailing away of the voice into silence (Prasad, 2008:39). It is related with declarative statements which

are conveyed acoustically by an audible fall in fundamental frequency on last syllable. As Paterno (2006: 27) indicates it is used to signal the end of an utterance. In addition, it is further characterized by a rapid fadeaway of the voice into silence and by a lengthening of the preceding word with pitch level. It must be noted that according to Roach (2009: 116) the context in which the words occur almost always make it clear where the boundary comes, and then juncture information is then redundant.

The common patterns of its use

Functions of junctures in English are many-folded. Childs (2003:41-423) summarizes the common patterns and the use of falling terminal juncture as follows:

1. First things first, it takes place in the most common kind of sentence which is the declarative sentence, or statement. While the pitches accompany the utterance, the pitch /3/ phoneme begins the most important with a rise in the voice and falls down with a falling juncture to terminate the utterance in a fadeoff voice. This manner of intonation contour can be audibly heard in the following sentences:

She dyes her hair to conceal the gray.

/She + dyes + her + hair + to+ conceal+ the gray□/

That sounds like a good/great idea.

/That+ sounds+ like+ a +good+ idea□/

William and David are identical twins.

/William +and +David +are+ identical twins□/

Many people's sense of identity comes from their job.

/Many+ people's +sense+ of +identity +comes +from +their +job□/

In the story, the queen disguises herself as an old woman.

/In+ the+ story □ the+ queen+ disguises+ herself +as+ an+ old +woman□/

2. In English information questions: in questions beginning with **Who, What, When, Where, Why, How, Which, Whose**, etc. In such questions, the pitch of the voice goes up on the first important word (usually the question word) and goes down on the last syllable accompanied by a falling juncture. The following examples are taken from Longman Dictionary of American English: 2004:

Who locked the door?

/Who+ locked+ the + door_↓/

Who'd know where I can get tickets?

/Who'd + know+ where+ I + can+ get + tickets_↓/

"Who is that?" "That's Amy's brother." /Who+ is +that_↓ that's+ Amy's+ brother_↓ /

What are you doing?

/What+ are +you+ doing_↓/

What have they named the baby?

/What +have +they +named+ the +baby/

I didn't think it would be like this." "What do you mean?"

/I+didn't +think+ it +would+ be +like +this_↓What do you mean_↓/

When are we leaving?

/When+ are +we +leaving_↓/

Which house does Tom live in?

/Which+ house+ does +Tom live in_↓/

How long have you been here?

/How+ long +have+ you +been+ here_↓/

Whose jacket is this?

/Whose+ jacket+ is+ this_↓/

Why don't you try this one?

/Why +don't+ you+ try+ this +one_↓/

Passages:

1. All adults have a title. Use a title with the last name. Don't use a title with the first name. For man we use Mr. and the last name. Mr. Redment, Mr. Arnello.

2. Use the question word 'where' to ask location. Where is the copier? It's in the office.

3. Cinderella

This is the story of a kind and beautiful girl. She lived with her father and mother. They were very happy. Then, one day, her mother died. She was very sad. A year later, her father married again. The girl's new stepmother was very unkind. She had two daughters. They wore beautiful clothes, but they were not beautiful or kind. The girl's new stepsisters were very unkind.

In brief, according to Skandera and Burleigh (2005: 123), apart from being the most neutral tone in RP, the fall can signal finality and definiteness. It is surprising that many textbooks describe the rise as the standard tone for questions. In fact, it is the fall that is quite normal for neutral questions beginning with a question word.

3. Usual terminal falling juncture-pitch patterns in North American English either/ or (choice) questions:

This is a compound utterance due to following registers:

a) Pitch goes up on the first choice(s), and it goes down on the last choice. The second part of the choice in the utterance glides downwards and fades off there.

Do you have boys or girls?/ Do you have boys or girls?

Are you a coffee drinker or a tea drinker? /Are you a coffee drinker or a tea drinker?

b) If there are three choices in the utterance, on the last choice fades off via the accompaniment of a falling terminal juncture:

Can we meet on Monday, Wednesday, or Friday?

/Can we meet on **C**Monday **C**Wednesday or Friday**C**/

Did you want to talk to them or us or the boss?

/Did you want to talk to ↗them or ↗us or the boss**C** /

Is Monday, Wednesday, or Friday better for you?

/Is ↗Monday **C**Wednesday or **C**Fridaybetter for you**C**/

4. The falling juncture phoneme in attached (tag) questions

The fourth case exhibits a compound sentence structure. In the first sentence, there is a falling terminal juncture phoneme attached to the last word of the utterance because the speaker is not sure of what s/he is saying. In the second sentence on the other hand there is an attached rising juncture the last word because the speaker is unsure of what s/he is saying:

a) The voice goes up or down in tag (attached) questions, depending on the speaker's meaning. If the speaker isn't **sure** about what he is saying, the voice goes up. The upgoing pitch at the end of the sentence tells the listener that the speaker thinks the information is correct but isn't sure.

People shouldn't smoke, should they? The speaker is UNSURE.

/People shouldn't smoke should they**C**/

They've worked hard, haven't they? The speaker is UNSURE.

/They've worked hard haven't they**C**/

We haven't paid our taxes, have we? The speaker is

UNSURE./We haven't paid our taxes have we**C**/

The rising tone indicates a lesser degree of certainty of the speaker.

b) If the speaker is fairly **sure** about what he is saying, the voice goes down with the accompaniment of a falling terminal juncture. In spite of the existence of a word-final question mark, the downgoing pitch at the end of the sentence tells the listener that the speaker is pretty sure that the information is correct. Since the speaker is sure, s/he expects the answer "yes." The confusing part of this type of utterance is the question mark that terminates the sentence,

and this happens to be a very strong beguiling signal of confusing and error making case for the Turkish learners of English:

People shouldn't smoke, should they? The speaker is SURE.

/People shouldn't smoke, should they $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

They've worked hard □ haven't they? The speaker is SURE.

/They've worked hard □ haven't they $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

We haven't paid our taxes, have we? The speaker is SURE.

/We haven't paid our taxes □ have we $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

The falling juncture indicates that the speaker is certain that the information is correct and simply expects the listener to provide confirmation. It must be noted that native speakers often break the rules in connected speech. In addition, many of the non-native speakers are not able to discern the differences in these utterances.

5. It is also used in exclamatory sentences:

Hey, you! Get away from my car! /Hey □ you \searrow Get away from my car $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Hey, Rob. How's it going?

/Hey □ Rob \searrow How's it going $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Hi! How are you?

/Hi \searrow How are you $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

6. Imperatives carry falling terminal juncture phoneme:

Do it now!

/Do it now $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Will you shut up!

/Will you shut up $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Come here right now!

/Come here right now $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Go clean up your room!

/Go clean up your room $\underline{\text{C}}$ /

Kinesic predisposition of terminal juncture phoneme

The prosodic features can be on a parallel shaped in accordance with gestacular movements and contents of what is being said in concurrent speech. In spoken English, the junctures may have their kinesics organization. Birdwhistell (1970) reports that alowering of gesticulating body co-occurs with a falling terminal juncture in speech and that where a gesticulating body part is sustained or held at the end of utterance, the pitch of the voice is either sustained or raised (Kendon 1980).

Conclusion

Standard unemphatic falling terminal juncture in English intonation is the most common type of intonation in English. It is generally used in statements, special questions, imperative sentences (commands), exclamatory sentences, in the first part of disjunctive questions and in the last part of alternative questions. Juncture phonemes don't exist in isolation and are always glued to intonation via pitch phonemes. The type of falling *terminal juncture* which occurs at the end of a statements is represented by / \surd /, and does not seem to be a challenge to Turkish learners of English. This is a terminal juncture that indicates a fading away into silence, signaling the end of utterances which is conveyed acoustically by a falling fundamental pitch frequency on the last syllable of utterances (Brazil 1975). At the end of the utterance, there is a fading away into silence, which is not accompanied by a terminal rise in pitch. The final fall in English is used on the last stressed syllable of a sentence. So there is often a fall in pitch glued to related word or phrase, especially if the word or phrase ends on pitch /1/ phoneme. That is why it marks the end of utterances and often associated with declarative statements. Therefore, it is an essential to the message being conveyed in terms of the production of natural, fundamental divisions of speech. The falling tone gives an impression of finality. It sounds as if no more sentence to be said at the end of utterance.

According to Paterno (2008: 34), the effective ESL oral readers' use of English juncture or terminals help his listener's comprehension because falling terminal juncture superimpose special features of speech on the intonation and add meaning to what the speakers intend to say. Moreover, since at the end of the sentence the pitch voice is falling, this makes it the most common type of juncture-pitch related intonation contour in English (Cruttenden 2008). It is generally utilized for asking and giving information in normal, quiet and certain style. It has been said that it sounds more categorical, confident, and convincing than the rising intonation.

It must be noted that it's difficult to hear our own intonation. Though it's unlikely non-native learners will achieve native-speaker-level pronunciation, but still we must promote their awareness on juncture phonemes in relation to intonation because awareness of intonation aids communication. Incorrect intonation can result in communication breakdown, even in misunderstandings wherein the speakers lose interest or even take offence!

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http://www.englishforeveryone.org/PDFs/Level_4_Passage_5.pdf
http://www.englishforeveryone.org/PDFs/Level_4_Passage_7.pdf

EXERCISES

A. Indicate the falling terminal juncture phoneme in the following sentences:

1. I didn't want to break my promise.
2. it's hard to keep the house clean with three kids.
3. I haven't been able to keep anything down all day.
4. We've been kicking around the idea of getting a dog.
5. In keeping with tradition, we opened our presents on Christmas Eve.
6. Don't get mad. I was just kidding.
7. Are you happy these days?
8. You don't like Australia, do you?
9. Are Turks brave?

10. Do you like tea or coffee?
11. The world is round; do you agree?
12. Do you want the long course or the short course?
13. Either you or I am mistaken!
14. He who goes a borrowing goes a sorrowing.
15. Never cry over spilled milk.

B. Indicate the falling terminal juncture phoneme in the following sentences

1. What kind of dog is that?
2. How is your mother these days?
3. I got a call yesterday from Teresa.
4. Who knows when he might kill again?
5. My wife will kill me if I don't get home soon.
6. Why haven't you returned my call?
7. Why don't you take an aspirin or something?
8. Talk about lucky. That's the second time he's won this week.
9. How can you be so stupid!
10. Will you be able to come tonight?

C. Write down the script of the following speech and then give the falling junctures:

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D. Write down the script of the following speech and then give the falling junctures:

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ANSWERS

A. Indicate the falling terminal juncture phoneme in the following sentences:

1. /I didn't want to break my promiseɫ/
2. /It's hard to keep the house clean with three kidsɫ/
3. /I haven't been able to keep anything down all dayɫ/
4. /We've been kicking around the idea of getting a dogɫ/
5. /In keeping with tradition, we opened our presents on Christmas Eveɫ/
6. /Don't get madɫ I was just kiddingɫ/
7. Are you happy these days? (NO falling terminal juncture)
8. You don't like Australia, do you? (NO falling terminal juncture)
9. Are Turks brave? (NO falling terminal juncture)
10. Do you like tea or coffee? (NO falling terminal juncture)
11. The world is round; do you agree? (NO falling terminal juncture)
12. Do you want the long course or the short course? (NO falling terminal juncture)
13. /Either you or I am mistakenɫ/
14. /He who goes a borrowing goes a sorrowingɫ/
15. /Never cry over spilled milkɫ/

B. Indicate the falling terminal juncture phoneme in the following sentences

1. /What kind of dog is thatɫ/
2. /How is your mother these daysɫ/
3. /I got a call yesterday from Teresaɫ/

4. /Who knows when he might kill again↘/
5. /My wife will kill me if I don't get home soon↘/
6. /Why haven't you returned my call↘/
7. /Why don't you take an aspirin or something↘/
8. /Talk about lucky. That's the second time he's won this week↘/
9. /How can you be so stupid↘/
10. /Will you be able to come tonight↘/

Passage-C

The living room does not look good. It looks bad without a carpet. Mary and Dan want to buy a carpet. They want to buy a carpet for their living room. They went to the store. They looked at the carpets. There were many colors. There were many sizes. Some had patterns. Some were plain.
(http://www.englishforeveryone.org/PDFs/Level_4_Passage_5.pdf)

/The living room does not look good↘ It looks bad without a carpet↘ Mary and Dan want to buy a carpet↘ They want to buy a carpet for their living room↘ They went to the store↘ They looked at the carpets↘ There were many colors↘ There were many sizes↘ Some had patterns. Some were plain↘ /

Passage -D

Tsunami waves are larger and faster than normal surface waves. A tsunami wave can travel as fast as a jet plane and can be as tall as a ten story building. Imagine dropping a stone into a pond. The water on the surface ripples. A tsunami is like a very powerful ripple. Tsunamis begin when the ocean rises or falls very suddenly. Large amounts of seawater are displaced. This movement causes huge waves.

(http://www.englishforeveryone.org/PDFs/Level_4_Passage_7.pdf)

/Tsunami waves are larger and faster than normal surface waves↘ A tsunami wave can travel as fast as a jet plane and can be as tall as a ten story building↘ Imagine dropping a stone into a pond↘ The water on the surface ripples. A tsunami is like a very powerful ripple↘ Tsunamis begin when the ocean rises or falls very suddenly↘ Large amounts of seawater are displaced↘ This movement causes huge waves/

The Falling-rising Terminal Juncture as an Intonation Difficulty for Language Teachers and Demonstration by Computer

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Abstract

The content of the words, clauses, and sentences is firstly conveyed by the segmental features, and additionally intonational features like stress, pitch, and juncture convey additional information to mean what is being intended to mean by the speakers. For the description of suprasegmental features of a language, the American structuralists like Bloomfield (1933), Pike (1945), and Trager and a Smith (1951) proposed atomistic level tones, while the British school handled the intonational features as fall or rise as the basic units of description. The distinctive units of description were understood as intonational phonemes. The insights, discoveries, and applications of both schools of theories influenced the autosegmental-metrical theory of intonation in the 1970's and 1980's. In the autosegmental-metrical theory, the existence of juncture, being a controversial issue, is not stressed because pitches, as they say are enough to convey the meaning. In this study, the crucial importance of junctures and especially falling-rising terminal juncture will be handled. In this presentation, fall-rise juncture is indicated by a sign like /↘↗/ or /✓/.

Key words: juncture, falling-rising terminal juncture phoneme, intonation contour

Introduction

The research field of juncture phonemes falls within the realm of autosegmental-metrical theory of intonation. Since they possess a communicative value in connected speech, their value gains even crucial merits when they establish intonation contours with the accompaniment of pitch phonemes. Juncture phonemes carry extremely important sound features in English. The term juncture points to a para-phonotactic unit which refers to the boundaries between phrasal, clauses, and sentence as entities. It is a phonemic and a morphophonemic phenomenon in English. As suprasegmental phonemes, they are able to change the meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and clauses. Slow or rapid speech can also determine the use of terminal juncture phoneme

types which mark the breaks between sounds and the phonological boundary of words, clauses or sentences. In this study, a framework of *English* terminal juncture phoneme will include the following juncture phonemes: in terms of internal junctures: open juncture and close juncture, and in terms of terminal junctures like sustained juncture, rising juncture, falling juncture, rise-fall juncture, and fall-rise juncture. This research aims to analyze the falling-rising terminal juncture and aims to demonstrate it by speaking examples that are downloaded from electronic dictionaries and other texts text to speech labs

The theoretical background

In fact, the existence of junctures was not treated in linguistic theory for a long time, and therefore the falling-rising terminal juncture phoneme has not been extensively explored and discussed by phoneticians, linguists and educational linguists. Since it took scanty attention, it has been little discussed. Only after Pike (1945), for instance, juncture has been an ongoing theme in America and Europe. Gimson (1978:300) illustrates various ways in which phonetic cues may mark word boundaries. The research and analysis of suprasegmental phonemes is properly conducted in the autosegmental-metrical theory of intonation in the 1970's and 1980's.

Juncture is "the relationship between one sound and the sounds that immediately precede and follow it (Roach, 1988:110). It refers to the boundaries between phonetic or phonological entities such as phonemes, syllables, morphemes, words, intermediate prosodic phrases, and intonational phrases (Mannell 2000). In this research, the term juncture is used to show break ups in the whole utterances by forming them into groups. It is phonemic because it changes the meaning, and is said to be superposed on the segmental phonemes; therefore, it is called a suprasegmental phoneme.

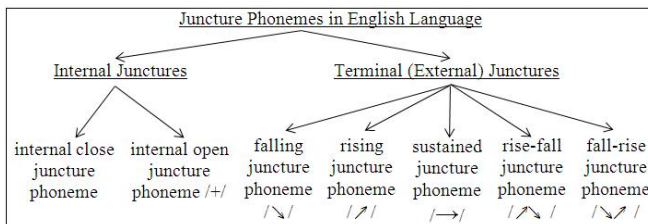
Falling-rising terminal juncture phoneme is also an issue of discourse function of intonation. It was Pike (1945) who first discovered the existence of the falling-rising terminal juncture in North American English (Chun, 2002:25). Trager and Smith (1951) further elaborated on the functions and types of junctures. In the formation of this juncture phoneme, the pitch registers fall from about mid to low and then from high to mid, whose perception is not noticed by a great majority of Turkish English teachers

and students of English language education. The finality-giving sense of the utterance fades off high up in the air at the end of the utterance.

It must be noted once again that the teaching of juncture types in English intonation is the most neglected aspect of English language teaching. It had been black sheep of the family because as Pei indicated “since no fusion takes place across the boundaries of these patterns, juncture belongs to rather to the level of phonology, for the prosodic features of stress, pitch, and duration automatically take care of it.” Roger Lass (1984), Cauldwell and Hewings (1996), Drezke (1998), Chun (2002), Cruttenden (2008), Roach (1988), O’Connor and Fletcher (1989), Sethi, et al. (2004), Skandera & Burleigh (2005), and Wadhwa (2005) admit the existence fall-rise terminal juncture as a phoneme in English intonation system. In many utterances it has a double utterance, the issue of which is not handled properly. O’Connor and Arnold (1973) and Crystal (1969) call this type as ‘compound tunes. Halliday (1967: 12) terms it as an “expedient of compound tone.’

Types of junctures in English

The existence of juncture phonemes is a controversial issue.



Fall-rise terminal juncture in English intonation indicates surprise and often disagreement, but above all indicates that the speaker wants the person to whom he's speaking to respond or confirm.

For example:

Look at these four greetings:

Hi! How you doing? Hello! Good morning!

These all require acknowledgement or return greetings.

Are you ready yet?

with the fall/rise on yet, the questioner is demanding a reply.

You'll never guess!

fall/rise on guess, indicating don't! I'm going to tell you.


It was Tom!

Fall on Tom and it was the end of the story so far, telling the listeners that they can react, if they like (<http://toponlineenglish.yolasite.com>)


Phonemic status of falling-rising terminal juncture

Minimal pair tests can be used to indicate the phonemic values of the segmental and suprasegmental phonemes. Minimal pairs give the substantial evidence for the existence of phonemes in a language. Phonemes are primarily established by the existence of minimal pairs (Carr, 2008:124; Finch, 2000:60). The following two sentences are different in meaning because the fall-rise terminal juncture in the first sentence exposes a rising terminal juncture at the end of the words. In the second sentence, the meaning changes because the speaker is unsure of the situation and s/he shows it by using a falling terminal juncture at the end, which makes it a separate phoneme. The falling juncture in the foregoing falls on the lowest area of the word or phrase and rising part of it dwells on the focused words in the utterances:

She's married, isn't she?

/She's +married □ isn't +shece/ /  / Uncertainty

She's married, isn't she?

/She's +married □ isn't +shece/ /  / Certainty

According to Brazil (1975) two of the sentences can be syntactically identical on the surface, but that differ in subtle ways. Similarly, Chun (2002: 33) gives the following example:

“The fall-rise tone in the first sentence shown below in (1) marks the content of a tone group as part of the information shared by both participants; it is thus termed the *referring* tone...The first sentence below would be addressed to someone who is expected to know already that the speaker is reading Middlemarch but doesnot know what the speaker's future intentions are. By contrast, the falling tone in (2) marks the matter as new and is thus called the *proclaiming* tone, (Old information is “referred to” and new information is “proclaimed.”). In the second sentence, the fact that the speaker

wants to or will read Adam Bede is known information, and the new information is *when* it will be read (after finishing Middlemarch):”

1. // when I've finished Middlemarch // I shall read Adam Bede //
2. // when I've finished Middlemarch // I shall read Adam Bede //

Nature and composition of falling-rising terminal juncture

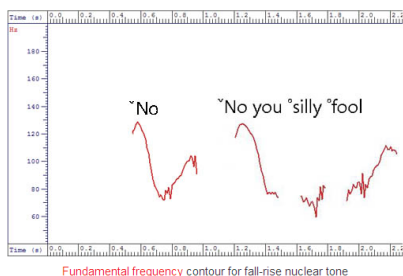
Utterances in English always include pauses. Falling-rising terminal juncture marks the ending of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences that are accompanied by pitch phonemes. First things first, cues to the existence of juncture are acoustic features that help us determine the boundaries between the entities.

The combination of a juncture type and pitch is called an ‘intonation contour,’ ‘tone,’ or ‘tune.’ The fall-rise juncture is relatively frequently used in English as the following calculations show: according to Crystal (1969) and Quirk et al. (1964), the frequency of occurrence of this juncture is 16.2%. According to the calculations of Davy (1968), in conversation it is 12, 5, and in reading, it is 16.6. It is generally restricted to an emotional attitude.

This tone is sometimes divided into two types: the simple tune and the compound tune (Kingdon 1958, Crystal 1969, O’Connor and Arnold 1973, Couper-Kuhlen 1986, Cruttenden 1997, and Roach (2000). The simple tune is also known as a complex fall-rise, and the compound tune is sometimes called compound fall+rise or a split fall-rise. As Yazuva (2008:33) states, according to O’Connor and Arnold (1973:29-30), there are three main differences between the two tunes: (1) a wider range of the fall in the compound tune, (2) a gradual rise of syllables after the fall in the simple tune, and (3) weakened stress syllables after the fall in the simple tune. They claim, however, that these differences are not always operating and that differences in attitude are the key to differentiating the two tunes in such cases.

The pitch nature of the falling-rising terminal juncture in relation to a nuclear tone in many analyses of English intonation can be visualized in the program of Praats. In the following bogjam which demonstrates the utterance “No. No you silly fool,” its pitch characteristics are as follows: the pitch contour starts near the top of the speaker’s range and falls rapidly to a low pitch and then rises again to around pitch /3/. If the nucleus is followed by tailsyllables the falling part of the pattern is accomplished on the

nucleus itself. The rise occurs at the end of the tail and any intervening syllables are low and level. The picture depicts something like a stream of speech in the U-shaped form that shows falling-dipping-rising activities:



(http://blogjam_name/sid/?page_id=1115)

As it is seen in the above-mentioned blogjam, high pitch starts on nucleus, falling to low, leveling out and rising towards end of tail (end of utterance). This blogjam indicates what Chun (2002:19) means to describe the structure of fall-rise juncture tone: “the voice first falls from a fairly high to a rather low pitch, and then, still within the word, rises to medium pitch.

Juncture and stress relations

Stress phoneme cannot be divorced from juncture phonemes. An *example* is given by Brazil (1975) states that two sentences that are syntactically identical on the surface, but that differ in subtle ways. Stress placement on certain words for a certain purpose leads to pause and accordingly to a change in meaning. Stagaberg (1981, 66:315) gives the following examples:

Every'daypassengers enjoy a trip like this = Passengers enjoy the trip **everyday**.

Everyday p'assengersenjoy a trip like this= **Ordinary passengers** enjoy a trip like this.

I consider **'these 'errors** = I consider these things to be errors.
I consider these **'errors** = I **think** about these errors.

Stagaberg (1981, 66:315) additionally gives the following examples:

He gave the **'library 'books** = He gave the books belonging to the library.

He gave the library **'books** = He gave books to the library.

The usages of the falling-rising terminal juncture

The examples given in the following sentences indicate the so-called neutral speech (routine- like talks) in which the grammatical patterns are dominant. In defining the usage types of fall-rise terminal juncture phoneme, some phonologists demonstrated two types: simple and compound tunes in the suprasegmental phonemic structure of English (Kingdon 1958, Crystal 1969, O'Connor and Arnold 1973, Couper and Kuhlen, 1986, Cruttenden 1997, and Roach 2000). The following example sentences are downloaded via audacity program from the e-dictionary called Longman Dictionary of American English (2004):

1. Declarative sentences

Excuse me. /Excuse Cme/

The job's almost done. /The job's C almost Cdone/

The earthquake caused Cserious damage.

/The earthquake caused Cserious damage/

OK, OK, just get off my case, will you?

/COK C→ COK C→ just get off my case C will Cyou C/

2. Commands (very strong)

Go clean up your room. /Go Cclean up your Croom/ (strong)

Don't lie to me! /Don't Clie to me/ (slight)

If you're going to live here, you will abide by my rules. (Slightly)

/If you're going to live here Cyou will abide by my Crules/

3. Tag questions

In the following examples, it is seen that the falling terminal juncture is always used in the first part of tag questions (disjunctive questions) and rising terminal juncture in the second half. Despite the fact that tag questions are asked to get confirmation and agreement, the answer may be affirmative or negative. The following examples are adapted from (<http://usefulenglish.ru/phonetics/falling-intonation>):

She is married, isn't she? /She is Cmarried → Cisn't she/ (The speaker assumes that she is married, but not sure; therefore, s/he asking for your opinion and confirmation.)

She is married, isn't she? /She is Cmarried Cisn't she/ (The speaker is sure that she is married, and expects the answer "yes".)

5. Exclamations:

Aha! /☐Aha☐/ You can't catch me! /You☐can't catch ☐me/

That was a great catch!/That ☐was a great ☐catch/

Hey, look at these jeans. /Hey☐look at these ☐jeans/

6. Extended simple sentences:In extended simple sentences, if the extended part precedes the main clause, there is a fall-rise terminal juncture in the sentence:

Unlike me, she's intelligent./Unlike me☐she's ☐intelligent/

And finally☐I'd like to thank my☐teachers.

/And finally, I'd like to thank my teachers/

Excuse me is this the right bus for the☐airport?

/Excuse me☐ is this the right bus for the airport/

As a general rule, you should call before visiting someone.

/As a general rule☐you should ☐call before visiting someone/

Generally speaking, movie audiences like happy endings.

/Generally speaking☐ movie audiences like☐happy endings/

8. In larger sentences

Falling-rising terminal juncture phoneme carries a compound terminal junctural tone the first part of which indicates that the speaker has not finished his speech yet. It affects the whole sentence of the sentence. It is generally used in what may be called 'dependent' intonation units such as those involving sentential adverbs, subordinate clauses, compound sentences, and the like. It points to dependency, continuity, and non-finality (Cruttenden, 1986:102). It mostly takes place in non-final sentence intonation units. In if clauses the conditional clause carries a rising while the main clause carries a falling terminal juncture.

If adverbial clauses are in subordinated forms (dependent clause) and are followed by main clause (independent), the adverbial clauses, the subordinated clause, carries a falling-rising juncture while the main clause has only a falling juncture (Cruttenden, 1986).

Although the car's old, it runs well.

/Although the car's \underline{C} old, it runs C well/

If I call her now, she should still be at home.

/If I call her \underline{C} now \rightarrow she should still be at C home/

Whenever we come here, we see someone we know.

/Whenever we \underline{C} come here, we see someone we C know/

If I get the job, I'll move to New York. If not, I'll stay in Dallas.

/If I get the \underline{C} job \rightarrow I'll move to New C York. If not \underline{C} \rightarrow I'll stay in C Dallas/

When the independent clause follow the dependent clause, the pattern fall-rise and fall can be observed, as in

He was nine when his father died./He was \underline{C} nine when his father C died/

I was in the shower when the doorbell rang.

/I was in the \underline{C} shower when the C doorbell rang/

We'll save time if we take a cab. /We'll save \underline{C} time if we take a C cab/

We can go in my car unless you want to walk.

/We can go in my car unless you want to walk/

On the other hand, Cauldwell and Hewings (1996: 327) propose a combined case. As they say, for example, it is often said (either as an explicit rule or implicitly through the presentation of examples) that in sentences with a main clause and a subordinate clause, a rising tone is used for the subordinate clause and a falling tone for the main clause, as in:

(1) // Before I read this book //

// I thought stress was an executive disease //

O'Connor and Fletcher (1989: 21)

However, when we observe speech we soon find instances that do not conform to this rule. For example:

(2) //^even if it rains ///we'll come //

When the falling tone occurs on the subordinate clause, the rising tone goes on the main clause. So, “ both teachers and students are left facing the problem of reconciling ‘rules’ about language with the contradictory evidence they find in natural

speech Cauldwell and Hewings (1996: 327). Thus, most of the utterances in connected speech do not conform to the rules because what counts is the speaker's intention to mean what he means it. The fact that the rules of fall-rise terminal juncture do not always operate in the intonation of the native-speakers makes it double hard on the part of the non-native speakers to notice and apply them automatically in their own pronunciation. In addition, junctural changes are used irregularly throughout speech to identify word groups set pace and stress, indicate emotion, depicting on the intentions of the speaker.

Conclusion

There are two forms of fall-rise terminal juncture in usage: simple and compound forms. Teaching junctures rightfully should be a priority for all English teachers. An effective teacher considers the teaching of junctures as an integral part of the course. Junctures with the accompaniment of pitch phonemes in intonation "primarily fulfill a grammatical and attitudinal (emotional) role" (Drezke, 1988: 93). They have primarily informational functions in that they can manage to give information where points of information are stressed and new information is put forward. In addition, they support the grammatical structure in speech where it is similar to punctuation (Drezke, 1998: 93). According to Crystal (1995:229), their structure in intonation can also be textual (contrast, coherence) and indexical (marker of personal and social identity due to the fact that the meaning of an utterance can always be interpreted by means of a context and a co-text. Because of these functions of juncture phonemes, it is extremely difficulty, almost impossible, to acquire a native like intonation of a target language.

It is very ambiguous to demonstrate the functions of rising-falling juncture on written paper; therefore, the written texts must be presented in their spoken forms. If the teacher is a native-speaker, it will not be a problem. But if not, s/he may fall short in front of the students. At this junction, the use of audacity programs can be of great help by means of which speaking exercises can be downloaded from ebooks, e-dictionaries, and the like. The written materials can be converted into speaking forms by means of text-to-speech labs. This is the best way to show the junctural sound values in intonation. We suggest that, as teachers and materials writers, we need to provide learners with descriptions of intonation which will allow them to understand the

communicative significance of the patterns of intonation identified in such rules, and of the exceptions to those rules (Cauldwell, and Hewings, 1996:327). If the teachers' knowledgeability falls below a certain threshold level, they are unable to communicate efficiently and effectively. What is needed, then, is a systematic framework within which teachers and students can study junctures in relation to intonation. A study on juncture phonemes necessitates attempts to strive for a complete elimination of foreign accent. The falling-rising tone can prove useful to those who wish to attain a higher level of proficiency in spoken English (Sethi et al., 2004:158).

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EXERCISES

EXERCISE A

1. In which of the utterances can there be a falling terminal juncture?

- a) Do you have a car?
- b) Will you be able to come tonight?
- c) Where do you live?
- d) She speaks English, doesn't she? (The speaker is unsure)
- e) I'll tell you all about it later.

2. In which of the utterances can there be falling terminal juncture?

- a) We live about 10 miles from here.
- b) Should we invite him?
- c) Can I talk to you for a minute?d)You don't know where my wallet is, do you?
- e) Hello!

3. In which of the utterances can there be falling terminal juncture?

- a) Back off!
- b) You live here, don't you? (The speaker is unsure)
- c) Do you want a piece of cake?
- d) Are you calling me a liar?
- e) Can I call you back later?

4. a) Did he give any reason for quitting?

- b) I hope she has a good excuse for being late again.
- c) I tried to reason with her, but she wouldn't listen.
- d) What's the reasoning behind this proposal?

- e) Have you received my letter?
5. a) We recently moved from Ohio.
- b) Charlie got into a fight during recess.
- c) I reckon they'll be late.
- d) He gained international recognition after winning the competition.
- e) He'd lost so much weight I hardly recognized him!

EXERCISE B

Place the falling junctures in the following sentences:

1. I have to make a telephone call.
2. Calm down and tell me what happened.
3. An average potato has about 90 calories.
4. The Arctic fox's white fur is an excellent winter.
5. In soccer, you can't touch the ball with your hands.

EXERCISE C (1-2): Listening comprehension. Listen to the following alternatives and find out the correct answer (The pronunciation teacher gives the alternative from a tape recorder or a computer):

1. a) Can I have a cookie?
- b) I cannot accept your offer.
- c) Are teachers to blame for students' failure to learn?
- d) Will you shut up!
- e) How could she abandon her own child?
2. a) Do you want some ice in your drink?
- b) What's the real reason you were late?
- c) He quit smoking? For real?
- d) It was only later that I realized my mistake.
- e. There are more seats at the rear of the theater.

The Acquisition of Compound vs Phrasal Stress Distinction

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Abstract

“Compound stress” and “phrasal stress” are the two key elements to determine the exact means of conveying a specific intent in certain utterances. Therefore during the perception and production of such meaning-carrying codes, being able to use the right stress pattern in the right place is vitally important to establish the intended communication, or the language learning and teaching technique to be followed. The research at hand investigates the learner’s ability to perceive, distinguish and produce the meaning differences between phrases and compound words during L2 acquisition through various stress patterns. In such contrastive patterns as **HOT DOG** (type of food) [compound] vs. **HOT DOG** (hot canine) [phrase] and **a GREENHOUSE** (a building made of glass for growing plants inside) [compound] vs **a GREEN HOUSE** (a house which is painted green) [phrase] the difference in the stress placement is a clear indication of meaning changes expressed. Compound nouns have primary stress on their first word and those following them have secondary stress. In the compound noun **GOLF BALL**, the first word has the primary stress, modifying the following word and reducing it into the secondary stress. As for phrases, however, the modified elements i.e. the words second in line are stressed more prominently. Therefore the acquisition of such a distinction in stress patterns in both phrases and compounds is very important for learners of English in order to analyze what is said and convey the meaning more precisely in the oral communication. Natives make little mistake in distinguishing between the two because they are familiar with them from their childhood on as having heard in their immediate environment. Therefore we, as language teachers, can and must help our students acquire this skill by teaching them special stress paradigms. We can do this by allowing them to compare relevant minimal pairs using

pictures that represent a compound word or a phrase and asking them to tell the difference between the two. Our students can also hear a prerecorded tape with the names of the items, and be asked to indicate which one it is that they've heard. Various letter forms may be adopted to distinguish with capitalized letters in relevant syllables or phonetic transcriptions with their suprasegmental features to show relevant stress patterns with their primary or secondary stress where necessary. The system adopted for marking the word stress in this paper (if not otherwise stated) is suggested by Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010) that the stressed syllables are marked in **boldface type in upper case (in big and small size capitals)** and the nonstressed syllables in **lower case (miniscules)** in order to show the primarily stressed syllables as more prominent than those stressed in lesser degree.

Many related drills are also part of the study to make sure that students' performances are satisfactory. Thus they will have full consciousness of the meaning-determining feature of stress placement in compounds and phrases, and are eventually able to understand the difference of the two and communicate with their speaking partners or their audience more effectively.

Key words: primary stress, secondary stress, prominent stress, compound stress, phrasal stress

Introduction

It has generally been assumed in descriptions of throughout this century that the stress patterns on expressions we call compound words and phrases somehow a direct consequence of their syntactic structure (Poutsma, 1914; Trager & Smith, 1951; Lees 1960; Quirk et al. 1972; Chomsky & Halle, 1968). Numerous pedagogical resources on ESL/EFL pronunciation advocate teaching nonnative speakers (NNSs) suprasegmentals to improve the intelligibility of their speech. There are many instances that some foreigners

speak English with perfectly intelligible consonants and vowels, syllables, words, phrases, and with standard grammatical forms, and yet the native have the greatest of difficulty in understanding them because of the speakers' lack of using suprasegmental elements in their oral utterance. Moreover, such mispronunciation may cause misinterpretation and potential discomfort devaluing the speaker's effort in oral communication irrespective of their fairly good grammar (Tuan, 2010).

Theoretical background

Emphasizing on proper intonation in L2 teaching contributes to a high percentage to the total intelligibility of the speaker's speech. It must be noted right here that intonation is composed of stress, pitch and juncture. McNerney and Mendelsohn (1992) claim that "a short term pronunciation course should focus first and foremost on suprasegmentals as they have the greatest impact on the comprehensibility of the learner's English. Thus giving priority to the suprasegmental aspects of English not only improves learners' comprehensibility but is also less frustrating for students because greater change can be effected by such a priority in their teaching. This argument has been supported by works of Brazil, Coulthard, and Johns (1980), Pennington and Richards (1986), Morley (1991), Brown (1995), Clennell (1996), Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010), and Chela-Flores (1998) and many other phoneticians.

Compound words and phrases are larger units of grammar. Stress placement on compound words and phrases have also been the topic of research by several researchers such as Kubozona (1990) and Quirk et al. (1985). They have dealt with the issue of Blending Phonological Headedness as well as Phonological Headedness of English compound words and noun phrases to explain the paradigms of Stress Placement in English Blending words (Trias, 2010).

Quirk et al. (1985) suggested that stress pattern of blend forms tends to follow that of the rightward source word. According to Kubozono (1990) and Quirk et al. (1985), phonological headedness in English blending words should be rightward. However, Tzakosta and Weijer (2006) pointed out that phonological headedness depends on different degrees of stress: accented syllables are head while unaccented syllables are nonheads. According to this definition suggested by Tzakosta and Weijer (2006), we can say that compound nouns generally have a primary stress on the first element but with a secondary stress on the second constituent. Here are some examples to support this argument: **EARTHQUAKE**, **LIFEBOAT**, **WAITing ROOM**, **FIRE-extINGuisher** to contrast with some corresponding noun phrases: "That sound like a **BLACK BIRD**." [compound] vs "A carrion crow is a completely **BLACK BIRD**." [noun phrase], and also **BLACK BOARD** [compound] vs **BLACK BOARD** [noun phrase]; **GREEN FLY** [compound] **GREEN FLY** [noun phrase]; **HOT HOUSE** [compound] **HOT HOUSE** [noun phrase].

When such a compound is made part of another compound, the primary stress and the secondary stress are redistributed to give the same rhythm, for example: **LIGHT HOUSE** but **LIGHthouse-KEEPER**. A smaller number of compounds do not have the primary stress on the initial element. These compounds include: **VICE-CHANcellor** (noun), **BACK-FIRE** (verb), **HENCEFORTH** (adverb), **KNEE-DEEP**, **FLAT-FOOTed**, **FIRST-RATE** (adjectives).

In some cases we may be in doubt as to whether we should regard sequences with this stress pattern as compounds or free syntactic phrases, and we vacillate between writing them with hyphens or as separate words (e.g.: lawn(-)'tennis, country(-)'house). On the other hand, we vacillate in our stressing of some examples which are apparently in the process of becoming recognized as compounds of the **BLACK BIRD** type: **FIELDMARSHal** vs

FIELD MARSHal; OVERSEAS vs Over SEAS; WEEKEND vs WEEK END; HEADMASTer vs HEAD MASTer.

In any case, the stress often shifts from the second to the first element when the compound is being used attributively in a noun phrase. This is analogous to the redistribution that occurs in compounds like **LIGHThouse-KEEPER. The ROOM is downSTAIRS. But a DOWNstairs ROOM. His work is FIRST CLASS vs his FIRST CLASS work. The water is KNEE-DEEP. vs KNEE-DEEP in water.** (Kingdon 1959)

While some have contended that the stressing of phrases and compounds in English is impossible to master in a native-like way, some others like Giegerich (2004) have adopted the view that the compound-phrase distinction is not that robust and that the stress criterion, commonly invoked in attempts to draw the compound-phrase distinction in English, is even less reliable than previously thought of. But this view not only fails to correlate with other (semantic, syntactic) criteria for compound status (Bauer 1998, Giegerich 2004) but also draws on incomplete and deeply flawed generalizations regarding stress in compounds and phrases (Giegerich 2004).

On the other hand, some phoneticians like Kunter (2011) adopt the terms “left prominence/headedness” and “right prominence/headesness” instead of “compound stress” and “phrasal stress” as in **SMART CART vs SMART CART, AIRBAG vs AIRBAG and NIGHTCLUB vs NIGHTCLUB.**

Distinction between phrases and compounds

Stress in English compound words poses difficult problems for foreign learners. English does not seem to be at all consistent in the way it treats compounds and phrases, either from the point of view of writing or from the point of view of pronunciation and especially in stress placement. If we look at how this uncertainty and inconsistency arise we can perhaps understand better the difficulties. And if we look beyond the principles of word stress to the principles of accent placement, and in so doing if we pay attention to the

information structure of compounds, we can obtain valuable guidance about stress placement in such words (Tayler, 1991).

It is notoriously difficult to know how to stress English compound words. This is partly because we cannot easily define what a compound word is, and partly because it is not simply a question of stress but also of accent. The latter involves a significant combination of various stress and tone forms and serves to highlight what is regarded as „new□ or important information in a particular group of words or tone group. If we look beyond the principles of stress to the principles of accent as well, we are in a better position to try and explain the stress of compound words in English (Roach,1991).

Compound nouns generally have a primary stress on the first element but with a secondary stress on the second constituent:

| | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| EARTHQUAKE | LIFE-BOAT | WAITing ROOM |
| FIRE-exTINGuisher | BACKGROUND | BASKetBALL |
| BIRTHDAY | BUTterFLY | DAREDEVIL |
| DAYDREAM | EARRINGS | EVERGREEN |
| | | |
| FINGERPRINT | FIREFIGHTER | FIREPLACE |
| FIREPROOF | GOLDFISH | |
| GRASSHOPper | | |
| HEADMASTer | HEARTBROKEn | HOMEWORK |

As for contrasting the compounds with the corresponding noun phrases we come up with such pairs in sentences:

That sounds like a **BLACKBIRD** . [compound] vs A carrion crow is a completely **BLACK BIRD**. [noun phrase]. Similar compound / phrase contrasts can also be found in the following examples: **BLACKBOARD** [C] vs. **BLACK BOARD** [NP]; **GREEN FLY** [C] vs. **GREEN FLY** [NP]; **HOT HOUSE** [C] vs **HOT HOUSE** [NP] (Tayler, 1991).

The stress often shifts from the second to the first element when the compound is being used attributively in a noun phrase. This is analogous to the redistribution that occurs in contrastive examples: **LIGHT HOUSE-keeper** vs **LIGHthouse-KEEPER**. The room is **DOWNSTAIRS**. vs. a **DOWNSTAIRS room**. His work is **FIRST CLASS**. vs his **FIRST CLASS** work. The water is **KNEE-DEEP**. vs **KNEE-DEEP** in water (Tayler, 1991).

The stress distribution provides a firm basis for distinguishing between different underlying relations, not so much between compound and phrase as between different semantic relations: a **BULL-FIGHT** involves bulls, and a **BULL CALF** is a young bull. A **FRENCH TEACHER** teaches French, but a **French TEACHER** is himself French originally. A **SLATE QUARRY** yields slate and a **SLATE ROOF** is made of slate. A **TOY FACTORY** produces toys, but a **TOY FACTory** is a model of a factory used as a toy (Tayler, 1991).

A compound word consists of two or more lexical components each of which can stand alone as separate words; thus “corn” and “field” can combine to produce **CORNFIELD** (a field where corn is grown), “kick” and “back” produce **KICKBACK** (money that someone “kicks” back to someone as a bribe), “out” and “house” give **OUTHOUSE** (a smaller house located outside a larger house, often containing a primitive toilet) and tens of thousands more examples like these can be found (Teschner-Whitley, 2008).

English strongly favors compounding. In terms of stress placement, most of the English compounds strong-stress the left component of the compound with few exceptions, namely some regulars first: **AFTERBIRTH**, **AFTERLIFE**, **AIRBASE**, **AIRCONDITIONING**, **AIRPORT**, **ANYTHING**, **ANYWHERE**, **APPLECART**, **ARMCHAIR**, **ASHTRAY**, **BACKPACK**, **BANDSTAND**, **BANDWAGON**, **BANKBOOK**, **BARMAID**, **BARSTOOL**, **BARNSTORM**, **BASEBALL**, **BASKETBALL**, **BATHROBE**, **BATHROOM**, **BATTLEFIELD**, **BEDBAG**, **BEDPAN**, **BEDROOM**,

BIGMOUTH, BIGTOP, BILLBOARD, BILLFOLD, BIRDBRAINED, BIRDCAGE, BIRTHPLACE, BIRTHRATE, BITTERSWEET, BLACKBERRY, BLACKBIRD, BOOKBINDING, BULLETPROOF

All of those compounds are written as single words strong-stressing the left component, but some few do strong-stress instead the right-hand component though giving the appearance of strong-stressing both components equally. Here are five examples of those few exceptions: **AFTERNOON, BUCKTEETH, BACKYARD, BLACKCURRANT** and **BROADMINDED** (Teschner-Whitley, 2008).

As an interesting feature of compounds, unlike those cited above not every English compound is written as a single word. Some are hyphenated (and with no differentiation) as in **AFrican-AMERican, AGE-OLD, ALL-PURpose, ANglo-SAXon, ARmor-PLATed, aWARD-WINning, AWE-INSPIRING** yet some other are separate words as in **ACid RAIN, ADult EDUCATION, AIR BAG, AIR TRAFFIC, aLARM CLOCK, ALley CAT, APple SAUCE** and **ASPen TREE**. As we have seen in the stressing of the above examples that if a compound is written as a single word, it is likely to be pronounced with a left strong stress, but if it is hyphenated or two-worded, the likelihood of a left strong stress is just a little more than fifty-fifty. But here is an important factor to mention: In a right-stressed compound, the word on the left appears to be almost as strongly stressed as the word on the right, whereas in a left-stressed compound the left-hand word is definitely more strongly stressed than is the right-hand word. Here are examples to compare:

LEFT-STRESSING COMPOUNDS:

AIR BAG, AIR conDITioning, AIR FORCE, AIR suPREMacy, BANK acCOUNT, BANK BALANCE, BANK CLERK, BANK HOLiday, BANK stateMENT

RIGHT-STRESSING COMPOUNDS:

Adult eduCATION, Adult LITeracy, Apple PIE, arTESian WELL, autoMATIC PILot, autoMATIC reDIAL, a BACK DOOR, a BACK SEAT, a BACK YARD (Teschner-Whitley, 2008).

Many have contended that it is impossible to master the skill of stressing compounds and phrases properly in a nativelike way. Giegerich (2004) on the other hand looks at the issue from another perspective. He tries to prove that the compound-phrase distinction is not that robust is and that the stress criterion, commonly invoked in attempts to draw the compound-phrase distinction in English, is even less reliable than previously thought (Giegerich, 2004).

As for the determination of prominence in a compound, Roach (1983) suggests that if the first part of the compound is (in a broad sense) adjectival, the stress goes on the second element, with a secondary stress on the first. For example: **LOUDSPEAKer, BAD-TEMpered, SECond-CLASS** and **THREE-WHEELer**. If, however, the first element is (in a broad sense) a noun, then the stress goes on the first element. Examples: **TYPEWRITer, CAR-FERry SUNRISE SUITCASE** and **TEA-CUP**. Roach (1991) is however fairly cautious about these “rules”, but states in this way that they are genuinely helpful to teachers and learners alike.

Tayler (1991) suggests that by following the predictability and information-conveying feature of either part of the compound stress is determined thus **PARK STREET**, as opposed to **PARK AVenue, PARK ROAD, or PARK PLACE / STREET** is the more common and predictable term in these cases, and is thus de-accented as opposed to the less common terms such as **PLACE, SQUARE, TERRace, GROVE, LANE, AVenue** and many others which are all accented (Tayler, 1991).

It is interesting to note, however, that many compounds marked by Kingdon (1958) as having „double primary stress“ is nowadays considered as having one primary and secondary stress. Although Kingdon marks the following words, among others, with double stress, most speakers today would

probably distinguish the primary and one secondary stress on them: **FARMHOUSE**, **BOXOffice**, **SEALeVel**, **TISsuePAPer**, **BOA conSTRICTor**, **VACuumCLEANer**, **COLDCREAM**, **SIXSHOOTer**, **SLEEPingPARTner**, **FLYing FISH**, **SMALL HOLDER**, **PUBLICSCHOOL**, **TRAVeler's** **CHEQUE**, **STAGE MANager**, **WEEKEND**, **WARrant OFFicer**, **SUGar BEET**, **MAIDenNAME**. What seems to be happening here is that sometimes speakers tend to have some difficulty in recognizing a compound in the first place. One could say that they are treating the compounds as two separate words and stressing them accordingly. In this they are perhaps often led (or misled) by the spelling, but not always as in the case of **MAKE-beLIEVE**, **HOSEPIPE** and **GRANDMOTHER** (Tayler, 1991).

Sometimes the contrasts are so clear that one cannot but help stressing the relevant item when one talks about it: **a DANCing TEACHER** vs. **a DANCing TEACHER**, **a YOUNG GERMan TEACHER** vs. **a YOUNG GERMan TEACHER** or **an ENGLISH STUDent** vs. **an ENGLISH STUDent**. To sum all this up very briefly, we can say that, in cases of doubt, if we look at which element of a compound carries most information, or is the most unpredictable, and place the accent on that element, we have a good chance of producing correct compound stress. (Tayler 1991)

Further elaborations on phrasal stress and compound word stresses

According to Hayes (1995) the *word stress* is the strongest stress in a prosodic word. As for the *phrasal stress*, it is assigned beyond word stress in syntactic collocations of words, such as phrases, clauses, or sentences. Essentially like Bloomfield (1933), for whom **ICE-CREAM** was a compound and **ICE CREAM** a phrase, Liberman & Sproat (1992) drew the PS/NS distinction strictly along stress lines. Thus he suggests that placing stressing in relevant syllables of the word "girlfriend" as **GIRL FRIEND** having end-stress while for **GIRL-FRIEND** with fore-stress would determine the intended meaning.

As in the examples of such phrases like a **GREEN HOUSE** [wS] (which is a house that is green), but a **GREENHOUSE** [Sw]” (is a glass building for growing plants). Likewise a **FRENCH TEACHER** [wS] a phrasal meaning a teacher from France but a **FRENCH TEACHER** [Sw] who is a teacher of French is a compound word. Another example a **WOMan DOCTOR** [wS] is any female doctor, however a **WOMan DOCTOR** [Sw] is a gynecologist. This distinction can be attributed to the difference between compound and phrase in surface structure; hence the common names “phrasal stress” and “compound stress”. This is the analysis formalized in the Chomsky-Halle Compound Rule (1968) which presupposes a syntactic analysis such that “compound” is defined as a branching structure of the sort. The treatment of cases like **STEEL WAREhouse** vs. **STEEL WAREhouse** under this analysis is somewhat obscure, since both seem to be noun-noun compounds; here, however, reference is often made to deep syntactic differences – i.e. “warehouse made of steel” vs. “warehouse for storing steel” - and, though details of such an analysis have never actually been worked out, the assumption continues to be held that ultimately the whole phenomenon will be shown to depend on syntax at one level or another (Gibbon, 1984).

While phrases tend to be stressed phrase-finally, i.e. on the last word, compounds tend to be stressed on the first element. This systematic difference is captured in the so-called nuclear stress rule (phrasal stress is on the last word of the phrase) and the so-called compound stress rule (stress is on the left-hand member of a compound) formalized in Chomsky and Halle 1968) as in these examples of noun phrases: **the ORange CARpet, this NEW HOUSE, such a GOOD JOB**, contrasted with these examples of the nominal compounds: **PAYment PROBLEms, instalLation GUIDE, SPACE reQUIREments** (Plag, 2002).

This systematic difference between the stress assignment in noun phrases and in noun compounds does lead to minimal pairs where it is only the stress

pattern that distinguishes between the compound and the phrase: a **BLACKBOARD** [C] (a board to write on) vs. a **BLACK BOARD** [P] (a board that is black)"– **OPERating insTRUCtions** [C] (instructions for operating something) vs. **opeRAting inSTRUCtions** [P] (instructions that are operating) – **inSTALLing OPTions** [C] (options for installing something) vs. **insTALling OPTions** [P] (the installing of options) (Kang, 2010).

Given the correctness of the compound stress rule, another interesting problem arises how are compounds stressed that have more than two members? Consider the following compounds, their possible stress patterns, and their interpretations. **MAIL delivery service** vs **mail deLIVery service**; **STudent feedback SYStem** vs **STudent FEEDback system**; **GOVERNment REVENue policy** vs **GOVERNment REVENue policy**. The data at hand shows that a certain stress pattern seems to be indicative of a certain kind of interpretation: A **MAIL deLIVery** service is a service concerned with **MAIL deLIVery** (i.e. the delivery of mail), whereas a **MAIL deLIVery** service is a **deLIVery service** concerned with mail. This is a small semantic difference indeed, but still one worth taking note of. A **STudent FEEDback** system is a system concerned with **STudent FEEDback**, whereas a **STudent FEEDback** system may be a **FEEDback SYStem** that has something to do with students (e.g. was designed by students or is maintained by students). And while the **GOVERNment REVENue** policy is a policy concerned with the **GOVERNment REVENue**, the **GOVERNment REVENue policy** is a certain **REVENue policy** as implemented by the government (Plag, 2002).

Teaching methodology for compound vs phrasal stress distinction

Natives make little mistake to distinguish between the two because they are naturally familiar with them, therefore the teaching of such stress patterns to learners of English is very important for their progress in pronunciation skills. Such features can be taught them by exercising on a listing of minimal pairs or pictures representing a relevant compound or a phrase and asking them to

distinguish between the two. Students hearing a prerecorded tape with the names of the items learned may be asked to indicate which one it is that they've heard. The relevant syllables of the words may be marked with capitalized letters or their phonetic transcriptions may have suprasegmental features on them. Students can also be exposed to some sentences having these elements in them to distinguish meaning differences based on stress distinction. Thus the present study and related exercises below will serve the purpose of bringing an awareness in students for the distinction between compound and phrasal stress patterns of the English language in order to express their meaning more clearly.

Students should be made aware of the basic general characteristics of **compound and phrasal stresses**, and that compound stresses are right-headed and inherit their major properties from their head. Furthermore, compounds exhibit a regular compound-specific stress pattern differing systematically from that of phrases. As for the phrases they are stressed on their second parts, in other words, they have their prominence on their last part. And there are basically five elements summing up the **compound and phrase stress** distinction rules:

1. compounds combining two nouns have the stress on the first element, e.g. **TYPEWRITer**, **SUNRISE**, **TEA-CUP**, **SUITCASE**
2. Compounds with an adjectival first element and **-ed** at the end have stress on the second word, e.g. **BAD-TEMpered**, **HEAVY-HANDED**
3. Compounds in which the first element is a number tend to have final stress, e.g. **THREE-WHEELer**, **SECOND-CLASS**, **FIVE-FINGER**
4. Compounds functioning as adverbs are usually final-stressed, e.g. **HEAD-FIRST**, **NORTH-EAST**, **DOWNSTREAM**
5. Compounds which function as verbs and have an adverbial first element take final stress, e.g. **DOWN-GRADE**, **BACK-PEDAL**, **ILL-TREAT** (Roach, 2009)

Minimal pair demonstrations on phrasal stress and compound

Students can look at these examples on the board, with the explanations given from the loudspeaker and try to guess which item is meant by the relevant stress pattern:

a WHITEBOARD [C] (a board to write on) vs. **a WHITE BOARD** [P] (any board that is white) vs **a WHITE HOUSE** [C] (a house that is painted white) vs **the WHITE HOUSE** [P] (where the US president lives); **RED SOCKS** [C] (ordinary red socks) vs **RED SOX** [P] (Boston's baseball team)

Then students are given another listing of compounds vs. phrases and are asked to read them aloud making sure that both primary and secondary stresses are placed on their right places. The following demonstrations could be checked in dictionaries:

geOLOGist asTRONomer vs **geOLOGist asTRONomer**; **APPlEPIE** vs **'APPlE PIE**; **SCHOLAr-ACTivist** vs **SCHOLAr-ACTivist**; **APricot CRUMble** vs **APricot CRUMble**; **MICHigan HOSpital** vs **MICHigan HOSpital**; **MADison AVenue** vs **MADison AVenue**; **BOSTon MARathon** vs **BOSTon MARathon**; **PENny LANE** vs **PENny LANE**; **SUMmer NIGHT** vs **SUMmer NIGHT**; **aLUMinum FOIL** vs **aLUMinum FOIL**; **MAY FLOWers** vs **MAY FLOWers**; **SILK TIE** vs **SILK TIE**; **FOUNtain PEN** vs **FOUNtain PEN**; **HOSEPIPE** vs **HOSE PIPE**; **FAULT FINDing** vs **FAULT FINDing**; **MAKE-beLIEVE** vs **MAKE-be'LIEVE**; **ENGLISH TEACHer** vs **ENGLISH TEACHer**; **BUS conDUCTor** vs **BUS conDUCTor**; **ENgine DRIVer** vs **ENgine DRIVer**; **DINing ROOM** vs **DINing ROOM**.

Finally, students are asked to read some sentences containing minimal pairs of compound and phrases to make sure that the meaning intended is crystal clear by themselves and the audience:

“A **BULL-FIGHT** involves bulls. vs A **BULL CALF** is a young bull.; A **'FRENCH TEACHer** teaches French. vs A **FRENCH TEACHer** is French.; A **'SLATE QUARRY** yields slate. vs A **SLATE ROOF** is made of slate.; A

TOY FACTory produces toys. -- A **TOY FACTory** is a model of a factory used as a toy.

Exercise 1:

Read aloud the following compounds and adjective-noun phrases. Pay close attention to the placement of boldfaced type and accents. (The purpose of this is to test your ability to contrast left-strong-stressed patterns with right-strong-stressed patterns.):

1 blind date 2 blind spot 3 blood money 4 blood red 5 brown bear 6 brown sauce 7 Christmas card 8 Christmas Eve 9 double-take 10 double-talk 11 foul-smelling 12 foul-up (Teschner, 2004)

Exercise 2:

Predict these compounds' stress patterns, that is, right-strong-stressed or left-strong-stressed Then explain your prediction — to the extent that it is possible to do so. (If you can't predict a compound's stress unless you have a context, write an original sentence with the compound in it.):

1 freedom fighter 2 freight car 3 French horn 4 French-Canadian 5 full employment 6 full-blooded 7 full-length 8 garden apartment 9 apartment garden 10 gift certificate 11 general delivery 12 house dog 13 dog house 14 glove compartment 15 grade crossing 16 great-aunt 17 great-grandmother 18 habit-forming 19 low-grade 20 self-obsessed (Teschner, 2004)

Conclusion

This presentation has aimed to promote the awareness of Turkish students in their English Language Education departments on compound words and phrases. Because the teaching of compound and phrasal stress patterns to L2 learners is very important to increase their understanding of the spoken language and especially their oral performances. We can help them acquire such skills by getting them to know the basic elements of stress patterns and by drilling minimal pairs of such compound words or phrases and by asking them to distinguish between the two meanings. Students may be exposed to some

pictures and words on them referring to the names of the items, and be asked to indicate which one it is that they've heard. Words may be marked on the words with capitalized letters and with primary and secondary stresses shown on relevant syllables either as they are written ordinarily or in their IPA transcription. After drilling on many related examples, students are instilled full consciousness of the meaning-determining feature of stress placement in compounds and phrases and are then able to convey their intended meaning more clearly.

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Deconstructing Poetry for English Language Learners

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Abstract

Literary language, in particular, poetry, is an especially rich source for language instruction because of its content and linguistic qualities. However, proponents of using poetry in the English language classroom agree that its use is limited. This paper aims to provide a comprehensive framework for the teaching of poetry in the English language classroom; it aims to demystify the teaching of poetry by demonstrating how to deconstruct its content into a variety of pedagogically sound activities.

Key words: Literature, Poetry, Teaching Poetry, English Language Learners, English as a Second Language

Literature regarding the use of poetry in the English language classroom is abundant. Many researchers cite poetry as the perfect medium for language instruction. Despite its many proponents, the literature also reveals that the use of poetry in the language classroom is quite limited. This paper addresses this issue by providing a detailed framework for the teaching of poetry in the language classroom. It describes each step of a comprehensive lesson where poetry is the primary content. Every step is first conceptualized within a theoretical framework and followed by a description of useful classroom practices.

Background

English language teaching is both challenging and interesting because it requires the constant search for appropriate and stimulating content. Researchers have many ideas about what content is best for teaching English language learners; and many regard literature, and specifically, poetry, as an ideal content for achieving success in the language classroom.

The many proponents of using literature in the language classroom seem to adhere to its value as a source based on its content and/or linguistic richness. According to O'Sullivan (1999), Ainy (2008), Sauvidou (2004), and Nair (2004), literature is the quintessential language content. It offers a distinctive opportunity to use authentic

material that deals with human concerns, providing students with unique opportunities for creative thinking and involvement in classroom participation. Langer (2011) states that "through literature, students learn to explore possibilities and consider options; they gain connectedness and seek vision." According to Lazar (1996) literary texts provide access to other cultures, and they create a context for how individuals might have behaved, lived or felt in a specific historical period, making it a rich source for activities that prove very motivating for learners. Also, literature offers opportunities to engage in dialogic exchange through discussions of profound topics such as death, life, and love (Hall, 2003.)

The examination of literary content helps students become creative thinkers who explore various points of view. In a literary experience, different perspectives, feelings, intentions, life situations, eras, and cultures are considered; as such, different scenarios are created as a means of exploration. This experience, in turn, helps students become better informed members of the global society as well as improve their language proficiency.

Dressman (2010), Hadaway, Vardell, and Young (2002), and Hişmanoğlu (2005) argue that, in particular, poetry, the form of literature best suited for the teaching and learning of language skills, is often least emphasized and least taught in English language classrooms. Sauvidou (2004) asserts that a reason for this lapse stems from the position that historically the study language and literature has been separated. Some researchers maintain that literature is not representative of everyday language, and therefore, it is not suited for language teaching. Another reason that is given to explain the reluctance to use poetry in the language classroom is that the reader requires greater effort to interpret literary text.

However, it is believed that poetry can be used with all English language learners, including those with limited literacy and proficiency in English. Many researchers consider that poetry can be used in the language classroom to develop students' knowledge of English (Ramsaran, 1983, Ainy, 2008, Peyton & Rigg, 1999). Poems, in general, are considered a valuable source of authentic literary material that demands from students focus and active involvement with language. Ladousse (2001) contends that the use of poetry appeals to students' imagination and creativity, and Elster (2000)

adds that poetry is important in “developing imagination, interpretation and critical thinking skills.” Such learning experiences help language learners to develop their overall capacity to comprehend, analyze and infer meaning. Indeed, Ainy (2008) concludes that “poetry has characteristics as a use of language which makes it especially well qualified to assist learners develop the ability to use language and put linguistic forms to the service of meaning.” Nasr (2001) argues that using poetry both enriches students’ knowledge of vocabulary and language structures, and paves the way for a meaningful and rewarding appreciation of literature. Another interesting point is that poems are generally shorter texts, and therefore, they can be read and re-read, giving students multiple opportunities for practice (Van Yryhe, 2006.) Hanauer (2003, 2001) adds that poetry has a particular value in promoting multiculturalism and human diversity; this characteristic contributes to connecting students, who, in the language classroom, generally represent different cultures.

Teaching poetry engages students and helps them develop analytical skills and knowledge of language structure. The use of poetry in the language classroom also helps students build their confidence as it entices learners to express their ideas and feelings about universal topics that anyone can relate to either through personal experience or knowledge. The universality of poetry connects and unites students, drawing on the affective domain, which is so important to language teaching and learning. In addition, poetry’s varied intricacies allow students to explore and analyze the written word in a way that, perhaps, they had not before; thus, it helps them become more experienced and effective readers. Students, in short, have an opportunity to experience intense language practice through the study of poetry because it invites in-depth analysis, interpretation, and helps increase students’ language knowledge in general. Poetry is a perfect medium for English language teaching.

Purpose of Paper

This paper aims to demystify poetry as a means for instruction in the English language classroom. It will provide a comprehensive framework which contains a description for each step in a lesson using poetry as its content, including selecting a poem and its theme, using key concepts and vocabulary to introduce a poem,

formulating comprehension questions, examining specific language usage, applying literary devices, and, lastly, expressing ideas through writing.

Because students might feel hesitant or apprehensive about poetry, each lesson should be divided into sections designed to build on their understanding and enjoyment of the poem, and it should guide them through any intricacies the poem may present. In this multi-level lesson design, each of these sections scaffolds into the next, thoughtfully supporting and building on the students' understanding of the poem, the learning of literary devices and, at the same time, the development and improvement of language proficiency. It is believed that since poetry is so rich in its multi-levels of meanings that its teaching should model its design.

Sections of a Lesson

Select the Poem

Poem selection is the most important step in preparing to use poetry in the English language classroom. Selecting the right poem is crucial for attaining the lesson goals. So, what makes the poem right? There are several factors that influence this decision. According to Nuttall (1996), there are three criteria for text selection: suitability, exploitability, and readability. These traits can be addressed with the following questions: Is the text interesting, enjoyable, and challenging? Is the text appropriate (think about proficiency level, lesson goals)? Does the text contain specific language and content that contribute to the lesson's goals? Does the text lend itself to exploiting language skills?

Next, consider the theme of the poem; it should be relevant, universal, and relatable to all cultures. When students can identify with a theme, they will be able to express their opinions and make connections to personal experiences, whether lived or known. Some examples of universal themes may include love, aging, death, parenting, race and ethnicity, war, education, and nature. The theme of the poem can be used to open the lesson with general discussions about the topic, allowing students to begin to explore and prepare for a closer examination of the poem. Such discussions can help the educator conduct a formative assessment about students' background knowledge and personal experience with the topic, anchoring, from the start, the poem to meaningful learning.

Another important element to regard is the language level of the poem; it should not be so simple that students understand every word easily, and it should not be so difficult that students can not grasp a general sense of the poem. It should, instead, contain some degree of challenge that would engage students in deciphering language, finding meaning through context (Hadaway, Vardell and Young, 2001.) Rush (n.d.) suggests that text should contain the right level of complexity, and, at the same time, it should provoke an emotional response.

In general, poem selection should consider students' ability to grasp the overall sense of the topic, actions, and descriptions in the poem. When they first read it, they should be able to recall certain aspects of the poem, but not necessarily paraphrase the content at this point. The poem, as all content material for English language learners, should contain some key concepts or vocabulary words that are new to the students, thus, providing students with opportunities to build on their vocabulary repertoire and problem-solve.

Classroom Application

There are two ways to approach poem and theme selection in the English language classroom. A decision must be made regarding the function of poetry in a course; is it to be used as the content material as a whole or is poetry used to supplement other material? If the sole content for a course is poetry, the educator must think about themes are both interesting and appropriate for the course level. Here, a curriculum built around using poetry as content can be designed into thematic units with at least two poems per theme. While the possibilities are endless, some possible examples for this scenario may include the following classic poems. For a universal theme such as love, for example, the poems "Annabel Lee," "How Do I Love Thee," "Love and Friendship," "Oh, My Love is Like a Red, Red Rose," and "To My Dear and Loving Husband" can be employed. If the theme of age and aging is compelling, the poems "When I Was One-and-twenty," "When You Are Old," "The Human Seasons," "Do Not Go Gentle into That Good Night," "As I Grew Older," "Grown-up," and "Loveliest of Trees" might be taken into account. On the theme of parenting, "Those Winter Sundays," "My Papa's Waltz," and "The Chimney Sweeper" are options. These selections are, of course, offered as viable examples among endless options.

However, if poetry is used to supplement other material then the educator should select poems that complement and enhance the learning of the subject matter. For example, many English language learning textbooks include readings related to various academic disciplines such as history, sociology, psychology, and science. In this case, the selected poem should reflect some aspect of the subject matter and contribute in a meaningful way to learning content and developing language skills.

For example, in a text about history, one can consider a poem that reflects some aspect of the historical time frame presented in the text. There are many poems about war that represent a specific period in history; for instance, the poems "The Man He Killed," "War Is Kind," "I Hear An Army," "To Lucasta," "Dulce Et Decorum Est," "Not to Keep," "Mother And Poet," and "Iron" all discuss some aspect of a war and/or its effects. A reading about environmental science, perhaps can be supplemented with a poem about the beauty of nature such as "The Beauty of Trees," "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud," "The Eagle," or "The Wind." Again, a most significant consideration is to select a poem that connects to the subject matter in a focused and significant way.

Become Acquainted with the Poem

Once the theme and poem have been selected, it is time to get students acquainted with the poem. Before reading the poem in its entirety, several pre-reading activities should be conducted. The purpose of these activities is to direct attention to the text and to connect it to students so they are motivated to read (Carter & Long, 1991.) These should include activities that introduce the topic of the poem and activate schemata (Brown, 2001.) There are some learning strategies that are appropriate for these activities; for example, students can be asked to quickly skim the text and give brief impressions, make predictions, or connect the topic to what they already know. Ur (1991) suggests that a useful pre-reading activity should provide hints about the text, making it more interesting to the students.

Additionally, students should be exposed to a few key concepts, phrases or vocabulary words that might be new to them as such familiarity with these terms will encourage students to begin thinking about the poem. Exercises with these expressions should be created to ensure that students become comfortable with these new terms and are prepared to engage with the poem. Accordingly, Brown (2001) states that "students

can bring the best of their knowledge and skills when they have been given a chance to ‘ease into’ the passage.”

Classroom Application

Key concepts constitute vocabulary words or phrases that may be new or challenging for the students, language that may represent the historical time period of the poem, and even a grammatical point which may need clarification or give some information about the poem’s setting or historical time frame. For example, the poem “I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud” contains the words “o’er” and “oft,” because the usage is not common, it is very likely that students may not be familiar with these words as they are written. A simple clarification can make a big difference when students first encounter the poem, and knowing these words beforehand may help students focus on the poem’s meaning and interpretation in a more productive way. Students may very well be familiar with the word “offices,” when it refers to a place of work, but they may not know that it has other meanings as well. In the poem, “Those Winter Sundays,” “offices” means “responsibilities.” It may be useful to have students extrapolate meaning by having them explore this particular line of the poem. Other aspects of a poem that may be used here are examples of words or expressions that embody clues about the poem’s setting and/or historical time frame; for instance, in the poem “The Man He Killed” contains the words “nipperkin” and “half-a-crown,” a clear representation of a specific era and place.

To help students learn these new concepts and prepare for reading the poem, a variety of exercises should be developed. Some of the exercises that are appropriate for this section include a cloze exercise, where students are asked to complete sentences by filling in blanks using the new words, or an exercise that requires students to create original explanations and/or sentences using the new words. Another idea is to ask students to study the meaning of the words and devise how they can be used together or if they share a common theme. Here, students can also be asked to make predictions about the poem’s content and theme. A matching column can be designed where students are asked to either match the words with their definition or a description. An interesting exercise that can be used in this section is a words-in-context exercise; here,

students are asked to read and study original sentences that contain the new words, and they must construe the meaning of the words.

In addition to preparing to read the poem, these exercises are also meant to capture students' interest and inspire them to engage with the poem as well as give students a sense of ease and confidence to approach the poem.

Read the Poem

At this point, students have discussed the main theme of the poem, and they have become familiar with some key terms of the poem. The next step aims to more precisely prepare students to read the poem for the first time. Guided activities that will help students focus on either general or specific aspects of the poem should be developed. Students should be aware that they will read the poem at least two times at this stage; knowing this in advance will help ease any anxiety students may have about reading and understanding the poem. These first two initial readings should not be final; several and varied readings of the poem should be planned, and everyone in the class, including the instructor, should participate in these readings. For example, the teacher may read the poem to the class; this helps students listen for the pronunciation of the words in the poem. Hadaway, Vardell and Young (2002) affirm that the strong oral quality of poetry is a powerful pedagogical tool in the language classroom. It is also important to give students opportunities to listen to their inner voice through silent reading. Another reading activity is for students to read to each other in pairs or small groups. Lastly, an additional consideration is to read the poem aloud in choral fashion; this type of reading engages students in a non-threatening and collaborative activity. McCauley & McCauley (1992) state that choral reading is not only a useful risk-free activity, but it also serves to build confidence, improve diction, increase enjoyment and appreciation of literature and reading in general. Lastly, Hadaway, Vardell and Young (2001) also agree that reading poetry through read-aloud and/or choral reading activities can promote fluency.

Classroom Application

After reading the poem, it is time to ascertain what aspects of the poem have the students grasped. Take into account that tasks should be designed to help students approach the poem with confidence. For both the first and second reading of the poem,

students should be armed with specific tasks. For example, some questions that can be asked include: What aspect of the poem captured your attention? List some words you remember from the poem, and explain why these words may be significant? Can you paraphrase the poem? What idea or expression from the poem do you remember?

Exercises that require students to recall information, paraphrase, make predictions can all help the educator assess students' initial ideas and understanding about the poem, evaluate use of background knowledge, and assess vocabulary comprehension.

Understand the Poem

The purpose of this part of the lesson is to ensure that students understand the basic meaning of the poem. Reading comprehension questions should focus on the general content of the poem and should be formulated so that they are easily understood by students. These questions are more decisive than interpretative; they target specific aspects of the poem that are significant to its overall understanding. These questions elicit factual responses as they focus on the who, what, where, and when elements of the poem. Carter & Long (1991) define these types of questions as low-order questions as they only elicit the basic literal content of a text.

Classroom Application

This step in the lesson is significant because it serves as a foundation for movement into more complex levels of thinking and analysis found in the next steps. Students, here, are expected to have gain knowledge about the poem's basic meaning. This can be achieved and assessed with the use of a variety of techniques including reading comprehension questions, open discussions, paraphrasing, and summarizing. These tasks should elicit information about the factual aspects of the poem; some examples include knowing who is the speaker, what is happening, what are the major events or actions, where does the action take place, and how does this place contribute to the meaning of the poem. These types of questions are meant to draw out a central understanding and awareness of the poem.

Explore the Language

Having learned the basic meaning of the poem, students are now prepared to explore a deeper level of understanding by examining specific language usage. Students should feel encouraged to express their interpretations of the poem as they navigate an understanding of word selections, connotative meanings, and inferential information. There are two levels to this task: one explores language usage regarding diction, and the other explores the inferential level and ask students to interpret text, draw conclusions and explore nuances in the poem. This section allows students to experience a higher level of analytical skill and practice.

Classroom Application

Poems contain certain expressions that require special attention as these often carry implications other than the denotative meaning. Tasks that help students recognize and examine these expressions lead to a better and more profound understanding of the poem. Examples of questions or tasks that are appropriate here include exercises that yield information about the function of particular words or phrases, specific descriptions, and repetitions. For example, the poem "Richard Cory," is about an aristocrat who seems very happy to the townspeople; the poem uses specific words to emphasize his royal position. Here, some sample questions may include: Why is the word "glittered" used to describe him? What connection do the words "crown," "imperialy," "king," and "grace" have? These types of inquiries permit students to make connections between words and to think about the implications of word choice.

Inferential comprehension requires students to seek meaning beyond the explicitly stated and to think more critically about the poem's meaning. These types of questions should be designed to help students explore the deeper meaning of the poem.

Identify Literary Devices

This step in the lesson targets the learning and application of specific literary devices, which are selected based on the poem that is used. Learning literary devices is important in the study of poetry, and it also provides students with experience in working with the intricacies of literary language. Because literary devices may prove challenging to second language learners, two things are important here: one, ensuring that students understand the difference between literal and figurative language, and two,

when introducing literary devices, clear explanations with meaning and relatable examples are paramount. Gaining knowledge and understanding of the figurative aspect of the poem will allow students to more fully experience the poem. Students, at this point, are familiar with vocabulary, have read the poem several times and discussed it, have responded to comprehension questions, and have examined specific aspects of the language used in the poem, so they are better equipped to revisit the poem and work on its employed literary devices. This, in turn, can help students develop the ability to recognize and interpret nuanced layers of meaning, a skill that, according to Rush (n.d.), is transferable to comprehending other texts.

Classroom Application

Students should be asked to complete tasks that identify figurative language and explain how its use contributes to the overall understanding and significance of the poem. Particular emphasis should be given to exploring how the literary devices deepen the meaning of the poem. Clearly, literary devices must be taught before asking students to delve into a poem to identify and explain their use. Students respond well to learning literary devices when they are given clear definitions and numerous examples; it is advisable to provide many relatable examples. For instance, when exploring the use of similes, metaphors, and personifications, exercises that illustrate real experiences, that students will easily relate to, should be constructed. Also, to demonstrate understanding, students should be asked to generate and share their own original comparisons. Tasks should allow students to experience figurative language in multiple ways. Once they accomplish this, they will be ready to identify literary devices in the poem, and more importantly, to deepen their understanding of the poem.

At this point, by deconstructing the poem with all these steps, students have moved from learning specific key concepts to discussing the poem's literal, inferential and figurative content; these different levels understanding have prepared students to now reconstruct the poem, bringing together all its elements. It is recommended that students read the poem again and enjoy it in all its glory.

Write about the Poem

Students should now be encouraged to write about the poem. These assignments should provide students with opportunities to use a variety of skills that are distinctive

of academic rigor, including critiquing, evaluating, comparing and contrasting, and reflecting among many others. Students can have an opportunity to utilize critical thinking skills by being asked to connect their ideas to other texts, knowledge and experiences. In short, the writing tasks can be experiential or interpretive.

Classroom Application

Students here have an opportunity to express their ideas about a poem and make connections to their knowledge and experiences. There is an expansive spectrum of writing assignments that can be given at this point. Writing assignments can be about comparing and contrasting, relating to knowledge, experiences and other texts, critiquing texts, analyzing texts, giving personal opinions, examining perspectives, and writing journals that require students to think reflectively.

Writing assignments may ask students to compare and contrast two poems or provide a close examination of a poem and critique it. Students may also write about specific aspects of a poem; for example, they may write about the use of figurative language in poem and discuss its effectiveness. An interesting exercise is to ask students to write about a poem's relevancy today. An assignment may ask students to write their thoughts about a poem's ideas and/or outcome. Assignments can ask students to write about their personal engagement with a poem, relating it to their personal experiences and knowledge. Another writing idea is to ask students to practice self-writing by maintaining a response journal, where they record their feelings, reactions, and thoughts about the poems. This may also take the form of a dialogue journal, where both student and instructor share their thoughts. Another interesting assignment may ask students to write about a cultural or historical aspect of a poem; students may be interesting in connecting the poem's content to the culture or historical time represented in it.

Conclusion

The use of poetry in the second language classroom undoubtedly helps students in a variety of useful ways. Students will become more experienced readers, develop English language skills, enhance vocabulary, employ analytical skills, use authentic texts, and cultivate an appreciation for poetry. In addition, poetry entices students to think creatively, build confidence, explore different perspectives, distinguish between literal and figurative language, and work with intense language usage.

To sum up, by using poetry, students are given the gift of becoming familiar with an important literary genre, which at the same time, offers them unique learning experiences and knowledge about language.

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Web-based Content-Based Teaching Writing

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to give an idea about teaching writing skills with Content-based Instruction through websites and Web 2.0 tools. Application of CBI with computer and web-based tools, it will provide learners with the opportunities to learn and practice writing skills in its natural settings in a contextualized way. As it is known, writing lessons are generally boring and frustrating for most of the learners since writing courses are accepted as a passive skill by most of the language teachers. On the other hand, sometimes for some language teachers, writing lessons are for filling time. In order to make an efficient, enjoyable, interesting and motivating writing course, we emerged a writing lesson with a Web-based CBI writing lesson. By doing this, we tried to give a chance to the learners to move from the walls of their classroom to a naturalistic language learning environment. To create this CBI lesson, we generally need a well-equipped infrastructure, internet connection, and computer-assisted classrooms or labs. In addition, it is really necessary for each learner to have individual computers and internet connection at his/her homes. For this research, therefore, we came together with our students at a computer lab at our university. All learners were at least upper-intermediate level. During four days of study, learners dealt with different tasks to achieve their studies. At the end of the study, they were really satisfied with joining such an exciting lesson.

Key words: web-based, content-based, web 2.0, writing skills

Introduction

Language is context-sensitive, that is to say, an utterance becomes fully intelligible only when it is placed in its context. Therefore, the importance of meaningful context in language teaching becomes indispensable. Content-based Instruction is one of the approaches that emphasize this view since Content based Instruction (Henceforth, CBI) is a teaching method that emphasizes "learning about

something" rather than "learning about language". CBI emerges from the principles and moves beyond the communicative approach by creating a learning environment in which "...language is not a subject in its own right, but merely a vehicle for communicating about something else" (Nunan, 1993). Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) define content-based instruction "as the integration of content with language-teaching aims" (p. 2). It involves the teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills. The students, thus, receive curricular information and do their academic tasks in the target language and, at the same time, acquire or learn the L2/TL in a natural way.

Before CBI was taken instant interest, it was believed that firstly students should be made proficient enough to study subject matter. Thus, as Stryker and Leaver (1997) point out in most of our traditional language teaching classes there is an artificial separation of language instruction and subject matter. However, unlike any other traditional types of instruction, some models of CBI put equal emphasis on subject matter and language learning. Educators agree on the idea that successful language learning occurs when students expose to the target language in meaningful and contextualized forms and when their primary focus is on meaning. Learners learn language when they are studying specific topics and using the target language. Language learning is a natural outcome of this process. One major criterion is that language should be holistically learned in contrast with synthetic approaches which assume that we can only attain one thing at a time. This practical aspect is well argued by Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989), "such an approach lends itself quite naturally to the integrated teaching of the four traditional language skills. In this approach learners are exposed to study skills and learn a variety of language skills which prepare them for the range of academic tasks they will encounter". However, despite the shared features, CBI has some variations in itself.

The focus of a CBI lesson is on the topic or subject matter. During the lesson students are focused on learning about something. This could be anything that interests them from a serious science subject to their favorite pop star or even a topical news, story, documentary, or film. They learn about this subject using the language they are trying to learn, rather than their native language, as a tool for developing knowledge

and so they develop their linguistic ability in the target language. Students can also develop a much wider knowledge of the world through CBI which can feed back into improving and supporting their general educational needs. This is thought to be a more natural way of developing language ability and one that corresponds more to the way we originally learn our first language.

The three models of CBI, theme-based, sheltered and adjunct language instruction, were discussed by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989). All the models of CBI have one thing in common that is "the learning of a second language and mastery of content knowledge" (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989). Despite the shared features, they differ in the following aspects:

1. **Theme-based Language Instruction:** Theme-based Instruction is one of the widespread models of CBI. The theme which has been selected provides the basis for language analysis and practice. Theme-based language classes differ from traditional language classes. On the other hand, in theme-based instruction, the themes are studied more in depth. The syllabus is structured around themes or topics, with the linguistic items in the syllabus subordinated to the content mastery. In a theme-based course, the content is exploited and its use is maximized for the teaching of skills areas (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989). Moreover, the selected themes (contents that students will study) are organized in such a way that it creates an overall coherence in the syllabus. In theme-based courses the students learn through thematic units, become familiar with the general context. Thus, new information is easy to introduce, making it much more meaningful.

2. **Sheltered Content Instruction:** Sheltered courses are the content courses taught in the target language by a content area specialist. "A sheltered content based course is taught in a second language by a content specialist to a group of learners who have been segregated or sheltered from native language speakers" (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 19889). Sheltered content instruction is the delivery of content information to English language learners in a modified and accessible way. In sheltered language courses teachers use a number of teaching strategies such as modeling and demonstration. Teachers of sheltered instruction need to know effective second and foreign language teaching strategies as well as their

content area knowledge. Snow and Brinton (1997) suggest that "in sheltered English, teachers use highly specific techniques and strategies to develop concepts and themes." In this stimulating context, the learners do not focus on learning a second language but rather on understanding the content or message. The primary focus in sheltered classes is on providing comprehensible input to increase the English as a Second Language (ESL) learners' ability to understand the subject matter.

3. Adjunct Language Instruction: Learners, in this type of model, are enrolled in two linked courses; the language course and the content course. The idea is that they should complement each other. In this model, ESL learners attend an academic content course which is paired with an ESL language course. Thus, the content instruction is integrated with ESL language instruction. The students' focus is on mastering the content knowledge in both of the courses while the ESL instructor struggles to balance the emphasis given to language skills and the content mastery. Clearly the adjunct model requires coordination among administrative staff, language and content specialists, tutors, etc. Both language and the content instructors need to attend a series of meetings before the term begins in order to plan the program.

In sum, it can be said that although CBI is not new, there has been an increased interest in it over the last ten years, particularly in the USA and Canada where it has proven very effective in ESL immersion programs. This interest has now spread to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms around the world, including Turkey, where teachers are discovering that their students like CBI and are excited to learn English this way. There are textbooks that can be used for theme based CBI classes which usually contain a variety of readings followed by vocabulary and comprehension exercises. These can then be supplemented with additional information from the Internet, magazines, documentaries, journals, newspapers and other sources. However, another approach is to use specially constructed source books which contain collections of authentic materials or simplified versions. These can be about a particular theme such as drug use, global warming, internet addiction, changing seasons, care of the elderly, or about more general topics. It's possible to create some really interesting

classroom materials as long as the need for comprehensibility is not forgotten. What does a content-based instruction lesson look like? There are many ways to approach creating a CBI lesson by using internet web sites. This is one possible way. The course will take 3 lesson hours during 3 days.

Participants

For this application, we studied with a group of 4th grade ELT Department students from Samsun Ondokuz Mayıs University. All students are at least upper-intermediate level in English. They all know how to use computers and technological devices to access information through websites. Before the program started, they were given short information about CBI to make them be aware of its implications on writing skills.

Procedure

DAY ONE The First meeting

Step 1: Getting started: The Physical World

The first meeting of the class starts with "The Physical World" theme. As it is known that the great variety in geographical features around the world is astounding such as the high mountains of Tibet, the lush jungles of South America, the ice and snow of the arctic regions, etc. , so we think that most of the students will get interested in this topic. First, students are asked to visit an any appropriate website using an internet browser and choose 6 photos of various parts of the world and their inhabitants and then write an answer for these previously prepared questions by me: 1)What parts of the world do these photos represent? 2) How do these areas of the world differ from each other? 3) What are the unique features of each one? 4) What effect does geography have on the culture and history of a group of people? and 5) Do geographical differences cause cultural differences?

Step 2: Brainstorming

When they finished answering the questions, we wanted them to work in small groups of three or four and make a list all the facts they are aware of about the people who live in these parts of the world. And we also warned them to think about what kind of work they do, what they eat, what they wear, how they live, their type of housing, their religion, their political and social systems, their artwork, and anything else they

can think of. At the end of discussion they filled their findings on a sheet of paper under the given headlines: location, work, food, clothing, type of housing, and other.

Step 3: Free writing

Later they worked in groups again to write for 15 minutes without stopping about physical environment of the area that they had come from. We wrote some questions on the board to give them some ideas, for example: Is it urban or rural? What geographical features are there? (mountains, plains, lakes, seas, etc.) What's the weather like? What is it known/famous for? After they finished, each group read their answers, we discussed and ended the course to meet for the next day.

DAY 2

Step 1: Reading for ideas

For our second day meeting in the class, we visited a website and read a text titled, " Inuit Culture, Traditions and History" on (http://www.windows2universe.org/earth/polar/inuit_culture.html), but before reading a text , we told students they would answer the questions given below by looking at the title: 1) In what part of the world do Inuit live? 2) What do they eat? 3) What do they wear? 4) Describe the region in which they live in . 5) What can you say about their traditions? (They were given 5 minutes to complete their answers). They discussed and wrote their answers on a sheet of paper. Then, they began to read the text on the web site and after they finished reading the text on the website, then we wrote 5 questions on the board and wanted them to write the answer of those questions: 1) Would you like to live in Arctic region? Why? Why not? 2) How was traditional Inuit of way life influenced by the harsh climate? Explain. 3) What are the basic differences of igloos from the other types of houses around the world? 4) How did their life change over the past century? 5) What are the basic food materials for Inuit? After they finished answering the questions, we asked them to compare and contrast their answer with their classmates and complete their missing parts if they had any.

Step 2: Gathering Information

We divided the class into small groups and told them we would play a game. The name of the game is "scavenger hunt game" in which the players, in teams, must find unusual objects or answers to difficult questions. The team that finishes first and has the

most correct items wins. Then we explained that they may interview with classmates, friends, teachers, parents, and they may do library or internet research. They will notice that some of the following questions are more difficult than the others and some of them are actually groups of questions on the same topic. They will answer the questions by working with other students.

Questions are:

1. Name an ethnic group noted for longevity. How is this longevity influenced by the environment in which these people live?
2. What does manifest destiny mean? What does it have to do with Turkish history and/or culture?
3. Which five cities have the greatest population density? How did these cities become so large?
4. Which five countries in the world have the largest populations? For each country, find out how many languages are spoken?
5. Find one religion in which a natural phenomenon (a mountain, the sea, and so forth) plays an important part. Explain the significance of this phenomenon in the religion.
6. What are the five longest rivers in the world? Choose three and explain how the rivers affect life in these areas.

DAY 3

Step 1: Improving Critical thinking

In the third day of our class, students came into the lesson with the answers of the previous day's questions. They came together in groups and began to discuss their answers. Later, we asked them to jot down some facts they may know about the geographical areas listed below: Turkey, Saudi Arabia, Germany, The Netherlands, Afghanistan, and Greece. After 10 minutes, they began to read their writings and compare/contrast their answers.

Step 2: Language for writing

When we finished reading and discussing the answer of the activity, we gave them two tasks. We told them to work in groups again (at least 4 students in each group) and complete their tasks. The allocated time for this activity was approximately

25 minutes. When they finished, each group told about their tasks, discussed and shared their ideas. Tasks were as follows:

a) Look at each of the environmental terms on website ([http://www.google.com /images?](http://www.google.com/images?)) and write all the words and expressions that come into your mind as you see each term by making a vocabulary diagram. Write down anything that you think of but make sure that what you write is related to the original term. Notice that you can use nouns, verbs, adjectives or other expressions.

b) Now make a list of the new words. Divide them into nouns, verbs, adjectives, and expressions as we have done in previous chapters. Share your list with your classmates.

DAY 4

This was our last lesson day. For that reason, we practiced and revised what they had learned, Later they were given their assignment.

Step 1: Practicing and revising what they had learned

They work in groups again. This time we want them to:

a) Make a vocabulary diagram or schedule for the Arctic region.(either in alphabetical order or topic based classification)

b) Write a paragraph in which they describe one of their favorite places, including descriptions of any people, animals, or objects that they see there.

Later, we checked their studies and let them share their ideas with the whole class.

Step 2: Writing assignments

Now, it's time give their assignments. We gave them two topics and wanted them to write an essay on one of the following topics. They will use new vocabulary and expressions they learned in this lesson and make sure that their paragraphs are clear and coherent. And we remind them not to forget to develop their ideas by using information. Some sample assignments are as follows:

a) Discuss the effects of the environmental features of a particular part of the world on the people who live there. Use the information you gathered in part one.

b) Compare two different regions of the world. In your comparison consider the environmental features and how they affect the inhabitants.

c) Write an essay about any aspect of environment and culture that interests you.

Interview

At the end of our lesson and experience, we made an interview with randomly selected 5 students. The aim of this interview was to check, evaluate and take a feedback from learners about the program. The following questions were asked:

1. Was the program successful for your opinion?
2. Did the CBI lesson meet your expectations?
3. Were you satisfied with the program?
4. How did you find the use of technology in language lessons?
5. Should language learning/teaching be supported by technology?

Evaluation of the Interview

In response to question 1, all students answered positively. They indicated that they liked the program but they had suspect about whether these types of programs would change the current situation in EFL classrooms and make positive improvements for the process of learners. For question 2, 3 students indicated “yes” stating that the CBI lesson met their expectations because it really made a positive effect on their concentration and learning process. In relation to question 3, again 3 students stated that they were satisfied with the program although they had some prejudice about the application of web-based lessons and they were a bit excited at the beginning of the program. In response to questions 4 and 5, all participants stated their own positive attitudes.

Conclusion

We live in a technological century where you can easily access any kind of knowledge through internet. Our students, on the one hand, like to use technological devices and internet. Therefore, as teacher of English we think that using internet for writing lessons will be interesting, motivating, and challenging for not only language teachers but also for learners. We believe that language is most effectively learned using a communicative approach where the students' knowledge, interest, and individual needs are addressed through authentic materials used in a variety of fun, comprehensible, challenging, interesting, up-to-date, and informative task-based

activities which are in turn connected to some focus on form CBI which keeps us motivated as a teacher. There are several ways by which it does so. It allows us to use new materials, especially the authentic ones, in a way that meets our requirements and beliefs about how learn a foreign language. The CBI also allows us to be creative in what materials we use, how we use them, and how we change them to meet our students' needs.

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How to Incorporate Collaborative Learning in ESP Courses

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Abstract

Collaborative learning (CL) plays an important role in preparing college and university students for the workplace. In fact, Beckman (1990, p. 128) states that collaborative learning enables students “to deal with increasingly complex workplace problems and processes that require individuals to pool their resources and integrate specialization”. To this end, the presenter implements collaborative learning in her teaching of two advanced ESP courses, namely *Business Communication Skills* and *Technical Writing*, at a private Lebanese English-speaking university. In this paper, the author aims to share her fruitful experience in implementing this pedagogical practice in ESP courses so that other interested teachers can follow it. Thus, the author (1) defines how she uses CL, (2) reviews the literature on CL benefits (3) explains the theoretical framework that relates to CL, (4) provides a step-by-step procedure of how she incorporates CL in these two ESP courses, (5) discusses some of the challenges that faced her and her students, and (6) suggests ways to overcome these challenges.

Key words: collaborative learning, ESP, Business Communication Skills, Technical Writing Skills, group projects.

Introduction

In this paper, the author discusses her experiences in implementing collaborative learning (CL) in her two English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, namely *Business Communication Skills* and *Technical Writing*, at a private Lebanese English speaking university.

Believing in what Ingleton, Doube, Rogers, and Noble (2000, p. 2) states, “There is an upswing in demand by staff, students, and employers for students to graduate with good interpersonal skill, knowledge of group dynamics, the flexibility to work in teams, the ability to lead, to problem-solve and to communicate effectively”, the author tries to instill these job-related skills in her students to be prepared for the workplace. Because

CL “prepares students to deal with increasingly complex workplace problems and processes that require individuals to pool their resources and integrate specializations” (Beckman, 1990, p. 128) and because “‘team player’ is often linked with business success” (Brown, n.d., p.2), the author incorporates CL in her teaching of the above mentioned two ESP courses to help her students develop these job-related skills and become successful team players. Further information about the courses is given in the context section.

In the following sections, the author defines CL, explains the theoretical framework that relates to CL, and discusses some of the benefits of this pedagogical practice. Moreover, the author describes the context where she implements CL and proceeds to give a detailed step-by-step process of how she incorporates CL in her teaching. The author discusses some of the challenges that she has experienced and might face other teachers and their students in implementing CL and suggests ways to overcome these challenges.

Collaborative Learning (CL)

As CL is a key concept in this paper, a definition of how the author understands and uses this pedagogy becomes necessary. Different researchers define collaborative learning differently. Citing Johnson and Johnson (1996), Wang and Burton (2010, p. 2) define CL as “the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning”. Gokhale (1995) defines CL as “an instructional method in which students at various performance levels work in small groups towards a common goal [and] the students are responsible for one another’s learning as well as their own” (para.1). Moreover, Brown (n.d., p. 2), who uses CL interchangeably with cooperative learning or small group learning, defines it as a “technique designed to make learning a lively and successful process”. According to Bonwell and Eison (1991, p. 2), CL is a strategy “that involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing”. All of these definitions emphasize the active involvement of students in small groups to construct their own learning.

Similar to the aforementioned researchers, the author defines it as a pedagogical practice in which students work together in small groups of two or more to complete a common task within the class session or outside the classroom for a certain period of time ranging between two weeks and a month depending on the complexity and the scope of the task. Like Gokhale (1995), Johnson and Johnson (1996), and Wang and Burton (2010) among others, the author aims to maximize students' learning when having them work in groups. Unlike Gokhale (1995), the author does not always select groups on the basis of students' performance; different selection criteria are used (further discussed on p.11).

Theoretical Framework

According to Oxford (1997, p. 447), CL is based on socio-constructivism which Brooks & Brooks (1993, p. vii) refer to as a “theory about knowledge and learning”. This theory is “rooted in the cognitive developmental theory of Piaget and in the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky” (Kaufman, 2004, p.303). Four major learning principles characterize this theory. The main principles of this learning theory can be summarized as follows:

1. *The notion of knowledge:* To constructivists, knowledge does not exist “out there in any objective sense” (Cobb, 2005), and thus it cannot be transmitted. That is, constructivists, unlike behaviourists, do not regard knowledge as a product but rather as a process of sense-making in which learners play an active role, through which they can experience Piaget's (1971) process of cognitive development: disequilibrium, assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium, and during which teachers are viewed as facilitators of this process. Thus, constructivists believe that learners construct their knowledge as a result of their interaction with others in their environment.

2. *Learner-centredness:* Because learners are viewed as active constructors of their knowledge and not as “objects responding to stimuli” or empty containers to be filled with knowledge (Ellis, 1994, in Min et al., 2009, p. 600), the knowledge constructed by one learner could be different from that

constructed by another. That is, "each of us uniquely creates or builds our own knowledge ... based on what we already know, and each idea we learn facilitates our on-going intellectual development" (Knight, 2002, in Reyes & Vallone, 2008, p.36). Thus, our prior knowledge usually filters later learning (Jones and Brader-Araje, 2002).

3. *Collaboration and social context*: Jones and Brader-Araje (2002) state that "learning from a social constructivist perspective is a process *involving others*" (emphasis added). According to Vygotsky (1978) learning begins when learners are socially and verbally interacting with people around them in their environment, and hence "cognitive development should be enhanced when children work cooperatively or collaboratively with adults and other children" (Gage and Berliner, 1988, p. 124). The "continual interplay, between the individual and others, is described by Vygotsky as the zone of proximal development (ZPD)" which is defined as "the intellectual potential of an individual when provided with assistance from a knowledgeable adult or a more advanced child" (Jones and Brader-Araje, 2002). In addition, Vygotsky (1978) emphasised the role of the social context in learning. According to constructivists, the environment where learning takes place should be stimulating enough for the learners to allow discovery and exploratory learning.

4. *The role of language*: Vygotsky (1978) argues that language is so essential in the learning process that it serves as a tool mediating higher order thinking; it is "the basis for thought" (p. 90). When children acquire a language, they gain a method to think in new ways as well as a cognitive tool to understand the world around them. Children do not only use language to communicate their actions to others but also to direct their learning.

Benefits of Collaborative Learning

A lot of research has confirmed the benefits of CL on students' learning. According to Johnson and Johnson (1986, as cited in Gokhale, 1995), collaborative teams do better in activities that require higher-order thinking and retain information

longer than those students who work individually. Gokhale's (1995) experimental study reveals that CL (1) helps students to foster critical thinking as well as problem-solving skills and (2) increases their learning interest. Similarly, Totten, Sills, Digby, and Russ (1999) list three advantages of CL on students: (1) engaging them in discussion, (2) taking responsibility for their own learning, and (3) becoming critical thinkers.

Citing many researchers, Kreijns, Kirschner, and Jochems (2003) summarized the benefits of CL- some of which are presented earlier- as leading to “deeper level learning, critical thinking, shared understanding ... long term retention of the learned material ... opportunities for developing social and communication skills, developing positive attitudes to co-members and learning material, ... building social relationships and group cohesion, ... effectiveness of social construction of knowledge and ... the development of competencies” (p. 337).

Brown (n.d., p.1), investigating the students' perceptions of CL, states that most students “claim to have derived academic benefits such as comprehension and improved performance, and acquired generic skills-enhanced communication and problem solving skills”. Besides, almost half of the participants reported to have “gained social skills” (Brown, n.d., p.1).

Not only are CL benefits felt in the classroom environment, they extend to the workplace (Beckman, 1990). In fact, CL “prepares students to deal increasingly with complex workplace problems and processes ...” (Beckman, 1990, p. 128). Likewise, Musa, Mufti, Abdul Latiff, and Mohamed Amin (2011, p. 194) conclude that project-based learning, which is based onCL, “facilitates the transference and inculcation of workplace related skills among the subjects [participants] ...such as team working, managing conflicts, decision making, and communication skills”. Besides these skills, the researchers report that participants have become “more independent, confident, and productive in generating and discussing ideas” (Musa, et al., 2011, p. 194).

Thus, CL benefits seem to be unequivocal. Following the M.I.T. Commission on Industrial Productivity that concludes “if teamwork is to be encouraged in the organizations of the future’ ... ‘teamwork skills and experience need to be part of our

educational programs” (as cited in Beckman,1990,p. 129), the author implements CL in her teaching. According to Brown (n.d., p.2), “In a world where being a ‘team player’ is often linked with business success, CL is a very useful and relevant tool”.

Teacher’s Role

To facilitate “students’ acquisition of learning and generic skills” (Ingleton et al., 2000, p.2), the traditional teacher’s role, “the sage on the stage” should be turned to “the guide on the side” (Cifuentes, 1996). In other words, the teacher should not transmit knowledge but should help students construct their learning. More specifically, the teacher “acts not only as a resource but also as a guide and a facilitator” (Musa, et al., 2011, p. 189). Besides “teaching and explaining concepts” (Brown, n.d., p.4), the teacher should step aside and facilitate students’ taking responsibility for their learning. According to Brown (n.d., p.5), the duties of the teacher as a facilitator “include monitoring and intervening ... [which] are done through such activities as:

- a. Observing students to see that they work as a team
- b. Monitoring each team’s progress
- c. Explaining concepts and tasks as the need arises
- d. Mediating and teaching social skills in cases of conflicts among group members
- e. Commending good group efforts and interaction”.

For the teacher to assume such a role is not easy as it requires a lot of training, careful planning, as well as good time management and organizational skills (Saba ‘Ayon, 2012, pp.16-18) .

Context

This paper reports the author’s experience in implementing CL in *Business Communication Skills* and *Technical Writing*, two advanced ESP courses, at a Lebanese Private English speaking university.

The main aim of these courses, each of which is 3-credits taught over a semester, is to prepare students to be professional communicators and team players in their

workplace environments. To this end, the author, through the use of CL, helps students to acquire skills that are essential in their prospective workplace such as problem-solving skills, the ability to meet deadlines, negotiation skills, tolerance, critical thinking, social skills, and oral as well as writing skills among others. These courses are prerequisite for the students' internship training as well as for their senior projects.

Students in these courses are advanced English learners (Minimum TOEFL grade is 560). Most of them are seniors, and some junior or sophomore students can enroll in these ESP courses as long as the latter groups have passed the English prerequisite courses for these ESP courses. All business students are required to take *Business Communication Skills*, whereas engineering, graphic design, and communication and science information system students have to take *Technical Writing*.

As to the course objectives, students in these courses learn how to write and use different forms of job-related correspondence such as memos, e-mails, letters, instant messaging, curriculum vitae (CV), reports, and proposals. As communication can be done orally and/ or in writing, students also learn how to give professional presentations.

The main difference between these two courses lies in the topics selected to match the students' different majors. For example, business students are exposed to business management or marketing related topic, whereas engineering students are exposed to topics related to civil or electrical engineering.

Process of Implementing CL

In this section, the author presents a detailed ten-step process of how she implements CL in her ESP courses.

Step 1: Use ice-breaker

The implementation of CL begins on the first day of the semester when the author uses ice breakers to help students to get to know each other, socialize, and create a friendly relaxing environment. One ice breaker that students usually enjoy and that serves the purpose of getting to know one another is the interview technique. The author instructs the students to look around, locate one student that they do not know and

would like to meet. After that, she asks them to move and sit next to that student, interview him/her about himself/herself, and then switch roles. The author encourages students to ask questions that are likely to elicit information about the student's personality, likes and dislikes while avoiding any embarrassing or too personal questions. After they finish their interviews, each student presents his/her new friend. To add interest to the activity and ensure students' attentiveness to others, the teacher informs the students that at the end of the session, the student who can introduce all of his/her classmates by their names can get a credit, which could plus 2 grades on the first assignment.

To ensure the success of the activity, the author keeps track of time and instructs the students when to begin the interview, when to switch role, and when to present. To allow time for introducing each other, interviews should be scheduled for 10-15 minutes. Depending on the class size, the time for the interviews and introductions can be allocated according to the teacher discretion.

Step 2: Introduce Team work

Students need to know about team work: its definition, advantages, challenges, and ways to ensure its success. The author helps them construct their learning about team work by asking them to sit in groups of 4 or 5 members (depending on the class size), brainstorm on team work, and use their textbooks to gather information about it. By the end of the session, students learn through working together that a team "is a group of individuals who depend on each other to accomplish a common objective" (Ober & Newman, 2013, p. 36). They also learn that teams are more creative, more efficient and more synergic (ibid, p.36). At the same time, they understand that if not handled properly, teams can "waste time, accomplish little work, and create a toxic environment" especially when personal conflicts arise (ibid, p.36). To secure team success, students learn that teams should satisfy their initial goals, the most important of which is that members need (1) to know each other very well such as "their strengths and weaknesses, work style, experiences, attitudes and so on" to collaborate effectively in teams and (2) "agree on how they will operate and make decisions" (ibid, p.36).

Step 3: Help Students Develop Negotiation and Social Skills

An important aspect of CL is students' developing their negotiation and social skills because the way team members exchange ideas, make decisions, and give feedback on each other's work can either facilitate or hinder their learning collaboratively. Thus, learning how to express one's opinion without hurting or frustrating others becomes essential. Similarly, learning how to be open-minded and accepting others, no matter how different they are, facilitate their CL. To this end, the first two skills students should learn are to be good listeners and to give constructive feedback. In other words, students should learn to listen carefully by avoiding (1) jumping to conclusions, (2) discarding any idea based on any personal judgment, and (3) being biased to one's ideas. Instead, they should learn (1) to be open to any idea suggested by any member as long as it is likely to improve their work, (2) discuss ideas objectively, and (3) make decisions that reflect the thinking of almost all the group members.

As to giving constructive feedback, whose main objective is to critique the work of others in order to improve the performance of the whole team, students should learn to balance their feedback between positive and negative comments. To ensure appropriate tone and avoid the listener/ reader's frustration, students should begin with their positive comments and proceed to give their negative ones in a professional, positive tone. Such tone can be ensured when students' feedback is descriptive, free from labels and exaggeration, reflective of one's opinion (not others), and expressed in "I" statements. For example, one can say "your ideas are great, but I found sentence 3 difficult to understand. I consider you revise it. What do you think?"

By learning to be good listeners and to give constructive feedback, students are likely to develop good negotiation and social skills.

Step 4: Monitor and Facilitate students' Collaboration in class Activities

In order to provide students with enough practice on CL, the author makes use of every opportunity in class to have students collaborate to accomplish a task. Some of these tasks could be responding to a routine e-mail request, writing a sales letter

promoting a product or a service, refusing a claim, or proposing a new idea to solve a problem in one's corporation. During such tasks, students discuss the writing prompt within their groups of 4 or 5 members, identify the purpose of the task, analyze their intended reader or audience, decide on the appropriate organizational plan, and draft, revise, as well as format together their writing document.

While the students are working within their groups, the author passes among the groups to monitor their progress and facilitate their learning, if needed, through questioning students' logic, hinting at illogical student reasoning, and providing resources for students to help them accomplish their tasks.

Step 5: Involve Students in Real-life, Job-Related Tasks

Now that the students have developed the required skills and practiced CL in the classroom under the author's supervision, it is time for the students to apply CL in accomplishing a project that requires to work outside the classroom. Such a project can be a research proposal, research report, feasibility study, and/or progress report. Each of these tasks requires students' collaboration in groups of minimum three members to accomplish their task. Although groups of three might provide less diversity and less diversion thinking styles (Rau and Heyl, 1990), the size of the group is selected according to the number of students in class and the scope of the assignment.

As to group selection, research in the literature does not provide one single recipe to follow. It can be done heterogeneously or homogeneously (according to students' academic achievement), through self-selection or random assignment. This depends on the teacher's objectives. If the teacher aims to ensure students' reaching their optimum potential, heterogeneous grouping is used as students working with more able students are challenged and can reach their maximum potential (Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, 1978). However, if the teacher is afraid of student's dependency on one student and other members become free riders, then the teacher groups students based on their academic achievement. If the author aims to improve students' socializing skills and making new friends, then s/he assigns them in groups randomly rather than through self-selection because students are likely to select their friends to work with on the

assigned project. After being grouped, the group members' first task is to get to know each other: their email address, mobile number, facebook account, likes, dislikes and their other interests.

Step 6: Help Students Develop a Work Plan

Slavin (1989) maintains that there must be “group goals” and “individual accountability” to ensure effective CL. Thus, to help group members set their goals and have members accountable for their tasks, the author helps each group/team to develop their own work plan or time line in a table consisting of four columns and multiple rows. The four columns are titled as due date, tasks, responsible member(s), medium of communication, and the number of rows depends on the number of sub- tasks they need to take to accomplish their project. This work plan can help group members to track their progress and ensure member's accountability. This also helps the author to follow on group members' progress.

Step 7: Encourage the Use of Different Media for Communication

As this project requires students to work outside the classroom, the author encourages the students to use different media to communicate such as the e-mail, what'sapp, BBM, facebook, wikis, Skype instead of depending on face to face meetings as a lot of students have complained about having a common free time to meet to work on their project. In this way, students come to understand that these technological facilities, which they themselves use in their personal lives, are to be used in facilitating their communication with other members to complete their common project, thus becoming prepared to collaborate with people on different parts of the world in their prospective workplaces.

Step 8: Assign Individual Conferences with Each Group/Team

Although the students are working collaboratively outside the classroom, the author still has to monitor and facilitate their work. Thus, the author assigns a 15-minute individual conference for each group to meet with, discuss their progress and provide feedback on their work. During such conferences, the author can also check for each member's accountability. Not only during such conferences do students seek the

author's help and guidance, they are also encouraged to do so during the author's office hours.

Step 9: Facilitate Students' Research and Writing Assignment

Although the students are involved in their projects outside the classroom, the author gears class activities to facilitate the students' research process and writing of their projects. For example, instructions on how to construct questionnaires and conduct interviews are given in class. If any group plans to use a questionnaire to collect its data, the author during office hours provides individual assistance for that group such as checking their constructed questionnaire before administering it.

In addition, instructions on how to analyze their collected data are given in class, and samples of data analysis are shared with students in class. In this way, students come to understand what is expected from them in their projects. Besides, samples similar to their assignments are discussed with them in class.

Step 10: Prepare Students to Give Professional Team Presentations

After the groups finish their written projects, they have to share their own projects with the other groups in the class orally in a professional team presentation using multimedia. To be able to do so, the author instructs the students on how to give a professional team presentation, to prepare a professionally looking power point presentation, to develop good presentation skills (see appendix B for a presentation handout). The author emphasizes that the team unity and cohesion are very important elements to ensure the success of their presentation. Members of the same group are expected to support and help each others throughout the presentation.

These steps, which have helped the author to foster a collaborative learning environment in her class and prepare her students to a collaborative working environment, are likely to yield the same results if any interested teacher follows them in his/her class.

Possible Challenges

Implementing CL is not challenge-free. Some of the challenges that have faced the author are time, student attitudes and student capacities. As to time, implementing

CL requires more time than traditional teaching in terms of developing collaborative activities, teaching group dynamics, having students work in groups to accomplish a task.

Another challenge is students' attitudes towards working with others. Some students "who are academically competitive and self-motivated may resent collaborative learning at first, fearing that they will do the whole work and the others will just simply "hitchhike" on their achievement (Brown & Lara, 2007, n.p.). At the other end, some students might show no interest in the group's work. As a result, they do nothing and depend on others to do the work, social loafing.

A third challenge is students' capacities. As students come to class with diverse interpersonal skills, collaborative learning for introverted students is a little "apprehensive because it requires them to communicate verbally [as] they cannot remain passive or disengaged" (Brown & Lara, 2007, n.p.).

Ways to Overcome the Challenges

Time, one of the challenges to implementing CL, could be overcome with careful planning, organizing and training. The more trained and organized the teacher, the easier is the implementation of CL. Applying CL in the classroom for the first time is likely to be a very challenging experience. However, it is expected to be less challenging on a subsequent time if the teacher is reflective of his/her performance, has enough self-efficacy, has a positive attitude toward CL, and perceives CL as a valuable technique for students' learning (Saba 'Ayon, 2012).

The second challenge, students' dependency on others (hitchhiking and social loafing) could be overcome when the teacher clearly communicates to the students how they will be graded. Although the students will be working on one project, they should be told that they cannot get equal grades unless they do the work equitably. In this case, every member expects to do an equal share, and his/her individual accountability can be determined based on the prepared work plan and the teacher's as well as the group members' follow-up.

Because socializing is encouraged on day one, introverted students are more likely to be more sociable by the time they are working closely with a small group to accomplish their project.

Conclusion

This paper, which is based on the author's experience in implementing CL in ESP courses to help students acquire job-related skills, provides a useful step by step process that not only ESP teachers but also teachers of academic English and any other subject can follow in implementing CL in their classrooms.

Although the author has been implementing this instructional practice for over five years (equivalent to 15 semesters), she always looks for ways to improve her strategy. That is why she is researching her students' perception of CL in their ESP courses. She hopes that by finding about their attitudes towards CL, its effectiveness on their learning, and the challenges they face, she can adjust her pedagogical practice to better address their needs as well as interests and to help them overcome the challenges that impede learning.

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Awareness Raising Through Texts

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Introduction

This paper aims to discuss in what ways the content of ‘subject matter’ and ‘language development’ courses can be integrated to raise consciousness of students with the aim of developing their translation competence at the Departments of Translation and Interpreting. To be able to show how this kind of integration can be made, specific topics from the ‘linguistics’, ‘comparative syntax’, ‘semantics’ and ‘anthropology’ course contents will be focused on in the presentation of in-class activities. Theoretical discussion behind the suggestions in terms of development of ‘translation competence’ will depend on ‘the type of syllabus specification’, and ‘the role of consciousness in language learning’. Examples of classroom activities will be presented at the levels of ‘sentence’, ‘utterance’ and ‘text’, which will provide insights into ways of raising students’ awareness through texts.

1. Theoretical assumptions underlying integrated language study

2.1. Syllabus specification through ‘texts’

One way of integrating the subject matter and language development courses is the application of a “text-based syllabus” which is “a type of integrated syllabus” combining elements of different types of syllabuses. “Text based syllabus is built around texts and samples of extended discourse”. The type of texts that can be used in a text based syllabus are: exchanges, forms, procedures, information texts, story texts and persuasive texts (Richards 2003, 163). Literary texts or extracts from these kind of texts also provide a rich example of extended discourse for the students of translation and interpreting.

As Feez (1998, v; in Richards 2003, 164) puts it, a text based syllabus involves building the context for the text; modeling and deconstructing the text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text and linking related texts.

2.2. The role of consciousness in language learning

Language awareness which is considered essential in successful language learning and for the development of translation competency has cognitive dimensions and many cognitive actions are associated with learning (van Lier 1996, 69).

Wright and Bolitho define "the process of awareness-raising" "as being a gradual one" (1993, 298) and state the advantages of using authentic texts in the type of language awareness activities as "providing a discursal perspective on language, enabling comparison with other data sources, and allowing exploration". The language study to be carried out depending on texts involves "analyzing the text and specific sentences within it, identifying specific features of the language input, and sharing perceptions and negotiating joint responses by participants" (294).

Four common senses of consciousness are distinguished by Schmidt (1994, in van Lier 1996, 69-70)

- Consciousness as *intention* which highlights a contrast between intentional and incidental learning.
- Consciousness as *attention* which includes such notions as noticing and focusing.
- Consciousness as *awareness* which refers to knowing rules and noticing.
- Consciousness as *control* which refers to the difference between performing tasks with and without conscious effort.

The main domains of language awareness that should be taken into consideration while designing classroom activities/tasks for students are given below with the description of each one (van Lier 1996,83)

Affective domain: Relation between knowledge and feeling; consciousness including intellect and affect; language awareness involving 'forming attitudes, awakening and developing attention, sensitivity, curiosity, and interest'.

Social domain: Linguistic tolerance; relations between ethnic groups; bilingualism, biculturalism.

Cognitive domain: Relations between language and thought; metalinguistic awareness; cognitive academic language proficiency; learning training.

Performance domain: Relations between declarative and procedural knowledge; automatization and control; communication strategies; language practice.

Although the role of each of these domains may play a different role in the classroom activities carried out depending on the teaching objectives, raising awareness of students in terms of getting them to have an understanding of the syntactic, semantic and discoursal differences between the source and the target language will help them to develop their competency in translation.

(See Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy 2000 for examples of awareness raising language study with a specific focus on different language structures and Hughes and McCarthy 1998 for the theoretical discussions about this kind of language study reflecting the change in focus from sentence to discourse grammar.)

2. Integrating course content

As stated by Richards (2001, 164), “all syllabuses reflect some degree of integration”. Integration of the course contents depending on the rationale behind an integrated syllabus can be made by making decisions about a suitable syllabus framework reflecting different priorities, such as *grammar* linked to *skills* and *texts*, *tasks* linked to *topics* and *functions*, or *skills* linked to *topics* and *texts*.

The decisions to be made in terms of a suitable integrated-syllabus framework reflect implications of ‘postmethod pedagogy’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) which is an outcome of the discussions leading to go beyond approaches and methods as a result of the need for curriculum development processes in the ‘post-methods era’ (Richards and Rodgers 1986).

The table below shows in what ways course content integration can be made depending on the course contents and the competencies aimed to develop in each of the following courses at the Departments of Translation and Interpreting.

Table 1. The course content integration among the courses

| Courses | Contents | Competencies |
|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Linguistics | Branches of linguistics Description of language at the levels of sentence, utterance and text | Developing awareness about social, cultural and universal aspects of languages |

| | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | <p>Basic concepts of semantics, different views of language and basic principles of discourse analysis</p> <p>Relationship between linguistic analysis and translation</p> | <p>Recognizing the importance of the implications of the relationship between linguistics and translation studies for all translation processes</p> |
| Comparative Syntax | <p>Concepts of the study of syntax rules and types of transformations, parts of speech and morpho-semantic features in Turkish and English</p> <p>The distinction between time, tense, aspect and modality</p> | <p>Developing awareness about the implications of the differences between the source and target languages in terms of the structural, functional and interactional aspects of each language for translation processes.</p> |
| Semantics | <p>Basic concepts of the field: context and reference, sentence meaning, speaker meaning and utterance meaning, interpersonal meaning; speech act theory and pragmatics</p> | <p>Developing awareness about the reflections of basic assumptions behind the speech act theory and pragmatics for the evaluation of texts in Turkish and English</p> |
| Anthropology | <p>Concepts of culture and language, and interaction between them in cultural contexts</p> <p>Definition of translation as a cultural activity, linguistic relativity, cultural identity, the difficulties that culture-specific elements create in the process of translation</p> | <p>Developing awareness about the use of language in different speech and discourse communities and the role cultural factors play in the process of communication through translation</p> <p>Evaluating different ways of analysis to identify the effect of culture-specific elements in language use and in translation</p> |

The main course books used in the courses the contents of which were integrated are as follows:

An Introduction to Language by Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2007) (Linguistics)

Semantics: A coursebook by Hurford and Hesley (1983) (Semantics)

Language and Culture by Kramsch (1998) (Anthropology)

Turkish English Contrastive Grammar Morphology and Syntax by Sezer (1995)
(Contrastive Syntax)

Çeviride Dil ve Metin by Bulut, (2012) (Contrastive Syntax)

In-class activities to be presented in the following section reflect a way of integrating course content by first of all giving priority to a focus on a specific grammatical / structural unit and then linking this focus with functional and discursal units in texts.

3. Awareness raising in-class practice:

The awareness raising classroom activities presented below have been carried out in the courses ‘linguistics’, ‘comparative syntax’, ‘semantics’ and ‘anthropology’ depending on the following type of questions being related to the competencies aimed to be developed in each of the courses.

4.1. Discussion points focused on in each of the courses

The discussion points presented below are believed to make it possible to see in what ways specific contents of the courses can be integrated to develop students’ awareness of the linguistic, semantic and textual differences in source and target languages.

Linguistics: The discussions made in the course of Linguistic in the light of the following items aimed at developing students’ ‘awareness of the implications of the relationship between linguistics and translation studies for all translation processes’.

1. Explain the distinction between structural view and functional view of language by giving examples and discuss which view can help us to account for the nature of language better.
2. Explain what insights we can get from linguistic studies for translation studies.

Comparative Syntax: The discussions made in the course of Comparative Syntax in the light of the following items aimed at developing students’ ‘awareness of the differences between Turkish and English in terms of structural, functional and interactional aspects’.

1. Comment on the following translations (from English to Turkish and from Turkish to English) by explaining what kind of structural differences in

English and in Turkish are reflected in terms of the linguistic realizations of 'passive voice' in both languages.

a) '*Light waves are easily scattered by small particles such as dust....*'

İşık dalgaları toz gibi ufak parçacıklar tarafından kolaylıkla yayılırlar.

b) '*Terör örgütü liderinin yakalanmasından bu yana Britanya basınının aldığı alışılmadık ölçüde Türkiye karşıtı tavra yine Britanya'lı yazarlardan tepki geldi.*'

The unfamiliarly anti-Turkish attitude that the British media has taken since the capturing of the head of the terroristic organization has likewise been criticized by the British columnists.

c) *Başkan adayı, sağlık nedeniyle adaylıktan çekildi.*

The candidate for presidency has withdrawn due to health reasons.

(Bulut 2002: 32-33)

2. Explain how a specific form may convey different functions depending on different contexts with examples from English and Turkish.

3. Explain how a specific function can be conveyed with different forms depending on different contexts with examples from English and Turkish.

Semantics: The discussions made in the course of Semantics in the light of the following items aimed at developing students' 'awareness of the distinctions among sentence, utterance, speaker and interpersonal meanings and the reflections of basic assumptions behind the speech act theory and pragmatics for the evaluation of texts in Turkish and English'.

1. Explain how the meaning of a sentence may change in different contexts analysing the dialogues below and commenting on how the sentence, utterance and speaker meanings of the underlined sentences are revealed in each dialogue.

Dialogue 1

A: *Have you been away on holiday?*

B: *Yes. We went to Spain.*

A: *Did you? We're going to France next month.*

B: *Oh! Are you? That'll be nice for the family.*

.....
Dialogue 2

Husband: *When I go away next week, I'm taking the car here to take the car.*

Wife: *Oh! Are you? I need the car here to take the kids to school.*

Husband: *I'm sorry, but I must have it. You'll have to send them on the bus.*

Wife: ***That'll be nice for the family.*** *Up at the crack of dawn and not home till mid-evening.*

(Hurford and Hesley 1983: 4-5).

2. Analyse the following exchange on the basis of the assumptions behind the speech act theory and pragmatics.

(The exchange was recorded at the diner-table of an Israeli middle-class family. Three children participate: Danny, 11.5 years old; Yuval, 9; and Yael, 7)

Mother: *Danny, do you have any homework?*

Danny: *I've finished it already.*

Yael: *Danny didn't answer Mommy's question.*

Yuval: *He did, he did; and when he said that he's already done it, he saved her the next question.*

Anthropology: The discussions made in the course of Anthropology in the light of the following items aimed at developing students' 'awareness of the role cultural factors play in the process of communication' and their 'awareness of the effect of culture-specific element in language use and translation'.

1. Read the contextual information given about the participants below and analyse the following dialogue within the framework of interactional sociolinguistics.

An African-American student has been sent to interview a black housewife in a low income, inner-city neighbourhood: The contact has been made over the phone by someone in the office. The student arrives, rings the bell, and is met by the husband, who opens the door, smiles, and steps towards him.

Husband: *So y're gonna check out ma ol lady, hah?*

Student: *Ah, no. I only came to get some information.*

They called from the office.

(Husband, dropping his smile, disappears without a word and calls his wife.)

(Gumperz, 1982: 133)

2. Explain in what ways cultural differences may be reflected in language use in different societies.

3. Kramersch (1998, 69) states that "in different cultures different speakers of different languages conceive of time in different ways." Explain what is meant in this statement by giving examples from Hopi language, English and Turkish.

4.2. Sentence, utterance and text level language study

The suggested syllabus specification to integrate the above mentioned course contents gets the students to be involved in language practice at sentence and utterance levels at the first stage. For this reason, first of all, sentence and utterance level and then text level language practice activities will be presented. Depending on the rationale behind these activities, in the conclusion part of the paper, explanation will be made about the reason why integrating course content through awareness / consciousness raising language study may help students develop their translation competence.

4.2.1. Sentence level language study

The following language study aims to raise awareness of the students into the choices made by speakers among the functions of language named as 'ideational, interpersonal and textual functions' by Halliday and Hasan (1989: 15-21). It illustrates the integration of the contents of the courses 'linguistics', 'comparative syntax' and 'semantics'.

1. Students are provided with information about the type of text as 'news stories' and theoretical knowledge about the functions of language in that type of texts.

2. They are asked to identify the structural differences among the following sentences that might take place in news stories and to evaluate the role of the speaker / writer in selecting from the range of options available to them.

- *Rioters burned ten cars.*
- *Ten cars were burned in riots.*
- *It was the rioters who burned ten cars.*

3. Students are asked to bring to the class Turkish and English newspapers for analysis of similar type of sentences and to make evaluations of the choices made by the news writers in terms of the use of active and passive structures .

The speaker/writer might choose within the ideational function highlighting agency and may have the role of giving information within the interpersonal component of the grammar (*Rioters burned ten cars*) or he/she may hide the agency (*Ten cars were burned*). The speaker might also choose to highlight the agents of the action within the textual component (*It was the rioters who burned ten cars*) (Kress (2001: 34).

Discussions on the distinction among these sentences is not in fact a matter of choice in terms of structural differences between active and passive voice but a choice in terms of how the news event may be perceived and / or how the news writer may want the news reader to perceive the event. Therefore, although the focus of study is seen at the level of sentence, with this kind of study, students are made aware of the distinction among sentence, utterance and speaker meaning and the role of context in determining the kind of choices the users of the language make depending on the kind of effect they want to be realized on the readers / listeners.

4.2.2. Utterance level language study

The discussion about semantic features of nouns and verbs in the course linguistics (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2007: 193-196) is followed by in-class practice in the course Comparative Syntax with a focus on the differences of the semantic features of specific nouns and verbs in English and in Turkish. In the light of these studies, students are provided with a discussion on a number of differences between English and Polish in the area of speech acts and linguistic realizations of different cultural norms and assumptions by reading the article named ‘Different Cultures, Different Languages, Different Speech Acts’ by (Wierzbicka 1985) in the course Anthropology.

1. Students are asked to identify how specific functions like ‘giving advice’, ‘making requests’, ‘expressing opinion’ are realized in Polish and English.
2. They are asked to give examples from Turkish comparing the linguistic realizations of the above mentioned functions.
3. Students read about the lexical evidence of cultural differences as a reflection of the characteristics of different cultures and focus on the concepts of ‘privacy’ and ‘compromise’ in Polish, English and Turkish.

The discussion to be held about how speech acts can be realized in different linguistic forms reflecting different cultural norms may be followed by the question about the existence of ‘untranslatable culture associated with the linguistic structures of any given language’ (Kramersch 1998:12).

“The translatability argument” to be made following the language study presented here is hoped to develop students’ understanding of the reflection of cultural differences on language use and the fact that

If speakers of different languages do not understand one another, it is not because their languages cannot be mutually translated into one another-..... It is because they don't share the same way of viewing and interpreting events; they don't agree on the meaning and the value of the concepts underlying the words. In short, they don't cut up reality or categorize experience in the same manner. Understanding across languages does not depend on structural equivalences but on common conceptual systems , born from the larger context of our experience (Kramersch 1998:12).

4.2.3. Text level language study

In the Departments of Translation and Interpreting, a text based syllabus

may be built around a variety of texts depending on the contexts in which the learners will use the language.

The language study presented below following the literary text should be seen as a way of raising students’ awareness into ‘how differences in the verb structures can be associated with depiction of characters and description of the interaction between characters’ (Jago 2001:75-76). It also illustrates how the content of the courses mentioned above can be integrated through a text.

(The extract is from the final pages of *Hot Touch*, a romance by Deborah Smith.)

Caroline laughed softly. ‘Wonderful.’

‘Talking to some animal I don’t see?’ Paul teased. He put his arm around her and drew her to him. Caroline looked up into his face and didn’t speak for a moment, enjoying the rush of pleasure she felt when she lost herself in his eyes.

‘Thank you for indulging my need to walk,’ she whispered. They’d left the Corvette near the end of the driveway. Paul caressed her face tenderly. It’s has been a long day. The walk feels good.’ He cupped her chin in one hand and studied her face. ‘How are you, *chère*? The truth.’

‘Better,’ she said in a thoughtful tone. ‘Much better than I’ve ever been in my life. And peaceful.’

‘*Bien*.’ Stepping back, he took her hands in his and looked at her with a quiet intensity that sent tingles up her spine. ‘Mademoiselle Caroline, will you marry a Cajun veterinarian who doesn’t care about being rich or living fancy but who’ll love you like no other man on the face of the earth?’

Caroline squinted at the trees overhead as if thinking. ‘I believe I’m as smart as my mother.’ she said finally. ‘I know what’s important.’ She looked at Paul so raptly that he began to smile.

‘Say it’, he whispered.

She brought his hands to her lips. ‘I’ll marry you,’ she answered, kissing them. ‘You’re my lifemate and I’ll never want anyone else.’

They stood in the driveway a long time, just holding each other. Long golden shadows slanted through the oaks when she and Paul finally walked into the yard, savoring every moment of a glorious fall sunset.

Language study:

1. Students are asked to identify whether the verbs are associated with the male or female character, whether or not they are followed by a direct object.
2. They discuss in what ways the verbs associated with the two characters differ and how these differences reinforce the stereotypical portrayal of the characters.

(Students should have listed the following verbs and direct objects)

| Caroline | | Paul | |
|--------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------|
| Verb | Direct Object | Verb | Direct Object |
| Laughed | | Teased | |
| Looked | | Put | his arm |
| didn’t speak | | Drew | her |
| Enjoying | the rush of pleasure | Caressed | her face |
| Felt | | Cupped | her chin |
| Lost | Herself | Studied | her face |
| Whispered | | Took | her hands |
| Said | | Looked | |
| Squinted | | Sent | tingles |
| Thinking | | began to smile | |
| Looked | | | |
| Brought | his hands | | |
| Answered | | | |
| Kissing | Them | | |

The students are expected to find the following differences in the verbs associated with each character: (Jago 20001, 85)

Paul:

- most verbs indicate some action instigated by Paul that affects Caroline in some respect

- most of the verbs describe physical movement
- the direct objects complete the action of the verbs by stating explicitly 'what has been affected'.

Caroline:

- a higher proportion of verbs have Caroline as their subjects
- several verbs indicate not actions but states of mind

After identifying the differences in the type of verbs associated with Paul and Caroline, the students are expected to evaluate the effect of the contrastive use of verbs and direct objects as follows: (Jago 20001, 85)

The male is reinforced as the person in control, the person who takes action that directly affects the female. On the other hand, the female merely responds rather than takes the initiative. She is far more involved in her own mental processes and emotional states than in physical action. (Only two verbs are followed by an explicit direct object relating to something outside of her –'his hands' and 'them'.) She is portrayed as the more sensitive and reflective of the two, and this portrayal is achieved in no small part by the grammatical choices of verbs and direct objects.

Follow up language study:

1. Students translate the text into Turkish and think whether there are any differences between the two languages in terms of the cultural elements associated with the linguistic structures of each of the languages.

2. They discuss whether the same differences are revealed in terms of the type of verbs used and how the male and female characters are depicted.

As stated above in section 2.1, text based study entails introducing students to samples of extended discourse and after building the context for language study, linking related texts to provide intertextuality. In the light of this need, the text study presented here should be followed by other type of studies making it possible to draw students' attention to other discursal features of language use.

5. Conclusion

Conducting lessons by integrating course contents through consciousness raising language study as presented here may help us to find out ways of making our students of translation and interpreting more sensitive to the use of language and to develop their translation competence. This will be achieved by getting the students to

- become more aware of the syntactic, semantic and discorsal features of both languages;
- realize that language is not only “a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning”, but also a means ‘for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals’ and “a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations” (Richards and Rodgers 1986:21)
- focus on and see the significance of distinguishing sentence and utterance meaning;
- develop their competence as language users and language analysts.

In this paper discussion about integration of course content has been made depending on two language development and two subject matter course contents. It is believed that the scope of the study can be widened by considering cross-curricular links among other courses of the program in the light of the program objectives and the kind of competencies that are aimed to develop.

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Gender Background: Concept CAREER Verbalization

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Abstract

The aim of the work is to examine gender peculiarities background of the concept CAREER verbalization actualised in the contemporary American discourse. Exploring concepts within the anthropocentrism positions helps researchers concentrate on phenomena which constitute an integral part of the lives of an individual and the society. Career appears to be one of such concepts, because it is a powerful source of the person and society development, it is the result of conscious attitudes and behavior of people in employment, related to the labor future paths employee's vision for professional growth and development. Topicality of the concept CAREER research is determined by the fact that the notion of 'career' is investigated mainly in the economic, psychological and sociological contexts and it has never been the subject of a complex linguistic research based on modern English printed media from the perspective of modern cognitive-discursive paradigm, enabling a qualitative conceptual analysis.

Keywords: concept CAREER, intensional nucleus, implication features, printed media discourse

Introduction

Language is an essential tool for knowledge development and dissemination. Reflecting the world perception in the activity process, people record the results of their cognition in the word. The whole system of knowledge acquired, both personally and through experience, is held in memory of the person due to mental concepts or prototypes. Conceptualization or conceptual classification is one of the most important processes of human cognitive activity and means to be aware of the receiving information, which further leads to the formation of concepts, conceptual structures and the whole conceptual system of the mankind (Abajeva, 1999, p. 3-4).

Every nation identifies fragments of the world and gives names to these fragments in its own way. Thus, the world of an individual who speaks the language is formed. Conceptual world model is formed as a set of knowledge about the world,

which is reflected in vocabulary, grammar and phraseology. Thus, from the perspective of cognitive-discursive approach concept is considered as "the notion of discursive, activity aspect, which involves the activation of conceptual mental content with actualization of the corresponding 'quantum' of knowledge and awareness in the immediate environment and the processes of formation and formulation of statement meaning" (Vorkachev, 2005, p.10-13).

The development of gender approach in modern linguistics

Modern social science and humanities deal with a widely used gender approach. This approach serves to analyze social processes of difference formation in behavioral, mental and emotional personality traits depending on the sex (gender) of individuals.

Linguists became interested in language gender aspects only in the early XXth century. This was facilitated by several factors: firstly, the outstanding scientists, who gave birth to several trends in linguistics, got interested in this issue

such as O. Jespersen (Jespersen, 1922), Edward Sapir (Sapir, 1961, p.21-66), S. McConnell-Ginet (McConnell-Ginet, 1979, p. 63-85). Secondly, the first place in the linguistic studies was taken by language analysis social approach. For this reason, new directions in linguistics appeared: sociolinguistics (Romaine S., Trudgill P., Ervin-Tripp, S. M.), pragmatics (Stepanov, Auwera J. van der, Carston R.), psycholinguistics (Z.D. Popova, J.A. Sternin, O.O. Zalevskaya);, discourse and communication analyses (A.P. Martyniuk, E.I. Morozova, M. Nikitin).

In recent decades the gender approach in linguistics has become more important in the evaluation of the social functioning and development processes. Until recently, problems of gender categories definition stayed on the periphery of public consciousness often seen as a secondary social and psychological factor in linguistics (Goroshko, 2001, p. 508-542).

Meanwhile, the problems associated with gender asymmetry and gender differentiation of consciousness are becoming more urgent. Gender dimension today is an important object of study in many scientific areas, particularly in linguistics, where it is considered as a new stage of development, a new way of linguistic phenomena understanding.

The term "gender" became a term of modern linguistic science only in the second half of the last century, due to the change in the scientific paradigm of humanitarian sciences under the influence of postmodern philosophy (Smith, 1997, p. 154-161).

Such scientific principles in gender categories investigations as ethnicity, age and gender were previously interpreted as a biologically determined. But they obtain new understanding due to categorization processes development. They include non-recognition of objective truth, arising interest to subjective and personal life, the development of new theories of personality

Issues related to the methods development of gender linguistic research, creating tools for gender studies are backbone of modern linguistics (Maslova, 2004, p. 74). Currently many of these issues are still under research and they need further elaboration. The first of them is a problem of gender definition, and the question of what gender includes.

Today the scientific literature uses two terms that mark people's sex - "biological sex" and "social sex". Biological sex is generally explained as a combination of contrasting generative characteristics of representatives of one species. Social sex or gender is explored as a complex of physical, reproductive, sociocultural and behavioral characteristics that provide individuals with personal, social and legal status of men and women (Khvostov, 2005, p. 197).

It is believed that one of the first works, which clearly defined terminology distinction between "sex" and "gender" was an article "Exchange of Women." written by H. Rubin (Rubin, 2006, p. 92–95). The researcher introduces the concept of sex-gender system, meaning thereby a set of arrangements or agreements which serve for society to transform biological sexuality in the product of human activity.

R. Unger (Crawford &Unger, 2003) argues that the word "sex" is used only to determine the biological sex dimorphism. The use of the same term "gender" is used to describe the social, cultural and psychological aspects that can be correlated with traits, norms, stereotypes and roles that are distinctive and desirable for those individuals whom society considers as men or women. These were the first attempts to distinguish between "sex" and "gender."

Gender should be considered as a system that exists due to combination of biological component and its product, received through its processing in the social system. In the late 80's - early 90's the appearance of "gender subcultures" hypothesis was observed. For the first time it was expressed in the work of J. Gumperz (Gumperz, 1984; 1988) on intercultural communication research.

In this case, the processes of socialization are being under focus. Socialization of individual was seen as granting a subculture with its special language practices different in male and female environment. In childhood and adolescence, people find themselves mostly in mono sex groups, forming subculture and assimilating their inherent linguistic etiquette, which, according to supporters of the given hypothesis, causes confusion and language conflicts in adulthood that can be equal to the cross-cultural.

Gender subcultures hypothesis led to the emergence of so called "set of permanent features" characteristic for male and female speech. However, recent studies more clearly demonstrate that talking about such features is inappropriate. The role of subcultural factor in this case is significantly exaggerated. Differences in male and female language is not so important, do not manifest themselves in any speech act and do not indicate that gender is a determining factor in communication as it was anticipated at the initial stage of feminist linguistics.

The study of communication of individuals of the same sex but different social and professional status has also found a number of discrepancies. Thus, the verbal behavior of any person at home and at work, in the familiar and the new environment is different. However, today, science does not deny the existence of certain stylistic features peculiar for men or women within clearly defined communication situation.

They are believed to arise under the influence both sociocultural and biological and hormonal factors. Exodus of gender studies beyond the influential European languages and cultural studies development have allowed receiving data that also indicates cultural dependency of male and female speech.

The term "gender" is interpreted by scientists ambiguous, but precisely social and cultural components of this concept are common for all the definitions because they are considered to be essential while revealing the nature of gender.

Supporters of conceptual analysis within a discourse trend, basing on activity-thinking style, offer qualitatively new interpretation of its object. They believe that a new object denies the existence of the concept as a given mental structure and emphasizes its dynamic nature being a structure that is filled with content meanings in the process of discursive intersubjective interaction (Arkhipov, 2001, p. 13-15; Stepanov, 2007, p. 237-246; Morozova, 2004, p. 115-119).

Respectively, the concept CAREER appears as individual knowledge which reflects the personal interpretation of the socio-cultural experience and is actualized in the discourse as a dynamic set of axiological associations which contain directing content and can get adequate interpretation through intersubjective nature of discourse.

Semantics of the concept CAREER is individuals' positive evaluation of their own destiny and as a result - a positive emotional experience state of this evaluation. Figurative associations embody the experience based on the assimilation of particular items.

Since the concept CAREER is a kind of evaluation, its conceptual and figurative elements exist in the inseparable unity with the assessment element. Assessment is based on that feature which defines the conceptual-evaluative content of the concept CAREER depending on axiological orientations of the subject of evaluation (Vorkachev, 2005, p.10-13).

Results of reason analysis of the assessment element of the concept CAREER are limited to such simplified operational definitions as CAREER is NO UNEMPLOYMENT / CAREER is JOY, PLEASURE / CAREER is EARNING MONEY / CAREER is SUCCESS (hedonic model); CAREER is INNER HARMONY (epicurean model); CAREER is NOT JOY / CAREER is FULFILLMENT OF DUTY (stoic model) CAREER is ACTIVITY (Aristotle's model); CAREER is SELF-REALIZATION/ THE GOOD OF NEIGHBOR (teleonomic model); CAREER is FIGHT (passionary model).

Proceeding from the cognitive-discursive interpretation of the concept CAREER as a predefined social and cultural individual knowledge, we postulate the existence of differences in the meanings revealed by concept verbalization tools in speech of male and female subjects of modern English printed media discourse.

These differences are verbalized with the help of terms WOMEN CAREER and MEN CAREER and motivated by gender stereotypes, that are historically conditioned minimized, typed beliefs, which have developed in the collective consciousness of English lingua-cultural society about the attributes that are characteristic / uncharacteristic for an individual, who is qualified by society as a man or a woman. These gender stereotypes are also considered to be gender standards, ie beliefs about the attributes that are desirable / undesirable for this or that individual (Martyniuk, 2003, p. 103-109).

MEN / WOMEN CAREER: conceptual and evaluative content

The basic unit of the analysis is the discourse context of the concept CAREER, that is a piece of modern English printed media discourse, which is formally equal to an expression or to several dialogic / monologic statements. The discourse context also contains a set of linguistic and extralinguistic factors that are sufficient and necessary for theming of the content CAREER, namely means of concept verbalization, as well as linguistic expressions, which explicate / imply gender of objects and subjects under evaluation (Martynjuk, 2004, p. 292).

Conceptual-evaluative content of the concepts WOMEN CAREER and MEN CAREER is established on the basis of actual number of implicit definitions, which are inferentially derived in the process of content interpretation of the career discursive contexts. One side of such definitions is represented by determined MEN / WOMEN CAREER and the other side is represented by one of the defining features that shape their conceptual-evaluative content.

For example (hereinafter indications of the subject of evaluation are underlined, linguistic markers of the concept CAREER (name of the concept, its derivatives and synonymic to them linguistic expressions) are **in bold types**, and linguistic expressions that specify gender specificity of the concept CAREER and reveal its conceptual-evaluative content are both **in bold and underlined**):

(1) *When she was ready to re-enter the workplace last year she **knew that the hours of a network journalist weren't going to mesh with her family life so she decided to re-invent herself and take her career in a whole new direction** – one involving handbags.*

This fragment (1) reveals the conceptual-evaluative content of the concept WOMEN CAREER is REINVENTION. The female character describes her new job position, that is displayed by lexemes *career* and *workplace*, taking into the consideration the fact that *the hours of a network journalist weren't going to mesh with her family life*. Concept aspect REINVENTION is explicated the meaning of fragment including, predication *she decided to re-invent herself and take her career in a whole new direction*.

(2) ***I spent most of my career as an outsider**, with bosses who based raises on who they drank and golfed with. **I was isolated, overlooked from promotions**, and **I'm not sure things have gotten that much better**.*

(3) ***Women in science and engineering can easily spend their entire careers on the periphery, far away from the flow of information that powers careers**," said Nancy Steffen-Fluhr, director of the Murray Center for Women in Technology at NJIT.*

The conceptual-evaluative content of the concept WOMEN CAREER is NOT JOY, INFELICITY is revealed in these two abstract. The desirable job position and bosses' evaluation is presented by the usage of lexemes *career* and *promotion*. The conceptual feature NOT JOY, INFELICITY is depicted by the content interpretation and the usage of the noun *outsider*, *periphery* and predications *I was isolated, overlooked from promotion, I'm not sure things have gotten that much better* and adverbial modifier *far away from the flow of information that powers careers*. Gender specificity of the concept in the abstract (3) is presented by the noun *women*, that directly identifies the objects of communication.

(4) ***Karen Rogers was one of several professional women** who spoke with the students about **the journeys they've taken to reach** their career.*

Situation (4) depicts the conceptual-evaluative content of the concept WOMEN CAREER is ACTIVITY. Gender specificity of the concept in the abstract (4) is presented by the noun *women* and proper name *Karen Rogers*. The name of the concept is revealed by the usage of lexeme *career* and *professional*. The conceptual feature ACTIVITY is depicted by the content interpretation and predication *the journeys they've taken to reach*.

(5) ***Women who successfully master the art of negotiating earn more money and are more successful in their careers.***

The meaning interpretation of the context (5) reveals two conceptual-evaluative content of the concept CAREER is EARNING MONEY and CAREER is SUCCESS. We come to know this due to usage of the adjective *successful*, the adverb *successfully* and predication *who master the art of negotiating and earn more money*. The name of the concept is presented by the usage of lexeme *career* and gender specificity of the concept in the abstract (5) is shown by the plural noun *women*.

Basic semantic features of the concept CAREER

Taking into account that Cognitive Linguistics is a relatively young science, the concept notion does not have an unambiguous and steady determination, it differs in different scientific schools and works of different scholars. Having analyzed the existing English language lexicographical sources for definitions of the noun *career*, we can distinguish its basic semantic features representing the concept CAREER:

- 1) a profession obtained in the process of learning:

She had not had a very impressive school career up till then. (Oxford Dictionary)

- 2) a specific activity which a person is engaged in for quite a long period of time:

He realized that his acting career was over. (Oxford Dictionary)

- 3) a gradual job promotion, which leads to higher wages and increased social status of the person:

He's hoping for a career in the police force/as a police officer. (Longman Dictionary)

- 4) a successful professional life:

When he retires he will be able to look back over a brilliant career. (Collins Dictionary)

- 5) speed:

My hasting days fly on with full career. (Oxford Dictionary)

- 6) a woman whose career is very important, so that she may not want to get married or have children (in the position of modifier):

Elaine has become a real career woman/girl. (Longman Dictionary);

7) someone who intends to be a soldier, teacher etc. for most of his life, not just for a particular period of time (in the position of modifier):

A career diploma. (Longman Dictionary);

8) A way of penetration, passing:

A career of the sun through the heavens. (Collins Dictionary);

Cognitive transformation of lexical meanings of words is a complicated process, which is based on establishing links and relationships between conceptual systems of consciousness. The structure of lexical meaning is formed primarily by logical connections, the center of which is known as *intensional nucleus* followed by *implication features* which form the periphery.

Attributes implication may be obligatory and weak (Maslova, 2004, p. 74). Despite the fact that intensional nucleus and implication both are parts of the meaning there is a substantial difference between them. Intensional nucleus is a closed rigid structure with a finite set of attributes. Implication is open probability structure without a finite set of features (Maslova, 2004, p. 74-75). It should be mentioned there is no rigid distinction that between intensional nucleus and implication of a certain concept and thus intensional nucleus values can gradually move to the implication field (Maslova, 2004, p. 74).

So, definitional analysis of English lexicographical sources serves to distinguish intensional nucleus of the concept CAREER. We have already identified the following attributes of the concept CAREER: *a profession obtained in the learning process, the gradual promotion / raise at work, a successful professional life, a certain kind of activity which a person devotes the life to.* These mentioned above features form intensional nucleus of the concept lexeme and, consequently, the nucleus of the concept CAREER.

Attributes of implication can be determined by analyzing examples of lexeme *career* usage. Having reviewed the examples of the concept CAREER verbalization in the American printed media, we have identified the following implication attributes of the concept CAREER:

1) working experience:

The match has added significance in that Stephen Martin plays against his Irish team-mates for the first time in his illustrious career.

(BNC HJ4 6169)

2) success:

Bates, on the other hand, relaxed after claiming the first set 6–1 to lose the second 6–0 and found difficulty in mentally recharging as the 25 year old Swede took his opportunity to achieve a career, best performance to reach the final.
(BNC CJB 415)

3) professional achievements:

Well, I think it is high time that we gave an award for valour in professional conduct, and I nominate as the first recipient, Keith Holdsworth of Bournemouth, Employed by the New Forest District Council, Keith Holdsworth risked his career, his livelihood and his life savings in the defence of his professional integrity, when it would have been so easy to take an easier route.
(BNC APX 174)

4) positions record:

In the meantime however, it has managed to recruit itself a vice president of marketing: Arum Taneja, who had been Vicom president, worldwide marketing for Convergent Technology Corp and a career that included Sun Microsystems Inc, Data General Corp and IBM Canada.

(BNC CTG 262)

5) professional direction (path):

She comments, 'It was not my first career choice but it is satisfying in many respects'.
(BNC J2B 1070)

6) experience realization:

The great problem I faced, when I eventually obtained my degree in zoology, was that to convert my childhood fascination into an adult career I would have to carry out experiments on animals.

(BNC BLX 38)

7) impact:

Edmund's hypocrisy stretches across the play, a freewheeling career of pretence in the service of egoism.
(BNC CRV 1218)

Thus, the concept CAREER is of great importance in the English speaking society. O.M.Dovhanyuk claims in his article "English career for business" that career occupies a significant place in American society both for women and men. Having achieved success in business, American women admitted that they reached career heights due to such feminine qualities as the ability to work with people, diplomacy, attentiveness for the details. They said that their success required creative thinking, the use of non-standard schemes and models. Capable of deep empathy, a woman understands much without words on the emotional level, she can easily put herself in the shoes of her clients, patients, customers and uses all these characteristics successfully. The article presents gender issues, i.e. based on differences between women and men.

Clarification of the expressive content of concepts WOMEN CAREER and MEN CAREER involves the use of tools of cognitive metaphors. Sources of metaphor are established on the basis of the cognitive interpretation of discursive contexts. This issue can be the object of further investigation.

Conclusions

The research analyses the concept CAREER on the basis of existing approaches to concept determination. It differs in different scientific schools and still is considered to be rather ambiguous and discussive phenomenon. Career appears to be one of the most important concepts, because it serves as a powerful source for the person and society development.

Having analyzed the existing English language lexicographical sources for definitions of the noun *career*, we can distinguish its basic semantic features representing the concept CAREER: *a profession obtained in the learning process, the gradual promotion / raise at work, a successful professional life, a certain kind of activity which a person devotes the life to*. The structure of lexical meaning is formed primarily by logical connections, the center of which is known as *intensional nucleus* followed by *implication features* which form the periphery. Attributes of implication can be determined by analyzing examples of lexeme *career* usage. Having reviewed the examples of the concept CAREER verbalization in the American printed media, we have identified the following implication attributes of the concept CAREER: *working*

experience, success, professional achievements, positions record, professional direction (path), experience realization, impact.

We limited the results of reason analysis of the concept CAREER assessment element to such simplified operational definitions as CAREER is NO UNEMPLOYMENT / CAREER is JOY, PLEASURE / CAREER is EARNING MONEY / CAREER is SUCCESS / CAREER is INNER HARMONY / CAREER is NOT JOY / CAREER is FULFILLMENT OF DUTY/ CAREER is ACTIVITY / CAREER is SELF-REALIZATION/ THE GOOD OF NEIGHBOR / CAREER is FIGHT.

Proceeding from the cognitive-discursive interpretation of the concept CAREER as a predefined social and cultural individual knowledge, we postulate the existence of differences in the meanings revealed by concept verbalization tools in speech of male and female subjects of modern English printed media discourse. These differences are verbalized with the help of terms WOMEN CAREER and MEN CAREER and motivated by gender stereotypes, that are historically conditioned minimized, typed beliefs, which have developed in the collective consciousness of English linqua-cultural society about the attributes that are characteristic / uncharacteristic for an individual, who is qualified by society as a man or a woman.

We believe that the basic unit of the concept CAREER analysis is its discourse context, that is a piece of modern English printed media discourse, which is formally equal to an expression or to several dialogic / monologic statements. The discourse context also contains a set of linguistic and extralinguistic factors that are sufficient and necessary for the content CAREER verbalization, which explicate gender of objects and subjects under evaluation.

We have come to the conclusion that conceptual-evaluative content of the concepts WOMEN CAREER and MEN CAREER is established on the basis of actual number of implicit definitions, which are inferentially derived in the process of content interpretation of the career discursive contexts.

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Improving English Language Teaching and Learning Through Continuous Student Assessment

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Abstract

This research paper tries to explore the effects of continuous student assessment on quality teaching and learning of English. The sample of this research paper consisted of an experimental group as well as already assessed groups of the same level, and the level 2 students' (pre-intermediate) final exam results in the Language Center at South East European University in Tetovo. The instruments were developed so that they provide some useful and concrete data to assess whether or not continuous assessment can increase students' learning and teaching, and attain the learning outcomes set at the beginning of each academic year. To do that a couple of achievement tests were used, as well as quizzes, in-class tasks, homework assignments, etc. The findings of the research paper indicate that continuous student assessment has positive effects on their overall performance in both the achievement test at the end of semester as well as in the final exam.

Introduction

Every higher education institution strives to provide the best service possible for their students. This is usually done by ensuring 'excellence in teaching and learning' within their various programs. However, in order to provide excellence in teaching and learning, the institutions must have institutional mechanisms, such as quality assurance and various evaluation and assessment instruments, to evaluate the effectiveness of their study programs: that is, they need systems to measure the quality of teaching and learning within their programs, so that students gain new knowledge and, by that, they meet the learning outcomes and thus are satisfied by the service provided to them. Quality assurance is a system that supports teachers and develops the institutional competences in the higher education system to deliver quality service for the students. Moreover, quality assurance ensures that high standards are applied and that the expectations of students are met. As regards assessment, it has to be carefully thought

out, and applied systematically, to ensure that a transparent process is carried out with the close involvement of students towards meeting the learning outcomes. It incorporates activities that are an integral part of the learning environment, and that can be initiated either by the management or by the teachers to help them generate information on both their continuing progress and their learning difficulties. This information can then be used to improve teaching and learning in the classroom. Assessment as a tool aims to support and influence teaching and learning in the classroom so that the learning outcomes are attained and will reflect the principles of a Curriculum for Excellence.

A Review of the Literature:

There are numerous books and articles that treat the topic of assessment in higher education. In many of those books and articles assessment is valued as a very important issue that affects the outcome of teaching and learning in higher education. One of the notable authors who worked in the field of assessment and evaluation was the American educator Ralph Tyler. He refined his theory observing and investigating the study programs in an education institution in his book *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Tyler, 1949). It was his conviction that assessment was the main issue in educational experience. So, he created a simple model for teaching and assessment which comprised four parts, that became known as the *Tyler Rationale*: 1) setting the target objectives, 2) aligning teaching with expected real world challenges, 3) maximize the results from the systemizing the experience, and 4) assessing what works and what doesn't in the curriculum and revising it where appropriate (Tyler, 1949, p. 63). Tyler considers that learning is shaped by the students' involvement and students' action. "It is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does" (Tyler, 1949, p. 63).

In line with the thoughts of Tyler, the team of James, McInnis, and Devlin (2002) agree that assessment takes an important place in teaching and learning. According to them, a good and objective led assessment yields the expected outcome and introduces the necessary amount of student engagement, and gives the students the chance to check their own progress on continuous basis by repeating the material covered in class and by getting continuous feedback on their work and improvement. According to James, McInnis and Devlin (2002) and D'Agostino (2009) assessment is a valid and a valuable

instrument to generate reliable data that help teachers and administrators to make the right decisions in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning within academia (James, McInnis, and Devlin, 2002).

Similarly Catherine Garrison, Dennis Chandler & Michael Ehringhaus (2009) in their book "Effective classroom assessment : linking assessment with instruction" define assessment as the process of creating a database of students' learning so that appropriate action is taken to stimulate student progress. In addition, they explain that "effective assessment provides evidence of student performance relative to content and performance standards" (Garrison, Chandler & Ehringhaus, 2009). They say that "As educators, we should strive to create and maintain effective classroom assessment practices, including both high-quality formative measures and summative assessments" (Garrison, Chandler & Ehringhaus, 2009).

According to Kellough and Kellough, "Teaching and learning are reciprocal processes that depend on and affect one another. Thus, the assessment component deals with how well the students are learning and how well the teacher is teaching" (1999, p. 417: <http://slackernet.org/assessment.htm>).

Assessment that provides continuous information about students' learning, which is otherwise known as formative assessment or assessment for learning is advocated and promoted by the two eminent British scholars Paul Black and Dylan William (1998). They, in contrast to the British government, which was interested in input and output data "assessment of learning", emphasized the importance of formative assessment, or "assessment for learning". According to them, in "assessment for learning", the data that is provided by testing the students is used as a feedback to adjust the learning activities in class to help the students progress (Black and William, 1998).

In line with Black and William (1988) Stiggins (2004) in "Using Classroom Assessment to Improve Teaching" supports the idea of introducing the assessment for learning instead of assessment of learning. According to Stiggins (2004) "teachers should use assessment not only to actively and continuously measure a learner's progress, but also to acquire useful data to inform their own instructional practice so

that they can take appropriate action to improve the teaching and learning” (Stiggins 2004).

Similarly Shaaban (2005) says that in order for students to improve their performance in the classroom the teachers have to get enough information about their progress so that they could give appropriate feedback (Shaaban, 2005). Moreover, (Shaaban, 2005) says that “information collected through formative assessment is used to detect the strengths and weaknesses of learners for the purpose of improving proficiency” (Collins & O’Brien, 2003; Shaaban, 2005). “It provides useful information for both the instructor and the student upon which appropriate action can be taken” (Blanch, 1988; Guskey, 2003; Satterly, 1989; Shaaban, 2005).

“In classrooms where assessment for learning is practiced, students know at the outset of a unit of study what they are expected to learn” (Tessmer (1993): in Stiggins (2001)). The formative assessment happens during the teaching and learning activities and as regards the summative assessment it is a kind of assessment that provides the final result, that is what students have achieved at the end of a course (Gipps, 1994: Stiggins (2001)).

In terms of language courses the term summative assessment refers to an assessment that measures proficiency at the end of a language course (Boston, 2002). However, “formative assessment takes place during a course of teaching and is used essentially as feedback to the teaching-learning process” (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996: Guskey, 2003, p. 8). In other words, it is an ongoing process of creating databases about students’ learning and performance through various techniques of classroom assessment (Guskey, 2003, p. 8). “The purpose of formative assessment is not only to measure proficiency, but also to improve it as well” (Guskey, 2003, p. 8). It is “an assessment process that is ongoing while teaching and learning occur and the purpose of such an assessment is to further the education process rather than to decide on a grade,” (Spafford, Pesce, & Grosser, 1998, p. 108: Guskey, 2003, p. 8).

In order for the students to perform well they need to continuously take part in all the teaching and learning activities in class and outside of class, as there are proves that student self-assessment is one of the main formative assessment techniques that helps improve students’ performance (Brantmeier, 2005).

As we can see a lot of scholars support the idea of promoting and implementing assessment for learning, that is the formative assessment since it helps in creating a pool of information (a database of students' learning) that can be used to follow up, that is to take appropriate action in class as teachers, and as managers to improve the quality of teaching and learning to better achieve the learning goals.

Subheading 1 - Language Centre function at SEE University (Background Information)

Before showing the results from the research conducted at the SEEU Language Center it would be worthwhile to give some information about the Language Center at SEE University in Tetova, the place in which I conducted the research.

The primary function of the SEEU Language Center is to provide courses specified in the curricula of the five SEEU faculties. The Language Center offers three foreign language courses: English, French and German although in the past it used to provide language courses in Italian as well. The Language Center offers local language courses as well. The students take either Albanian or Macedonian language courses during the first two semesters of their studies. All students, except those specializing in English in the faculty of Languages, Cultures and Communications, are required to take English courses at the Language Center, for four semesters in a row, while the courses in French and German are elective and as such can be chosen by the students across SEEU. Because of these embedded requirements in the faculty curricula and student interest, the LC is the largest and among the most important teaching organizations in the University, with more than three quarters of the entire student population taking classes there at any given time. Instruction is provided by a staff of 25 full time and 3 part time English Language teachers, 3 full time and 2 part time Macedonian Language teachers, and 3 full time Albanian Language teachers (the Albanian language teachers are hired from the LCC faculty to teach Albanian Language for beginners classes for all SEEU students); there are also one German and one French part time teachers for German and French courses. The number of students that take language courses in one semester varies from 1200 to 1500 students. In the past, 4-5 years ago the LC used to service more than 2000 students per semester. However due to various circumstances in

Macedonia, political, financial or social the number of students enrolling at SEEU dropped.

The Basic Skills English (BSE) program is by far the largest of the Language Center’s teaching programs. All students who enroll at SEEU take a placement test at the Language center to determine the English proficiency level of those students who enroll their studies in SEEU to place them into different language programs, Basic Skills English or Academic English, for the first semester, after which they pursue lectures for four semesters in a row by passing the language levels sequentially. Instruction is divided into four lower levels from level 1 to level 4 (or elementary to intermediate) and advanced levels such as Academic English and Advanced Academic English; classes meet from two to six hours per week, with the lower levels receiving the most hours of instruction (see table below). Each level comprises a full semester of instruction. The Language Center also organizes special courses for different faculties called English for Specific Purposes and these courses may be taken by the students who have reached the required level of language that they can attend the ESP classes, since these classes are higher level and with specific language. In order for a student to take ESP he or she must pass at least level 4 in the second semester since ESP is provided in semester 3 and semester 4.

| LANGUAGE CENTER ENGLISH LANGUAGE COURSES | |
|------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| ENGLISH LANGUAGE COURSES | HOURS OF INSTRUCTION per week |
| LEVEL 1 | 6 |
| LEVEL 2 | 6 |
| LEVEL 3 | 4 |
| LEVEL 4 | 4 |
| ACADEMIC ENGLISH | 2 |
| ADVANCED ACADEMIC ENGLISH | 2 |
| ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES | 4 |

Outside the English Language program, there is also a huge Macedonian program gathering more than 80 % of newly enrolled students for two semesters in a row every academic year, and an Albanian program for non-Albanian speakers which gathers around 20% of newly enrolled students in SEEU every academic year.

Instruction is designed to take students from Common European Framework (CEF) levels A1 to C1 of English language proficiency. Each faculty specifies the number of BSE levels their students are required to complete before graduation or courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The Language Center provides the syllabus, materials, and the instructors for these courses.

Subheading 2 – Research paper results - Assessment of a level 2 group during Fall Semester 2013

The assessment was carried out in the Language Center at SEE University Tetova during the Fall Semester 2012. One group of Level 2 students—preintermediate level—was used as an experimental group. In addition, some of the results from the previous tests conducted at the beginning and at the end of Spring semester 2012 were analyzed and compared with their summative assessment results at the end of Spring Semester 2012.

At the very beginning of Fall Semester 2012 a diagnostic assessment was carried out with my Level 2 students—pre-intermediate level—and an achievement test was prepared and distributed to the students in that group. The diagnostic test was prepared based on the material that was envisaged to be covered, that is based on the the Syllabus for Level 2. The learning outcomes along with assessment criteria and the teaching schedule are included in the syllabus.

The Syllabus was distributed to the students and were informed about the project on the formative assessment and that their contribution would significantly help in successfully accomplishing the project. They were informed that during the semester various activities would be used to support the project which aims to improve their learning so that they achieve the learning outcomes easily at the end of the semester. In order to get their full collaboration I told them that the results from the diagnostic tests and the formative assessment would not affect their grades and asked them when they would do the tests to avoid cheating, copying from their classmates or guessing the answers. They were asked to answer those questions to which they were sure they knew the answers. Furthermore, they were assured that all the activities and the feedback that I would provide them with would furnish them with the necessary knowledge to get

through the summative assessment very easily. They were asked to follow my instruction fully and collaborate during the whole semester.

Since for them this was a new experience at the beginning they were reluctant and suspicious and they did not know what I was talking about or doing. At the end of the semester, however, before even taking the exam they felt confident and happy to face the final exam, since most of them had learned the material and were happy to express satisfaction about what they had managed to learn.

The testing was carried out in two phases and it comprised all the material that was planned to be covered during the semester. In addition, two quizzes and some in-class activities like reading comprehension activities using the Readers for level 2, in-class writing activities, and grammar and vocabulary exercises (in particular the kind of exercises that were given in the diagnostic test) were done in class as part of the formative assessment in between the two tests. All of the activities undertaken aimed to achieve the learning outcomes of the course and were based on the Course Syllabus.

All the steps were very carefully done. I selected very carefully the assessment procedures, techniques, and methods so that I could create a reliable database. The data were then evaluated and analysed to determine levels of effectiveness, changes that needed to be implemented based on the collected data, and the extent to which these changes were successful in improving teaching practice and student learning. The feedback was carried out continuously and in a timely manner so that the students were aware of their progress and their weakness.

The diagnostic assessment, that is the achievement test 1, was designed to determine a reference or a starting point in the formative assessment process that I was planning to undertake. The data that were generated by the diagnostic assessment were then evaluated and analysed and produced immediate actions to guide and adjust lesson planning. The results reflected the students' needs and weaknesses and the feedback was planned specifically to fill up the students' weaknesses. I continuously gave them feedback and supported the feedback with supplementary materials and adjusted the teaching to suit their needs and improve their learning specifically to address their weaknesses. I continuously assigned homework then checked the homework in person with individual students by giving them feedback and by providing them with the

necessary instruction. I assigned in-class writing and also assigned for homework writing activities like writing descriptive paragraphs, or listing some descriptive adjectives to describe people, rooms, houses, cities, that is everything that was recorded in the course syllabus. All in all, material from the course book was covered as planned in the syllabus, and that was combined with supplementary material to make it more clear for the students. I monitored their work very closely and, when carrying out the achievement tests or quizzes, I monitored them carefully so that they answered only those questions that they knew.

Below are shown some of the results from the achievement test 1 – the diagnostic assessment conducted at the very beginning of the semester:

LEVEL 2 GROUP

Teacher: Rashit Emini

Achievement test 1 points

| STUDENTS | Grammar30 points | Vocabulary20 points | Reading 10 points | Writing 10 points |
|-----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Student 1 | 11 | 11 | 6 | 7 |
| Student 2 | 9 | 6 | 4 | 1 |
| Student 3 | 8 | 7 | 3 | 0 |
| Student 4 | 15 | 11 | 6 | 6 |
| Student 5 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| Student 6 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 0 |
| Student 7 | 6 | 9 | 2 | 1 |
| Student 8 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 0 |
| Student 9 | 10 | 9 | 4 | 1 |
| Student 10 | 12 | 10 | 4 | 2 |
| Student 11 | 16 | 12 | 5 | 2 |
| Student 12 | 11 | 8 | 4 | 1 |
| Student 13 | 15 | 12 | 6 | 4 |
| Student 14 | 11 | 9 | 6 | 4 |
| Student 15 | 15 | 10 | 5 | 2 |
| Student 16 | 10 | 10 | 3 | 0 |
| Student 17 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 0 |
| Student 18 | 16 | 12 | 7 | 8 |
| Student 19 | 10 | 10 | 3 | 0 |
| Student 20 | 16 | 10 | 4 | 4 |
| Student 21 | 20 | 12 | 5 | 6 |

As mentioned above, the first test was a diagnostic one and its aim was to determine the students' knowledge before starting with the material. This helped me in planning the actions that were needed to fill up the gaps that I found as a result of the diagnostic test. It helped me to identify the issues to which I had to pay more attention. The students were given the results (separately for each category-grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing) and were told not to worry about the results since this was only the beginning of the semester and that no one expected from them to score higher on the material that had not been covered. However, they were told that the achievement test was created based on the material that was to be covered during the semester.

The results from the diagnostic test (above) showed that the students' weakest side was writing (dark green colour). As the colour gets lighter the points that the students got get higher, which shows that grammar (the white colour) is their strongest side. This showed me where to put the emphasis when I started teaching the material that was to be covered.

Seeing the results from the grammar part, I realised that the students had some difficulties with the first exercise, which had to do with possessives, which in fact was the first lesson on the Syllabus. Therefore, I explained the first exercise from the diagnostic assessment test on the board. After they understood that part they were motivated to participate with other activities as planned. They also learned how to ask for personal details and everyday activities of one person. These exercises included the Present Simple Tense. Homework with similar exercises (possessives) was assigned to them and I told to write their family members (the family tree) so that they could start learning some vocabulary and write about their typical day and the typical day of their friend or a family member so that they could learn putting the suffix 's' for the third person singular in Present Simple sentences.

Thereafter I regularly checked their assigned homework and gave them feedback by basing the homework tasks on the learning outcomes and the results from the diagnostic test.

After 2-3 weeks I distributed the first quiz which comprised the material covered, and similar exercises as given in the diagnostic test, to check their progress. Then I continued with the similar approach and model by involving the students actively in

learning and self-assessment activities and by supplying them with the necessary materials to fill up their learning gaps. Feedback was given on a continuous basis and on time.

Two to three weeks after the first quiz, I gave quiz 2, and the results were showing progress, but with some indications that I had to focus more on writing; however, the results of all the exercises from the quizzes were discussed in an open class. I also posted some writing activities on LIBRI (software for long-distance or on-line learning). The weakest students were encouraged to participate actively. They were all aware of the progress that they were making and that motivated them even more to continue with the momentum they were building. It is worth mentioning that the focus on vocabulary gave them more freedom to get involved in speaking activities and the results from the oral exam at the end of semester showed that they had gotten the necessary vocabulary to deal freely with speaking activities.

The second achievement test was given to them just few days before the final exam (the summative assessment). As expected, the results from the final achievement test showed (see below) that students had made significant progress in grasping the material planned in the syllabus and that they had already met the objectives, that is, they met the learning outcomes from the course. There were a few students who needed some extra help. All in all, they all felt satisfied with their progress and we created a wonderful rapport that helped the project to be accomplished successfully. The reluctance that students felt at the beginning in participating in the project faded out right after the first results from quiz 1 were announced, and when they saw their improvement it was a big satisfaction for them and a strong motivation to continue with the rest of the activities which were part of the project.

LEVEL 2 GROUP

Teacher: Rashit Emini

Achievement test 2 points

| STUDENTS | Grammar30 points | Vocabulary20 points | Reading 10 points | Writing 10 points |
|-----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Student 1 | 30 | 17 | 10 | 9 |
| Student 2 | 26 | 14 | 6 | 4 |
| Student 3 | 22 | 11 | 6 | 6 |

| | | | | |
|------------|----|----|----|----|
| Student 4 | 30 | 18 | 10 | 10 |
| Student 5 | 19 | 10 | 5 | 4 |
| Student 6 | 26 | 14 | 7 | 5 |
| Student 7 | 22 | 14 | 6 | 4 |
| Student 8 | 24 | 12 | 7 | 7 |
| Student 9 | 20 | 11 | 6 | 5 |
| Student 10 | 26 | 18 | 9 | 9 |
| Student 11 | 29 | 18 | 8 | 9 |
| Student 12 | 27 | 18 | 9 | 8 |
| Student 13 | 29 | 14 | 10 | 9 |
| Student 14 | 18 | 10 | 6 | 6 |
| Student 15 | 24 | 18 | 8 | 10 |
| Student 16 | 20 | 11 | 6 | 4 |
| Student 17 | 10 | 7 | 3 | 2 |
| Student 18 | 28 | 18 | 10 | 10 |
| Student 19 | 15 | 8 | 4 | 2 |
| Student 20 | 28 | 18 | 8 | 8 |
| Student 21 | 30 | 19 | 10 | 10 |

The oral exam that was conducted one week before the exam showed that students had progressed to the extent that they felt free to discuss issues and topics that were covered during the semester by using the vocabulary they had learned. This was the first evidence of progress for me and also for the member of the evaluation committee -assessor (students take the oral exam in front of a committee their course teacher and one assessor who is scheduled randomly by the LC Administration).

Then in the end the summative assessment (the final exam) confirmed the expectations. The results from the summative assessment confirmed the progress of most of the students. However, it should also be stressed that a few students who from the very beginning showed that their knowledge was not at a good level, and were less interested in being more active in class, showed very little progress. Eventually, they all managed to pass the course taking into consideration the final exam result and the other class components (Detailed Grade Report on the Final Exam that was held in January, Annex 1). This was for me a successful accomplishment of the project on formative assessment with this pre-intermediate group.

In addition to this I analysed the database that was generated by the LC Administration one semester before and the results are as follows¹:

Level 2 group Teacher: Rashit Emini

| Student's ID | Points from first testing | Level of Proficiency | Points from second testing | Level of proficiency |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | Level 1 | 14 | Level 2 |
| 2 | 9 | Level 1 | 11 | Level 2 |
| 3 | 15 | Level 2 | 25 | Level 3 |
| 4 | 6 | Level 1 | 15 | Level 2 |
| 5 | 15 | Level 2 | 25 | Level 3 |
| 6 | 14 | Level 2 | 22 | Level 3 |
| 7 | 5 | Level 1 | 25 | Level 3 |
| 8 | 12 | Level 2 | 12 | Level 2 |
| 9 | 9 | Level 1 | 20 | Level 2 |
| 10 | 18 | Level 2 | 25 | Level 3 |
| 11 | 9 | Level 1 | 24 | Level 3 |
| 12 | 6 | Level 1 | 23 | Level 3 |
| 13 | 11 | Level 2 | 18 | Level 2 |
| 14 | 7 | Level 1 | 17 | Level 2 |
| 15 | 13 | Level 2 | 22 | Level 3 |
| 16 | 2 | Level 1 | 24 | Level 3 |
| 17 | 5 | Level 1 | 22 | Level 3 |
| 18 | 24 | Level 3 | 25 | Level 3 |
| 19 | 7 | Level 1 | 26 | Level 3 |
| 20 | 21 | Level 3 | 24 | Level 3 |
| 21 | 11 | Level 2 | 12 | Level 2 |

The table above shows that all students in my group made progress; however, since the group was a mixed ability one, not all of them got the necessary points to get to the next level. Yet since we got the results, earlier efforts were made to help these students pass level 2. I engaged them more and conducted open classes so that I engaged the weakest students more and some progress was made eventually (Reference Detailed Grade Report from the final exam).

¹ It is important to note that this proficiency tests were carried out by the LC administration at the beginning and end of the semester. The feedback (the results) was provided to the teachers at the end of the semester, before the final exam. This test had a different aim: to measure the progress of the students during one semester for administrative purposes.

If we compare the proficiency results with the overall results from the summative assessment, we note that those students who showed progress in the proficiency exam confirmed their progress in the summative assessment, whereas some weaker students who were not for level 2 (they were for level 1) from the beginning had difficulties in achieving the scores to pass level 2. However, they showed some progress by taking them out of the level 1 and placing them into level 2. It should be noted as well that a few students—although their starting points were low—did manage to reach the others and passed level 2 without any significant difficulties. In general most of the students showed progress and met the learning outcomes. However, it should be also noted that this kind of assessment (without any continuous and timely feedback) can be used only for measuring the results that the teacher makes, but it is not effective in increasing the quality of teaching during the assessment period.

Assessments equipped with all the necessary logistics (alternative teaching methodology, student-centered classes, flexible teacher-student rapport, student awareness of the benefits of the formative assessment, continuous self-assessment, other instruments and resources, and continuous and timely feedback) are very effective tools for increasing the quality of teaching and learning.

Conclusions

Based on the research paper results the following conclusions can be brought:

Formative assessment along with diagnostic assessment is a very valuable asset for generating valuable and reliable databases that helps in generating policies and procedures to support the teaching and learning practices to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the higher education institutions.

Undertaking formative assessment on a continuous basis helps in identifying the stronger and weaker sides teaching and learning practices within institutions and gives a good ground for adjusting the curricula to the best teaching and learning practices. It stimulates actions in changing and adapting the curricula, and promoting best teaching and learning practices to meet students' needs and the learning outcomes. In this context, the formative assessment process helps in creating assessment frameworks to measure institutional and instructional effectiveness and a commitment to using data to improve teaching and learning, and performance in general.

Formative assessment helps in creating a reliable database that measures both the effectiveness of teachers and students' progress.

Formative assessment raises students' awareness about the importance of continuous assessment and their active involvement in the process so that they can improve their learning outcomes.

Formative assessment, along with continuous and timely feedback incorporated within the curricula, ensures active learning, continuous self-assessment, undertaking of alternative teaching methodology and strategies in meeting the learning weaknesses of students. It promotes continuous engagement of both the teachers and students towards meeting the learning outcomes and eventually improvement.

Recommendations:

To carry out an institutional formative assessment, that is to promote a whole school approach to formative assessment. Establishment of a comprehensive formative assessment plan (assessment procedures, instruments, tools, resources), included in the curricula, is more than necessary in order for the institution to improve the quality teaching and learning. In line with this to undertake changes in the curricula (teaching methodology and strategies) so that they support the institutional formative assessment. This will help in coordinating the formative assessment in the institution and control it centrally. And the last but not the least, inform and involve all parties (teachers and students) in the process and encourage them to actively participate.

To carry out entrance and exit assessments to determine the knowledge of the students at the beginning of their studies and when they finish with the course requirements. The data provided by this kind of assessment would be used to compare them with the data generated from the ongoing institutional formative assessment to generate further managerial actions related to changes and improvements in the curricula and the system of work in general.

Formative assessment, along with formative assessment tools and feedback, should be incorporated within the curricula and ensure that discussing the ongoing assessment results with the students takes place on regular basis and on time (to be included in the curricula).

Different levels of management in higher education institutions should promote and apply the diagnostic and formative assessment along with summative assessment both to increase the quality of teaching and grade (value) students' progress.

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An in Depth Analysis of "Intercultural Communication in Tourism English: A Diagnostic, Prognostic Approach."

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Abstract

Much has been done in terms of target language use and proficiency, but little has been mentioned about culture related language use in ESP settings. This study aims to shed light on intercultural communication problems by examining the use of foreign languages in the tourism industry. In the framework of the study, English for specific purposes, together with sociolinguistic parameters will be analyzed. This study will encompass a critical, analytical, argumentative and descriptive perspective. The view of employees suffering from some misunderstanding due to intercultural communication and its effects on their departments' success, has been tabulated and analyzed from the results of interviews done with the Guest Relations Officers at Royal Caribbean Cruise Lines in the USA. The results of the study have shown that their business could be more effective if these identified intercultural differences while using English are included in staff education and training programs. The study itself recommends that a staff communication program in intercultural settings within the use of English as a second language, be developed.

Key terms: Business, Culture, Language, Failure in using English as a Foreign Language in tourism settings, Relevance, Cultural problems, Sociolinguistic Problems, Cross-cultural Communication in an ESP Environment

Introduction

Learning English is not simply about acquiring knowledge of its grammatical patterns but, more appropriately, emphasizing learning a new language as a means of communication with others, as well as improving understanding of cultures with which learners were previously unfamiliar. Some authors (Robinson 1988; Byram 1989, 1991, 1997; Harrison 1990; Kramsch 1993, 1998; Byram and Zarate 1997; and Baker 2003, 2008). Kramsch (1993), Zarate (1995) and Byram (1997) point out that cultural awareness and the learning of a foreign language seem to enable learners to attain greater language proficiency since culture tends to permeate, implicitly or explicitly, spoken and written

language as dimensions of social interaction. Another advantage of stimulating awareness is that it can enable learners to tentatively predict where problems might occur during the process of ICC and, thus, to circumvent or avoid such difficulties. Kramsch (1993:238) states that learning another language for communication means leaving behind the native paradise of native-tongue socialization. If, as Whorf (1956) maintained, language does indeed shape the way we think and what we can think about, then the consequences of privileging one language over another must impact on the voices and experiences of those less privileged. Knowledge of language structures, for example, can lead people to a great understanding of cultural influences.

Nowadays communicative competence, without awareness of cultural dimensions in language use, is not complete. In learning a language, it is important to be aware of its cultural aspect, because knowledge about other cultures helps to learn a language and assess cultural values and peculiarities of the language learner's nation (Anisimova,2006; Dirba, 2003; Ellis, 2005; Kim, & Hall, 2002; Korhonen, 2004; Stier, 2004;Williams, & Burden, 1999). According to M. Byram intercultural competence includes attitude, knowledge, interpretation and related skills, as well as discovery and interaction skills, and critical awareness of culture or political education (Byram, 2000). Byram (1997) also criticizes communicative competence as it is developed within the tradition of organizing foreign language learning according to the native speaker model. This way of accepting foreign language learning implies that the learner has to comply with the standards of the native speaker without questioning them.

ICC focuses on the purportedly challenging nature of the communicative process between people from different cultural backgrounds as pointed out by Piller (2007), among others

Background of the study

ICC breakdowns are probably more likely in instances where face and politeness are significant. A lack of ICC knowledge is also a potential cause for estrangement in intercultural contacts. When two participants differ in their assessment of face strategies, it will tend to be perceived as a difference in power as Scollon and Scollon (2001, p.58) claim. Such breakdowns among Guest Relations Officers at the RCCL company have been observed since they are exposed to various intercultural conversations with their guests

who come from many different nationalities. Many misunderstandings also arise due to cultural differences and the direct translation or transliteration of the English language from their mother tongues. In some cases body language has led to confusion and misunderstandings in communication from both parties. In fact, all of the pursers are required to have an undergraduate degree in language related fields, guest relations or tourism English. Although they may be proficient in English, they can't always clearly communicate with the guests due to their unawareness of intercultural communication skills. Despite the fact that they are all knowledgeable and trained in communication skills in the target language, they tend to use the target language improperly or within the sociolinguistic functions of their own languages. It has been revealed that none of them have been trained in the use of language in different intercultural settings. They have been provided with seminars and workshops dealing with effective communication. Despite these training courses they still feel the need for case-based and procedural training.

Focus of my research

There is currently very partial evidence of intercultural skills development within hospitality and tourism management programs in the UK, and these studies as well as other notable enquiries (Stone, 2006; Hearn et al., 2007; Devine et al., 2008), argue forcefully for more engagement in this area. As the literature and empirical evidence highlight, intercultural awareness and communication skills are difficult to pin down for academics (Stone, 2006).

In this respect, this paper focuses on providing some insights into the relationship between ICC and language education in the tourism context, with detailed reference to relevant literature. This paper proposes that the study of ICC should be integrated into EFL instruction in order to help facilitate both language learning and effective communication. Human Resources departments should also incorporate ICC together with language addressing barriers and intercultural mother tongue transfer, into their training program by focusing on case-based reports.

Significance of the study

Developing Intercultural Competence is a rather slow learning process, which includes learning a foreign language, intercultural training, and gaining experience from meeting people of other cultures (Korhonen, 2004). In this study, intercultural competence

is referred to as an ability to see and understand differences in one's own and other people's cultures and countries, accept them and accordingly react, in conversation and behavior, treating people of other cultures in a way which is not offending, scornful or insulting.

Questions of the study

1. Do guest relations officers suffer from intercultural differences?
2. What are the reasons for intercultural competence problems?
3. What are the main intercultural communication problems?

The value of intercultural communication skills

Intercultural communication skills include the knowledge of one's own nation and culture, awareness of its values, preservation and development. Intercultural competence consists of attitude (inquisitiveness, openness, tolerance), declarative knowledge of cultural aspects (facts, concepts) (Dirba, 2004) and an ability to operate in different cultural contexts. (Baumgarten (1995) suggests that individuals being recruited for positions where intercultural interaction will be important, should have culture-general aspects in their immediate training, and that these should be part of the selection criteria. Culture- specific training can then build on culture-general training when the specific location for an assignment or work activity has been identified.

Intercultural competence within socio-cultural parameters

Intercultural competence may be divided into two groups: content-competence and process-competence. Content-competence refers to knowledge of history, language, behavior, cultural norms, habits, customs, symbols, traditions, etc. Process-competence refers to the dynamic character of intercultural competence and its interactional context. Process-competence consists of intrapersonal competencies (perspective alteration, self-reflection, role-taking, problem-solving, culture-detection and axiological distance) and interpersonal competencies (interpersonal sensitivity, communication competence and situational sensitivity) (Stier, 2006; 2004).

Socio-cultural competence, according to Byram and Zarate (1997: 14-21), that language learners need to develop as part of intercultural communicative competence, is as follows:

1. Attitudes and values (*savoir-être*): an affective capacity to relinquish ethnocentric attitudes towards and perceptions of others and a cognitive ability to establish and maintain a relationship between native cultures and foreign cultures.

2. The ability to learn (*savoir-apprendre*): a capacity to devise and operate an interpretative system which sheds light on unknown cultural meanings, beliefs and practices associated with either a familiar or a new language and culture.

3. Knowledge (*savoirs*): a system of cultural references which structures implicit and explicit knowledge gained in linguistic and cultural learning, taking into consideration the needs of learners in their interaction with their interlocutors. This skill tends to rely on the learning of the target language and a specific context of use.

4. Know-how (*savoir-faire*): an ability to combine the three skills in particular situations of bicultural contact, that is, between the culture(s) of the learner and of the target language.

Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence

Based on their experiences in the European context, Byram (1997) and Risager (2007) have also theorized multidimensional models of intercultural competence. In *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*, Byram (1997) proposed a five-factor model of intercultural competence comprising the following:

1. The *attitude* factor refers to the ability to relativize one's self and value others, and includes "curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own" (p. 91).

2. *Knowledge* of one's self and others means knowledge of the rules for individual and social interaction and consists of knowing social groups and their practices, both in one's own culture and in the other culture.

3. The first skill set, the *skills of interpreting and relating*, describes an individual's ability to interpret, explain, and relate events and documents from another culture to one's own culture.

4. The second skill set, the *skills of discovery and interaction*, allows the individual to acquire "new knowledge of culture and cultural practices," including the ability to use existing knowledge, attitudes, and skills in cross-cultural interactions (ibid, p. 98).

5. The last factor, *critical cultural awareness*, describes the ability to use perspectives, practices, and products in one's own culture and in other cultures to make evaluations.

Byram further clarified that the interaction factor (skills of discovery and interacting) includes a range of communication forms, including verbal and non-verbal modes and the development of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competencies. This links well to the previously mentioned issue of accessing knowledge based on language choice; different speakers will have different experiences only accessible through that particular language – from this it is possible to speculate that when speakers of different L1 languages from different cultural backgrounds come together to communicate in English, they are doing so based on prior experiences in their L1 which are transferred to the L2.

Views and communication problems in different cultural settings

The concept of intercultural communicative competence, is the process of the communication between at least two people with different cultural backgrounds, so it is necessary that both of them perceive each other's differences in a certain 'correct' way which ultimately leads to efficient communication. "Thus, the English used for communication between, say, a Dutch and a German will typically be different from that used between a Greek and a Spaniard, and those will be different from the English used in a company of people from all these nationalities"(Sifakis, 2004). Thai people may approach other cultures from the position of their own Buddhist cultural background, values, beliefs and behavior, underpinning Thai society and education (The Dhammakaya Foundation 2005).

Non-verbal communications

In English language textbooks, issues relating to "face" and "politeness" can be raised, as these are highly salient aspects of social interaction in, for instance, negotiating requests or refusals. Specific strategies people use are likely to be shaped and modified by cultural values (Saville-Troike 2003; Myers-Scotton 2006; and Samovar *et al.* 2007).

There is a need to understand that eye contact is governed by cultural mores and is not necessarily an indicator of disinterest or a lack of comprehension if the listener is not providing eye contact at times. This aspect of communication is a good example of the limitations of trans-cultural theories and prescribed approaches to communications.

Conceptions of human nature : USING 'I' language

In relationship-based cultures, the unit of human existence is larger than the individual because one does not exist apart from one's relatedness to others. The principle is not simply that loyalty to the group entitles one to loyalty from the group. Loyalty to the group is loyalty to oneself. Neglecting other members of the group is like neglecting parts of one's body.

Rule-based cultures regard human beings as autonomous individuals. Autonomy means in part that no individual has natural authority over another. Social cohesion therefore demands that there be some authority that is apart from any individual. The reluctance to engage with people from another country is not uncommon. Language barriers may be just the tip of the iceberg in an international negotiation. Because each culture has its own customs for communicating in business and social situations, it can be difficult for members from different groups to bridge those gaps in a short amount of time

Method

24 guest relations officers at a private cruising company agreed to participate in the study. The demographics of the employees were between the ages of 22 to 36 years old , equally distributed from different countries: Japan, Turkey, Poland, Italy ,Spain, America, Russia, Bulgaria, Croatia, Thailand, German, Brazil. The sample included different age groups, ethnic backgrounds, and different academic majors. The final component of the questionnaire asked respondents to evaluate their most internationally focused module addressing interpersonal and/or intercultural skills. Where intercultural issues were tackled the focus was on raising cultural awareness, exploring communication styles and differences and appropriate behavior adaptations.

The data collection instruments used were 8 interview questions. They addressed the following issues: the respondents language proficiency level, educational background, knowledge of intercultural differences between cultures and whether there exists a problem due to their native culture. They asked what the possible reasons of these

difficulties, whether the respondent had undergone intercultural competence and sensitivity training and if they had taken any training courses at a university or at any institution they had been sent to by their employers. It also asked what examples of intercultural communication problems they had encountered and what kind of tools they needed to solve these issues.

Results

One problematic issue was that many non-native speakers tended to demonstrate behaviors associated with their native language through the medium of English, which caused additional confusion and misunderstandings some of which are listed below:

-The American, Italian and Spanish speakers began with a small joke to "break the ice." This was inappropriate to the Germans and Japanese. German officers wished to be reassured by the professionalism and seriousness accorded to them. Humor suggested casualness and prevented the speaker from being taken seriously.

-Japanese speakers tended to be more self-conscious about starting the conversation with native speakers. Brazilians appeared to be more open to speaking freely without worrying about imperfections in their speech and choice of vocabulary.

-With Japanese guest relations officers' silence in ICC was attributed to strategies of face saving and politeness. Some Turkish employees preferred silence in the same manner, labeled them as passive workers.

-Russian employees mostly used imperatives, the consequences of which are most detrimental in speaking ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Sentences like "give me the report" sound like an order rather than a request. As Ivanov (1989) remarks, requests in Russian are mostly based on the Imperative, the equivalent of please being added only for politeness.

-Most of the Turkish employees tended to use polite forms for negative statements which understated what they meant to say. For example "I'm not too good now" (instead of "I'm very ill"); "It's not good enough" (instead of "It's very bad").

-Polish employees had a very specific way of responding to the questions. Their statements were direct and often could be interpreted as impolite. They found people who did not maintain eye-contact as unreliable and uninterested, but Turkish, Japanese, people

from Singapore and Malaysian employees found it a sign of respect, and also a matter of shyness. American employees took it as a problem of ignoring someone.

- Spanish employees were found to be quite direct in their small talks. Polish believed that making a small talk was a waste of time, since what they wanted to do was to get down to business. Turkish people found it a part of getting to know each other. Japanese officers gave much importance to the polite procedure of small talk. Others saw it as a waste of time and taking too long to reach the main point. Polish staff regarded it as a process of slowing down the communication strategies. Some Hungarian employees shared the same view.

-Japanese and most of the employees from oriental cultures use silence as a matter of respect and avoid the negative un-expected response and gain some time to save the face. Polish employees took silence as disagreement: Turkish employees thought it as a personal right to think about an objective for a while before reaching the correct and logical conclusion. For them silence appeared to be a matter of respect and keeping the distance.

-Some Spanish, Polish, Italian and Croatian employees had a tendency to interrupt speech which was misunderstood by the guests as an insulting attitude. However, their aim was to take action immediately.

Discussion

T Al-Issa (2003) suggests that refusals can be more complex when social factors, including age, gender, education, social distance and power are involved. Some other cultures use brevity of expression different from that in use by American speakers of English. In this study, it appeared that some Thai, Spanish and Italian employees faced certain problems with Japanese, American, British and Turkish guests. They expressed gratitude while rejecting offers or invitations. The statements they used were: "Sorry. I can't change it. Now my shift is over." To be polite, Spanish and Italian showed empathy with their addressee(s) through non-verbal communication. In expressing refusals the above given examples can be regarded as an adequate form of refusal in many contexts. These results show that each culture has a different way of expressing their thoughts based on different values as Clyne's (1993, p.958) claim that "cultural value systems play an important role in patterns of communication across different cultures."

Some of the responses given by Croatian employees seemed to show interpersonal politeness and face-saving that can sometimes be at odds with politeness forms employed by Japanese. In this case, a Croatian employee warned the Japanese guest to be in rush and run to one of the saloons to go quickly to the customs check emphasizing that if they missed it they would not be able to go on shore in non-USA islands. However, the manner in which this warning was delivered was taken as an insult by the Japanese guest. This shows that in some ICC situations, announcements such as "Please go to the state room immediately, you are late and missing registration" might seem less than polite. It can be argued that Thai, Russian, Italian, Polish, Croatian, Bulgarian learners of English and some other mentioned nationalities should develop broader sets of face-saving and politeness strategies in order to ensure successful interaction with people from different cultural backgrounds. As already mentioned, they need to learn pragmatic aspects of language use in order to know and be able to employ cultural awareness in the target language.

Structurally speaking, as the spread of English progresses, English is bound to reflect a diversity of disparate cultures. Non-native speakers exploit the target language in their own unique ways. For instance when Japanese speak English with Turkish, there is no room for American or British culture. What actually happens is that Japanese behave like Japanese and speak English in Japanese ways, and so do the Turks. This demonstrates that English now is a multicultural language. At this point, one will inevitably be exposed to language barriers. The best way to overcome language barriers in a professional setting is to keep communication as clear and direct as possible. Saving face as a communication skill also occurs in relationship-based cultures such as Japan and Turkey. In Confucian cultures, for example, one never utters a word or takes an action without calculating the effect on face. This is obviously important when dealing with superiors or colleagues, as when verbal disagreements are muted and indirect signals are used in negotiation.

Scollon and Scollon(2001) suggest that in most cases, a sudden breach of any kind of professional communication could be owed to the misinterpretation of signals, verbal messages and gestures particular to a given culture. Therefore, professional students should be informed about potential problems. In fact, it is virtually impossible to predict

every professional problem. To solve some these issues the authors suggest a skeleton for situation-context analysis – Grammar of Context.

Actually, with some degree of intercultural awareness, one is capable of understanding the other even if the two persons' communication styles are different. Unfortunately, most ESP curriculum programs are inclined to reinforce the tendency by putting much emphasis on reading about foreign cultures, mostly those of the U.S.A. and the UK, as the native speakers are from these countries and they design the ESP materials.

With a clear understanding of English as a language for wider communication, it is evident that the cultural elements of the first language should be integrated into the target culture. Language learners need to speak another language also for purposes of sharing their customs and expressing their opinions on international occasions. If we intensify the practice of these self-expressive and explanatory communication skills in ESP, we will certainly contribute to correcting the most critical deficiency in a non-native speakers' international education. In this respect, part of a teacher's responsibility is to teach culture through the medium of language (Kramsch 1998, p.31).

Conclusion

Raising awareness of ICC seems to be an efficient way to avoid culture shocks and misunderstanding and to promote effective relationships and interactions among people from various cultures. Overall, developing a learners' skills in ICC can be appropriate as part of language pedagogy. A variety of opportunities for learning English in different cultures can give new perspectives to cultural features embedded in the English language, and allow ESP teachers and learners a chance to engage in ICC practice. Hence, it would stimulate awareness of different socio-cultural norms in ICC in the tourism industry, while being cautious of stereotyping cultures and peoples associated with them.

According to Richey (2004), some BE (Business English) specialists might claim that intercultural training is just an added 'extra' to our lessons. There is only a minimal emphasis provided since language teachers are not really in the cultural training business. She proposes the contrary where BE training is invariably intertwined with a strong intercultural element. If not, she claims, our efforts to prepare students to genuinely communicate in a real-life business setting will be impractical, not yielding any concrete business results. An emphasis should be placed on developing language learners "own

awareness of the nature of intercultural interaction, as well as skills and competences that can enable them to enquire into different beliefs, values, cultural differences and practices with which they were previously unfamiliar."

In addition, some scholars, e.g. Holliday (1994), Li (1998), Nelson (1998), point out that in many contexts of language teaching and learning, students seem frustrated and subsequently fail in language learning where the curriculum and teachers fail to consider intercultural communication (ICC). By implementing students' activity stimulating methods in ESP studies – creative problem-solving tasks that are connected with the tourism industry, role plays, case studies, project work – the ESP competence of students develops and they are able to use the language in the changing socio-cultural context.

Topical, situational, task-based and process syllabi can be used to ensure content requirements of the tourism industry, to help students develop communication skills, creative thinking and problem-solving skills. Process syllabus together with problem-solving tasks connected with the tourism industry would enable learners to develop an ability to work in different socio-cultural contexts by using proper contextual grammar and case-based activities that can be selected in co-operation between students and an educator.

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The Effect of In-service English Training on Faculty Members' Language Proficiency

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Abstract

A needs assessment worksheet was administered to faculty member of Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences and its affiliate hospitals in Tehran, and the responses were analyzed. Then a project for the promotion of faculty members' English proficiency was formulated. Following a placement test, 235 members volunteered to take part in in-service English classes to enhance their command of English. They first participated in a pre-test and were accordingly classified into 28 classes of different levels. The classes started few weeks later, in their workplace, to avoid commuting problems of a crowded city like Tehran. After three terms of instructions, the participants took part in a posttest, (comparable to the pretest) to determine the level of their achievements.

According to statistical computations, there was significant improvement in participants' total scores on different communicative skills ($p < 0.001$). Regarding individual skills also they achieved meaningful gains on listening ($p < 0.001$), writing ($p = 0.038$) and grammar ($p < 0.001$), but failed to progress significantly on reading comprehension ($p = 0.523$).

Introduction

In-service education facilitates the enhancement, development and updating of knowledge and professional skills. It offers the possibility of obtaining new skills and qualifications, professional training or vocational experience acquired earlier. It additionally provides a unique opportunity for individual self-study irrespective of one's age (Bullough, 2009).

Numerous studies have investigated the way in-service education functions in different professional settings. In Girolametto and colleagues' study (2007), an in-

service education program resulted in short-term behavioral changes in educators' use of abstract language and print references. According to Joshi, Binks, Hougen et al. (2009) in-service education on language concepts gave the instructors the necessary knowledge of language concepts related to early literacy instruction, which they could then integrate into their pre-service reading courses. Girolametto, Weitzman and Greenberg (2003) investigated the outcome of in-service training on language facilitation strategies of childcare providers in day care centers. Sixteen caregivers were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Caregivers were taught to be responsive to children's initiations, engage children in interactions, model simplified language, and encourage peer interactions. At posttest, the experimental group waited for children to initiate, engaged them in turn-taking, used face to face interaction, and included uninvolved children more frequently than the control group. In turn, children in the experimental group talked more, produced more combinations, and talked to peers more often than the control group.

McKeon and Harrison's (2010) study provides insights into the ways in which professional pedagogical learning has developed and into the particular workplace learning influences on the formation of teacher educators' emerging professional identities. Shawer's research examined the effect of classroom teacher development program on EFL (English as-a-foreign language) college teachers and students. According to the results, the program significantly improved student-teacher subject pedagogical and curricular skill, resulting in professional satisfaction. Sabouri and colleagues (2011) indicated the need for the development of new instructional materials with properly ordered visuals as part of their ingredients for educational settings such as the in-service education. The use of new materials with their accompanying pictures in such settings, according to the authors, could help to achieve optimal comprehension.

The studies indicated above are few samples of numerous pieces of research carried out thus far to investigate the role of in-service education on enhancement, development and updating of knowledge and professional skills from different perspectives. Although the studies already performed form a vast array of work, there are still many questions waiting to be answered. A significant issue requiring further investigation, for example, is the role of such instruction on language skills of medical

professionals receiving patients in EFL settings. In line with this question, the current study specifically investigated the impact of classroom-level language instructions on medical professionals' skills development. It intended to find out how successful in-service instructions could be for medical professionals primarily, serving as faculty members at SBUMS. Accordingly, following preliminary arrangements for a large scale research project, a total of 28 EFL classes were organized for a total of 235 volunteers from different colleges and teaching hospitals of the University. The results were expected to touch upon the increasingly important issue of skills enhancement via in-service education. In line with such objectives, the following questions were addressed:

1. Would it be practically feasible to carry out a large scale in-service English education to enhance the language proficiency of medical professionals working at numerous hospitals and medical colleges located wide apart?

2. Will a regular in-service English education elevate physicians and faculty members' command of English on each individual skill of writing, listening, grammar and reading in the same way?

Method

Participants:

Participants were 235 volunteers from the faculty members of Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences (SBUMS) located in different colleges and teaching hospitals in Tehran. They participated in a placement test few days before the commencement of the program. Based on the test results, they were divided into 28 relatively homogeneous groups, each with 8 to 14 members. The groups were composed of four different proficiency levels: pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. The reason for dividing participants into different groups based on their proficiency level was to have linguistically homogeneous participants together in similar classes, which could help achieve more successful instructions. The participants belonged to different medical orientations and specialties; nonetheless, the main criterion for their classification into particular learning groups was their command of English, measured by a placement test carried out before starting the classes.

Venue of instructions

To make it easy for participants to attend, the classes were held in the faculty members' work places in different hospital and colleges. This could help save a lot of time, by avoiding commuting problems in a crowded city such as Tehran. The number of classes in each place varied from 1 to 4, depending on the number of applicants in the workplace. If the level of the class in an applicant's workplace did not match his proficiency level, he could attend an appropriate class in another hospital or college at his closest vicinity. Performing the instructions in the applicants' workplace made the training very cost beneficial; the faculty members did not have to pay high tuitions for tutorial staff. Nor did they have to pay for commuting charges; they saved a lot of time by attending the training sessions at the closest distance in their affiliate colleges or hospitals.

Instructors

The teaching staff involved in the instructions for three successive terms was mostly recruited from a language institute in Tehran, based on a contract agreed upon and endorsed by the English Language Department of the University and the head of the Institution. The instructors' qualifications had to be endorsed by a team of experts from the English Language Department of SBUMS, before they could start the instructions which required that they refer in person to one of the teaching hospitals or colleges. The reason for recruiting the instructors from an institution rather than the English Language Department was staff limitation in the Department. The English Department, located in the Paramedical college of SBUMS did not have sufficient number of EFL teachers to undertake instructions of a large-scale project with 28 different classes. They additionally had to carry out their usual work of instructing medical and paramedical students.

The selection of the institution and the instructors followed a detailed process. The main criteria were (a) the instructors teaching standards and qualifications (measured by class observation) and (b) the fees they demanded for each teaching session. Five experienced faculty members from the English Department (forming the Research Project Committee) were directly involved in the process of choosing a well

qualified institution and then selecting certain instructors from that particular institution, based on a set of measures like class observation and fees-for-teaching negotiation.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were as follows: (a) A Needs Assessment Worksheet, (b) an objective placement test, versions “A” and “B” and (C) a Course Information Sheet.

The Needs Assessment Worksheet: The Worksheet, with 20 items, was developed based on Munby's ‘needs analysis’ model. Although Munby's model developed 'during the 1970s, “it has been [according to Jordan, 1997, p.24] very influential: either developments have stemmed from [it], or as a result of reactions to it”.

The Needs Assessment Worksheet was not required to be subjected to variability measures. The reason is that it was not intended to investigate a latent variable as the items included in it did not represent a ‘shared’ variance. They varied in the number of options they had – from two to five – depending on type of item. The items were analyzed and interpreted individually.

The Needs Assessment worksheet was filled out by a total of 450 faculty members from all colleges and teaching hospitals before the commencement of the experiment. The items forming the worksheet dealt with issues such as the significance of English in faculty members’ career, the type of skills they were more interested in, the role of standard exams such as IELTS in the future of their work, their communication purposes, and their desired level of proficiency.

Objective placement test: The objective placement tests, in two parallel versions (“A” and “B”), each with 70 multiple-choice items, had been designed by Lesley and colleagues. The tests followed two main objectives of (a) classifying the participants into homogeneous groups, with similar levels of English proficiency, and (b) serving as pre-test/ post-test instruments (in two parallel forms), to identify score gains of the subjects under instruction. They measured receptive skills of listening, reading and grammar recognition. Also, they included composition topics to assess participants writing skills. All parts of the tests were based on the objectives, content, and language of different levels of Interchange Third Edition and Passages (Richards et al., 2005). In section 1, the Listening section with 20 items, the participants listened to nine

conversations and answered one or more questions about each one. They heard each conversation only once. Section 2, the Reading section, had several short passages, with 20 test items. The participants were expected to choose the correct answer for each item based on the information in the accompanying passage. In section 3, the Language Use section with 30 items, the participants chose the correct completion for each item and marked their choice on the answer sheet. They were allowed a total of 50 minutes to complete the test, with 15, 20 and 15 minutes for each of the Listening, Reading and Language Use sections respectively. In its Essay Form, the test wants the test takers to write an organized essay about one of the topics presented in this section.

The reasons for the selection of Lesley's (2005) Placement test were that (a) the institution, where the teaching staff came from, used the Interchange Third Edition as their source materials to teach and practice English; (b) the same materials, i.e. the Interchange series, served as teaching materials for the research project as well; and (c) the test was recommended by EFL teachers and test developers who were familiar with the research objectives of the project and its subject selection procedure.

The Course Information Sheet: The Course Information Sheet was intended to find out whether all the post-test participants had already taken the pre-test; whether they attended the classes regularly for three successive terms; and whether they received any skills-oriented English instructions other than those arranged by the Project. Depending on the participants' answers to these questions due measures were adopted to avoid cases that could undermine the quality of the study. These measures were adopted before ending the terms.

Procedure

Being a longitudinal work by nature, the study lasted for three terms. Each term was composed of 25 sessions, with each session lasting for 110 minutes. With two sessions a week, each term took an average of three months to conclude.

The participants attended the pretest exam few weeks before the start of the classes. The place where the tests were carried out was quite light and spacious, with very appropriate acoustics. Based on the results of the test, the subjects were classified into 28 smaller groups, each with 8 to 14 participants. Variations involved in the number of participants attending each class were due to their proficiency level and their

vicinity to the venue where the classes were held. Each term, having a total of 25 sessions, with two sessions per week, took nearly three months to conclude. During the term, as part of the terms and conditions indicated in the Contract endorsed by the Institution supplying instructors and the English Department, all the classes were observed by faculty members from the English Department to make sure of high quality of the instructions. Course assessment included midterm and final exams and class activities during the term.

The exam committee did their best to have the posttest in the same venue where the pre-test was already held. Nonetheless, due to a number of problems, particularly participants' difficulty in agreeing upon a common time to assemble, the exam committee decided to hold the posttest in three venues, instead of one. However due measures were adopted to make the post-test venues similar to that of the pre-test (in terms of acoustics, space, light, type of chairs, etc.). The selection of venues for the posttest was subject to the research committee's approval. The instructors were also asked to (a) justify the class participants of the significance of their attendance in the posttest and (b) make due arrangements for their presence in one of the three exam venues. In terms of the exam questions also, as already indicated, there was full conformity between the two exams as the post-test was indeed a parallel version of the pretest, designed by Lesley et al. (2005).

Following the administration of the posttest, three members of the Research Committee undertook the correction of exam papers. The multiple choice parts of the exam, including reading, grammar, and listening were easy to correct but the writing part was time taking and difficult as it lacked any pre-specified key. Hence, to avoid correction bias, the Research Committee agreed upon a set of correction criteria. Right before the correction procedure, the writing papers were photocopied in order to have sufficient copies for each of the three members of correction team. Following the correction procedure, the three scores assigned to each composition by the correction team were added up and averaged to obtain a single score for each participant's writing. The challenging issues in each composition were discussed and agreed upon by the committee members before finalizing each participant's score. The correction criteria were identical for both the pre-test and post-test compositions.

With the conclusion of correction procedure, there were five groups, or 10 sets, of scores to be compared, as follows: (a) pre- and post-test grammar scores, (b) pre- and post-test listening scores, (c) pre- and post-test reading comprehension scores, (d) pre- and post-test composition scores, and (e) pre- and post-test totals. The scores were then subjected to a number of statistical computations, aimed at comparing participants' scores on the pretest and post-test.

Statistical Analysis

A number of statistical computations, using SPSS 16.0 software, were carried out to analyze the data as follows: (a) standardization of scores by converting them to new figures, i.e. out of 20, (b) application of one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for assessing the normality assumption of variables and (c) paired t-tests for significant contrasts. Paired t-tests were intended to compare the pre- and post-assessment scores for the skills under study. p value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

A total of 264 faculty members participated in the pretest, of whom 235 members continued the course to the end. Altogether 11 subjects (4.47%) did not finish the course which is well below the allowed figure of 10% for dropouts. Upon the completion of the project, 40 subjects were randomly asked to sit for the posttest examination. A posttest, with fewer randomly selected subjects, allowed the researchers to save time and money in preparing the test booklets and administering the posttest. This way the researchers would also find it much easier to set a convenient date for the posttest as they had to make fewer arrangements with those who were to attend the posttest examination.

Following the posttest assessment, the exam papers were corrected and the data were sorted out and tabulated for further computations. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the p value for variables of writing, listening, grammar and reading comprehension were all within the pre-specified statistical limits (i.e. $p>0.05$), justifying the application of parametric tests. Then, a set of paired t-tests were used to compare the mean score differences for the skills on the pretest and posttest examinations. According to the results, four out of five mean scores (rows 1,2,3,5, table 1) were significantly different from one another. The mean score differences for the reading comprehension

(row 4, table 1), however, failed to be statistically significant although the difference indicated some gains ($p=0.523$).

The computations went further to measure the effect size too. Table 1 also reports the effect sizes whose base of interpretation is Dörnyei (2007), that is, eta squared is interpreted as 0.01 = small effect, 0.06 = moderate effect, 0.14 = large effect. The mean score increments and effect size magnitudes were noticeable for different skills. The mean writing skill score (9.80) increased significantly to 10.45 after training ($p=0.038$) with a moderate magnitude of 0.06 for effect size. Listening comprehension skill also increased meaningfully from 9.02 to 11.52 ($p<0.001$) with a large magnitude of 0.18 for effect size. The mean grammar score (16.22) increased significantly to 19.20 with a very large magnitude of 0.25 for effect size. The increase in mean reading comprehension (from 14.17 to 14.55 with effect size of 0.01), however, was not statistically significant ($p=0.523$). The total score (49.21), representing participants overall scores on all the four skills together, increased to 55.72 ($p<0.001$) with a very large magnitude of 0.21 for effect size.

Table 1: Comparison of pre-test and post-test skill scores, using paired t-test

| Skills | Average out of 20 | | Difference | | t | P value | Effect size |
|-----------|-------------------|-----------|------------|--------|--------|---------|-------------|
| | Pre-test | Post-test | \bar{d} | SD_d | | | |
| Writing | 9.80 | 10.45 | 0.65 | 1.76 | -2.160 | 0.038 | 0.06 |
| Listening | 9.02 | 11.52 | 2.50 | 3.76 | -4.203 | 0.001 | 0.18 |
| Grammar | 16.22 | 19.20 | 2.98 | 3.46 | -5.219 | 0.001 | 0.25 |
| Reading | 14.17 | 14.55 | 0.38 | 3.67 | -0.645 | 0.523 | 0.01 |
| Total | 49.21 | 55.72 | 6.51 | 8.65 | -4.635 | 0.001 | 0.21 |

Discussion

As can be seen in table 1, participants had score gains on all the four skills under study and that the gains on three skills of listening ($p=0.001$), writing ($p=0.03$) and

grammar ($p=0.001$) were statistically significant, indicating noticeable progress in these areas following three terms of in-service training. There was some improvement on reading comprehension as well, but it failed to be statistically significant ($p=0.52$). The difference between sums of scores (belonging to the four skills together) was also statistically significant ($p<0.001$), indicating the effective role of in-service instructions on subjects' overall proficiency in English.

As the results indicate, the in-service training enhanced faculty members' command of English on a group of skills together and on each individual skill of writing, listening, grammar and reading, without causing any disruptions to their normal flow of work. This was achieved by conducting all the training early in the morning, before the start of work, or in the afternoon, right after the office hours. In few cases, some adjustments were made to the participants' pre-established schedules to find appropriate times for the classes.

The level of the classes and their frequency per week depended on the faculty members' level of English proficiency and the urgency they faced in acquiring the skills. Based on our experience from this large-scale research project, in normal circumstances, two sessions per week for different proficiency levels would be effective. Nonetheless, if the participants themselves, or their affiliate colleges or hospitals would like to have more sessions per week, due measures can be adopted to arrange more sessions for them. In our case, for example, some volunteers had little time to get ready for the IELTS exam, which was essential for passing their fellowship abroad; the research committee, accordingly, arranged more than two sessions per week for them.

Some might argue that the trainees need pre-established practical experience if they are to benefit from the in-service training. The current study did not support this claim, as some of our participants had very little command of English, roughly comparable to upper elementary, before taking part in this project. Nonetheless, they managed to get along with the course requirements quite successfully, although they required more class attendance to achieve a proper command of the skills under instruction. Pre-established experience should not, accordingly, be considered a requisite for undergoing in-service training. Of course, some practical experience can

contribute, but lack of such experience should not serve as a hurdle to refrain the applicant from taking part in such training. Our inexperienced applicants' requests for class attendance could have been turned down or positively processed by arranging some upper elementary classes for them. We went for the second option and the outcome was amazing as, being very well motivated, they progressed much quicker than expected. The main difference was that, compared to more experienced applicants, they received more instructional sessions by having the length of their term extended.

A rather poor record on the reading comprehension, in comparison with other skills under instruction, was apparently rooted in the insufficiency of instructions allocated to this skill. To check the truth of this speculation, the research committee asked for the subjects and instructors' feedbacks on poor record of reading the one hand and examined the textbooks and teaching materials on the other. They realized that the reading skill had received less attention than necessary, mainly because the class activities were more conversationally oriented; the textbooks, likewise, did not offer sufficient reading comprehension practice, as they were also more conversationally inclined. Hence, if a given skill is to develop sufficiently, it has to be given due attention, by receiving sufficient level of practice. One way of achieving this is to maintain a proper balance in number and type of exercises, when writing a syllabus for a particular course, which could help to get the desired outcome for all the skills under instruction.

Before concluding this section, it is necessary to indicate that this research, like many other studies, had its own limitations. A major issue was the correction of compositions which was rather difficult to do; due measures were adopted to tackle this issue by identifying a set of criteria based on testing principles for correcting texts and compositions; added to this was the inclusion of an average score for each paper corrected by three members of the research committee. Another challenge in such studies is the possibility of numerous dropouts, which fortunately did not happen in the current study, owing to the importance of such classes to the participants and the measures adopted by the course organizers to make class presence as convenient as possible. One of the measures, which tuned out to be very effective, was sorting out

commuting problems by holding the classes at the participants' workplace at an appropriate time of the day agreed upon by the participants themselves.

Conclusion

In-service education can significantly promote faculty members' overall English proficiency; likewise, it can enhance their mastery over each particular skill, such as listening, writing and grammar, in an EFL environment. Hence, given the increasing importance of English as an international means of communication, in-service education should be given due attention, by providing regular training and retraining of the professionals and staff members. This can guarantee our professionals' appropriate mastery over the skills in need.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr. Seyed Jalil Hosseini, the Vice Chancellor for educational affairs during the administration of the study, for his valuable insights and administrative supports. We also thank the University's offices of Education and Research and the Paramedical College's Research body for approving the research and, accordingly, providing the necessary funds for its execution. We should thank all the teaching staff who energetically carried out the instructions with special interest and dexterity. Special thanks go to all the medical professionals and faculty members from the University colleges and teaching hospitals who eagerly attended the classes, thereby making the execution of the research project possible.

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Writing Lyrics for Awareness of Syllable Structure Difference between Japanese and English

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Abstract

Japanese students with English pronunciation difficulties hesitate to speak English. Their poor pronunciation comes mainly from an imperfect knowledge of syllable structure difference between Japanese (CV) and English (CVC). Writing English lyrics for Japanese songs helps awareness of what hinders them from speaking out and reading aloud written English sentences in an EFL class.

Key words: confidence, pronunciation, syllables, musical note

Introduction

The purpose of this presentation is to convey the presenter's belief to language teaching professionals that awareness of syllable structure difference between Japanese (L1) and English (L2) helps students to diminish difficulties in learning and that language teachers, regardless of being native or non-native English speakers, also need to understand the syllable structure differences between L1 and L2 in order to show students the way to the awareness. Important is how to narrow a language gap. The linguistic distance between Japanese and English is so broad that Japanese freshmen cannot help but feel frustrated in their own subjectively low proficiency level, despite the fact that six years have passed since they started learning L2 at junior high school. Born and raised in the country where 120 million people speak virtually one language, and feeling little necessity of learning any foreign languages, Japanese sophomores often find classroom English just time-consuming. Some of them keep lower motivation compared with freshmen days until they start job hunting at global companies. Besides those low-motivated students, I have seen so many Japanese with language anxiety in classroom situations. Among them, there are some with mental block of foreign language learning, which has something to do with the vast gap between L1 and L2.

Conceptual Framework

Cook (2001) stated, "Students' difficulties with reading may have more to do with the basic characteristics of the L1 writing system than with grammar or vocabulary." Many of my students, being asked to read aloud written sentences on the blackboard or in English textbooks, murmur something that may sound like English. The majority say that they do not really want to talk or even read out English sentences in front of peers. Japanese people are said to be shy. This, however, is not the sole reason for their mumbling. The reluctance to read or speak comes partly from their lack of confidence in pronouncing English words. They fear sounding funny in the classroom. Japanese university students, except Education- or English-majors, have received little or no training of articulating speech sound. They are left behind away from things like sonorous speech, not knowing about how many vowels and consonants English has, how rhythm and intonation should be formed, and what syllabification is. Scaffoldings need to be provided for learners who have not been able to develop competence.

Ishikawa (2009) observed that Japanese students speaking with inappropriate timing of syllables. He continues "Japanese students often have trouble singing English songs." His experiments, using English songs, were conducted for exploring how Japanese college students recognize and produce English syllables through syllable-counting training. In the chapter 9 he states, "By assessing Japanese students' performance in singing English songs, the present training study revealed that an improvement in counting syllables in English words leads to an ability to produce English sentences on the basis of syllables." While Ishikawa uses English songs for students to sing before and after his syllable-counting training, I let the students choose Japanese songs for which they want to write lyrics in English. In lyric writing they acquire basic skill for syllabification. Although materials and procedures are not the same in Ishikawa and me, the idea of syllable structure difference affecting language learning is has something in common.

Background

“Utori” Education

In recent years Japanese universities, both private and national, suffer low academic attainment of freshmen. A remarkable number of universities have started remedial lessons for those who lack in basic knowledge of Physics, Math, Japanese and English. There is a loud voice rising from teachers wondering “why is this, the marked decline in the levels of students’ achievements?” Math professors would complain that some freshmen cannot divide; the presenter would face such ungrammatical sentences as “*I am go school” instead of “I go to school” and “I like music is J-pop”, “My favorite music is J-pop” among freshmen composition. English teachers are blamed by Math teachers for students’ inability to distinguish “g” from “q” in cursive scripts on the Math class blackboard.

Available are numerous studies on the cause of Japan’s drops in scholastic ability, the chart of which is shown in a worldwide study of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). One plausible cause is believed to be a Japanese education policy called “*Utori* (no cramming)” which started virtually in the 1990s. This national policy had drastically reduced class hours including English, and nearly two fifths of the content of curriculum are said to be lost in all public schools throughout the country from elementary through high schools. Even before the 1990s almost of all public junior high school teachers gradually had stopped showing cursive scripts on the blackboard, which was a minor change. The more important change is that they did not teach students how to read International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

In Japanese high schools, phonetics or speech sound training is not high priority. One reason would be that the National Center Test for University Admissions has few pronunciation-related questions. Although applicants for high ranking national or private universities need to take the National Center Listening Test, they are unlikely to give English speech or read aloud passages in front of examiners. Another reason would be that high school class hours in total are too short for pronunciation practice.

Japanese language

Japanese is a vowel-dominant language; English is not. This can be observed in syllable structures of both languages. Ishikawa (2009) mentions English as a language which “permits a wide variety of syllable shapes,” showing four types among many: CV (e.g., “pay”), CVC (e.g., “bat”), CCVCC (e.g., “friend”), and CCCVCCCC (e.g., “strengths”). On the other hand, Japanese has only three types: V (e.g., “i”), CV (e.g., “ta”), and CVC. (e.g., “ken”), and the last type only appears in very limited conditions. Therefore, Japanese learners of English, in reading and speaking, insert unnecessary vowels after every consonant by following the prevailing syllable structure type CV.

Besides syllable types, the number of phonemes is not symmetrical between the two languages: Japanese 23 and English 44. E. O. Reischauer (1988), Japanophile and American ambassador to Japan in the 1960s, said Japanese were poor language learners due to “the relative poverty of the Japanese phonetic systems.” I often see students, unable to read phonetic symbols in the dictionary, trying to mimic what their electronic dictionaries speak on click but in vain. They are lost in the maze of English sounds; they cannot recognize or produce unfamiliar English sounds without proper support materials and activity.

Activities

Participants

I had 115 participants at my first year in a small sized local university located in Nagano, the central of Japan. They are all sophomores (females 21 and males 94) at upper-intermediate English level. They ranged in age from 19 to 21, including no oversea students. One third of them are Management majors; two thirds Engineering majors. The lyric writing activity starting in my three “English Presentation” classes in 2003 was preliminary to the final presentation. The class goal was to give individual, pair, or group presentations in front of peers and the teacher. Presentations were delivered based on the drafts they had revised and finished into the form of paragraph essays. “English Presentation” was a required class; therefore, participants did not necessarily have motivation for writing or giving public presentations. The first two weeks of the 15 week-course (90 minutes weekly class) were for lyrics-

writing; the rest but the last one were for draft-revising. There were no Education- or English-major students. This means the students had received little or no trainings of phonetics before.

Materials & Procedure

Day 1

Firstly, participants are told that this is “Let’s sing a Japanese song in English” hours and asked to choose one favorite Japanese song in individuals, pairs, or in groups. Secondly, they are to remember Japanese lyrics for the chosen song and write them down in the sheet of paper. It does not have to be in full length; four or five lines are good enough. One thing they have to have in mind is that they should put Japanese lyrics all in “kana” letters, not in Chinese characters, the reason of which they will know soon. Next, they are told to compose their original lyrics in English. It will take 20-30 minutes to finish new lyrics. Take one or two samples and pose composers a question, “Do you think I/you can sing this? Shall I/ Will you try?”

In most cases, what I find in the sheets is literal translation of Japanese lyrics as seen in (A). This translation type of lyrics rarely works because in English songs (other many languages, too) musical notes correspond to syllables of words except songs like Gregorian chants. In other words, the number of syllables in lyrics should be equal to that of musical notes for us to sing. Japanese students, who have no/little knowledge on syllabification, cannot explain why their exact translation work fails at first. Then I put music notes in five-line like (B) and lyrics and the number of syllables like (C) on the blackboard. I ask them how many musical notes and syllables there are in (B) and (C). Give them time until they get noticed of the relation of the numbers of notes and English words. Lastly, I give a rough explanation about syllabification. At the end of the class hour, I tell them to send an attached file of the second version of English lyrics by the previous day of the next week class.

(A) FURUSATO: literal translation

I ran after rabbits in the mountain
 I caught carps in the river
 My dreams return now
 I can't forget my old hometown

(B)

故郷

高野辰之 作詞
岡野直一 作曲

感情をこめて

う さ ぎ お い し か の や ま
 こ ぶ な つ り し か の か わ
 ゆ - め は い - ま も め - ぐ - り - て
 わ す れ が た き ふ る さ と

(C) FURUSATO: Japanese lyrics in alphabet (number of syllables(moras))

U/sa/gi o/i/shi ka/no ya/ma (10)

Ko/bu/na tsu/ri/shi ka/no ka/wa) (10)

Yu/u/me/ha i/i/ma/mo me/e/gu/u/ri/i/te (15)

Wa/su/re ga/ta/ki fu/ru/sa/to (10)

Day 2

This is an hour for music. I give handouts where all the works like (D) were printed out. Firstly, read out two or three lyrics together with students, paying attention to stresses, checking the number of syllables is right. Then, try to let them sing the peer's lyrics together. Finally, after reading and singing of all the lyrics,

small sheets of voting paper go around the desks. Students vote for their Grand Prix with one another. The 51 lyrics of students and works given Gran Prix can be seen in the following URL

<http://www.rs.suwa.tus.ac.jp/seito/>

(D) FURUSATO: Literal translation (number of syllables)

I used to drive rabbits to that hillock (10)

I used to catch fishes in that river (10)

Memories are in my hea-art, it is hard to fo-or-get (15)

I can't fo-or-get my old hometown* (10*)

* the notes and syllables do not match

Conclusion

The purpose of the lyrics writing activity conducted at the early stage of “English Presentation” is to let learners be less nervous in speaking and reading in classroom situations. The activity lasted only two weeks and it is not long enough to turn all students into people full of confidence. The result is that some of students became aware of and interested in syllable structure and started composing English lyrics for fun outside the class.

Ur (1894) says that teaching English through songs have a variety of purposes: one for the sake of the language and the other as sources of pleasure. Specially-composed but fabricated English teaching songs are for the former, and authentic ones are for the latter. His observation is that “students do not seem easily to take over grammatical patters or words from the former while authentic well-known songs give more pleasure to listen to and can stand being heard many times.” Many things left undone during the activity: no vocabulary building and grammatical accuracy; however, the very basics of phonetics will survive with students’ favorite authentic songs along with originally written lyrics.

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The Perception of Word Guessing Strategies of Turkish Readers in the First Language (Turkish) and Foreign Language (English)

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It is possible to trace vocabulary as a central part of language learning throughout the history of language teaching methods up to the present age (Coady, 1993). It is also a fact that vocabulary in language teaching has been neglected for a long time (Cohen and Apek, 1980; Laufer and Bensoussan, 1982; Harvey, 1983; Stiegliz, 1983; Bensoussan & Laufer, 1984; Haynes, 1984; Meara, 1984; Coady, 1986; Gairns and Redman, 1986; Morgan and Rinvoluceri, 1986; Carter, 1987; Hague, 1987 Carter and McCarthy, 1988; Nation, 1990). Even Maley (1986) noted:

“It is curious to reflect that so little importance has been given to vocabulary in modern language teaching both the behaviorist/structural model and the functional/communicative model have, in their different ways, consistently underplayed it.” (p. 3).

Of the four general skills that need to be mastered in foreign language learning – listening, speaking, reading and writing – reading is certainly the most crucial to a student entering into a foreign language environment (Huckin and Bloch, 1993). Reading is the primary means by which academic knowledge is transmitted, and it is also a useful secondary source for information that might be missed in a class discussion or lecture. As is the case for Turkish English readers, for many foreign students whose command of spoken English is quite tenuous, reading is the skill they most often depend on to help get them through a program of study.

Research has shown that foreign language readers rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge, and that a lack of vocabulary knowledge is the largest obstacle for foreign language readers to overcome (Uljin, 1981; Alderson, 1984). One of the common ways that foreign language readers tackle with their vocabulary problem when they are reading is to refer to a bilingual dictionary which, in most of the cases is a pocket-size one and does not contain sufficient

information to serve L2 reader's needs. Consequently, foreign language learners who wish to expand their vocabularies must also learn strategies for guessing word meanings in context.

Guessing vocabulary in context is an issue concerning not only with the second/foreign language reading but also with the first language reading. In the first language arena, vocabulary has become a topic of increasing interest. Issues of vocabulary growth, the organization of the lexicon, degrees of word knowledge, and the use of contextual information have moved onto center stages in fields such as psycholinguistics and cognitive psychology, and in reading research itself. For example Goodman (1967) described reading in L1 as a 'psycholinguistic guessing game'. This approach focused on top-down, or cognition-driven, strategies such as predicting. More recently, however, another competing model of reading process has been developed, bottom-up or data driven (Eskey, 1986). And later these two approaches have been combined and an interactive model of reading has been developed (Rumelhart, 1977). According to interactive theory, effective readers use both top-down and bottom-up processing, although they are not always aware of the latter: they predict overall meaning, but they also use local graphemic signals to get meaning from print.

A Definition of Reading

Goodman (1993) defines reading as a receptive language process. It is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with a meaning which the reader constructs. There is thus an essential interaction between the language and thought in reading. The writer encodes thought as language and the reader decodes language to thought.

In the process of conversion of language to thought and vice versa, the reader makes use of a number of elements which contribute to correct meaning formation. Dubin and Olshtain (1993) described five different set of elements which include, extra textual knowledge, which is the readers' general knowledge extending beyond the text; thematic knowledge, which is the readers' overall

grasp of content of this particular text; first level of semantics, which goes beyond the paragraph level in the text; finally second level semantics, which is within the immediate sentence or paragraph. The five elements here are presented in a hierarchical order, from the most global to the most local one.

Vocabulary Instruction in the First and Second/Foreign Language.

Considering the huge number of vocabularies in a language, research on L2 vocabulary development focused on the issue in L1. Singer (1981) and Graves (1987) noted that L1 children come to the task of vocabulary learning with most of their syntactic knowledge set, with a complete phonological system in the place, and with approximately 5,000-6,000 words already known to them. By no means do L2 students begin learning the target language vocabulary with this extensive language background. L2 students also affected by transfer effects, which may take the form of syntactic or lexical inference, and/or processing differences in the early stages of learning of a new writing system (Tzeng and Hung, 1981; Brown and Haynes, 1985; Koda, 1987; Grass, 1989). To L2 students' advantage, especially if they are more mature with an educational background in L1, they bring to the second language learning task a more sophisticated and elaborate knowledge of the world, a strong goal-oriented perspective on their learning, and, in many cases, a well-developed knowledge of learning strategies from their own L1 school experiences. Stoller and Grabe (1993) detected eight points applicable to L2 vocabulary instruction from L1 vocabulary research.

1. Vocabulary is the cornerstone of literacy (Beck and McKeown, 1895) and instruction has an impact on both vocabulary and reading comprehension.

2. L1 research suggests that vocabulary learning involves the acquisition of a range of skills. Students must be able to recall meaning, infer meaning, comprehend a text, communicate orally, spell correctly, etc.

3. Incidental learning from a written context may account for a large proportion of vocabulary growth (Nagy and Herman, 1985).

4. In order the profit most from incidental vocabulary exposure in reading sessions, students must be equipped with independent learning strategies and abilities. Students should be aware of stems, word families and affixes in order to recognize the meaning of most words. Teachers must show students when and how to use context clues to derive meanings for new words (Dunmore, 1989). Proper dictionary use is another strategy for dealing with the unknown words. Students' efficiency in using a dictionary, and knowing when not to use it should developed (Summers, 1988).

5. Learning vocabulary in the first language context requires multiple exposure (Meara, 1980).

6. Elaborated learning of vocabulary can only take place when learners can relate new lexical items to background knowledge (Carr and Wilkinson, 1986; Nelson-Herber, 1986)

7. A person's vocabulary consists of many degrees of knowledge. Drum and Konopak, (1987, p.76) discusses six levels of word knowledge. A student: knows a word orally but not in written form, knows a word meaning but can not express it, knows a meaning but not the word for it, knows the partial meaning of a word, knows a different meaning for a word, knows neither the concept nor the word.

8. Finally, student motivation is identified as having a positive impact on L1 vocabulary acquisition and motivation is equally important in the second language context (Heggard, 1986; Graves, 1987 and Sternberg, 1987).

Word Meanings in Context

Previous research has indicated that all foreign or second language readers of all levels guess the meaning of some unknown words in context to some extent. To guess word meanings most of the readers greatly depend on the form of the unknown word, the lexical level, as Schouten Van Parraren (1981) term it. That is, readers usually attribute a meaning to a word based on its apparent graphophonemic similarity to first language words rather than consider the greater context. These words are called *cognates*. Holmes and Ramos (1993)

defines *cognates* as items of vocabulary in two languages which have the same roots and can be recognized as such. The two principal properties of cognates lie in their orthographic and semantic similarity in the languages compared.

In terms of orthographic similarity, native Turkish speakers identify with little difficulty words such as *international* in English as being cognate with the word *enternasyonal* in Turkish. Although there are not as many cognates between English and Turkish as between English and most European languages, native Turkish speakers still make use of cognates in understanding English however less they are.

Another important factor is the degree of semantic overlap between the two components, an issue which historically has most concerned teachers and text book writers (Downes, 1984). Thus, there has often been a great deal of attention paid to the *false cognates* or *false friends*. As languages change overtime, so do the meanings of the cognates. Therefore, at present day they may be orthographically recognisable, but totally different in meaning.

Another characteristics that is believed to be highly affective in guessing the meanings of the unknown words in context is readers' background knowledge. Adams, 1982; Bernhardt, 1986 and Parry, 1987) found that readers' guesses are frequently defined by the schemata directing their reading when they encounter the unfamiliar word. That is readers familiar with the text context guess word meanings better than those unfamiliar with the text topic (Adams, 1982; Cinemre, 1998).

Schemata theory presently guides much foreign and second language reading research; it is probably the most thoroughly explored theory (Carrell, 1984; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). Schemata are a readers' existing concepts about the world, "knowledge already stored in memory" (Anderson and Pearson, 1984). They constitute the framework into which the reader must fit what she or he understands from a text. If new textual information does not make sense in terms of reader's schemata, the material is comprehended in a different way or ignored, or the schemata are revised to match the new facts. First language comprehension is viewed as the interaction process in which the

author's perspective, point of view, allusions, or arguments are all interpreted through the reader's experiences, perspective, cultural orientation, and biases (Bernhardt, 1984).

The Study

The study focuses on the behaviours of first and second language readers when they are comprehending texts in both languages focusing on guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary items. It may be an insight towards the question posed by Alderson (1984) "Is it a reading problem or a language problem?"

Learning to read a foreign language can be seen as a dual problem of acquiring sufficient knowledge of the language itself and learning to use the reading skills present for the first language and in the foreign language (McDonough, 1995). In the study, these skills are induced to word guessing level assuming that vocabulary is the main obstacle in understanding a written text. It has been expected to see whether there were differences between the textual clues used during the guessing in the first language and during the guessing in the foreign language.

In the light of this assumption, the following types of textual clues have been the focus:

1. SYC: Syntactic Clues
2. SNC: Semantic Clues
3. TK: Thematic Knowledge
4. ETK: Extra-textual Knowledge

Item 1 indicates the relationships within the immediate sentence or paragraph. Item 2 means the information in the immediate context, that is sentence, paragraph or a larger discourse. Item 3 stands for the reader's overall grasp of the content of this particular text. Finally, Item 4 is the reader's general knowledge of the world (schematic knowledge) extending beyond the text.

Three central questions motivated the present study:

1. What are the dominant textual clues that readers make use of when they are guessing in the first language text?
2. Do they use these clues equally well in both texts?
3. What are the main type of clues discriminating the guesses in the first and in the foreign language?

Subjects

Data were collected from four volunteer students currently enrolled in the first year of the department of International Relations of Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey. They all past the English proficiency exam after attending a full year prep class last academic year in the English Language Department of the same university. All four were natives of Turkey and have never gone to an English speaking country. They all had similar background in English Language; all finished the same type of secondary school where there were more or less equal opportunities in learning English though it is hard to control all past activities related to learning English. Nevertheless, a substantial care has been taken depending on students own explanations during a pre-interview.

Procedures

Two texts, an English and a Turkish, were chosen. The English text came from a book called *İngilizce Ceviri Klavuzu* and was about Atatürk. It was about 350 words. The reason why such a text was chosen was to make sure that all subjects know something about Atatürk since they all studied similar texts during their previous schooling. The Turkish text came from the same book and it was about the evening news of a radio programme and it was about 360 words.

10 words in each text have been replaced with nonsense words. The words were paid attention to be the key words for the comprehension of the entire of two text and, therefore, 5 of them were nouns and 5 were verbs.

It was a single subject taped interview. Each subject had a short training session instructing what he/she is to do and why, so that he/she would feel at ease prior to the interview. Each was also told that the main task was to guess the meaning of the unknown words in the text by using any clues. They were also informed that all their speech would be tape-recorded. Two of them had the Turkish and the other two had the English text.

Protocol Analysis

It was elected to use protocol analysis (Ericsson and Simon, 1984) as the investigative tool most likely to yield the rich body of data one needs in an exploratory study. Previous research has shown that the "think-aloud" procedure could be effectively used with second language learners (Hosenfeld, 1977; Van Parreren and Schouten-van Parraren, 1981; Huckin, 1986). The subjects were asked to try to guess the meanings of the unknown (nonsense) words while thinking aloud either in Turkish or in English. All of their verbalizations were recorded on audio tape and later transcribed and translated into English.

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Appendix - 1

ISTANBUL' S TOKEMARKET (English Version)

Could this be Mexico one year on? At the beginning of 1994 Turkey was hit by a debt crisis. Since the end of the year consumer-price inflation had risen to 126%, 62% at the end of 1993; income by per head had shrunk by 5%, and the Turkish lira had **GURUNJED** by almost two-thirds against the dollar. International investors wrote the economy off as a lousy credit risk. Since the beginning of this year, however, something remarkable has **NICALONNED**. Growth has returned, interest rates have **ALBATONNED** and the Turkish stockmarket has soared. By April 21st the stockmarket had risen by 100% since the start of the year.

True, not everything is as rosy as it might seem at first. The recent **IRIBA** of money into the Turkish stockmarket has come after the lowest of ebb tides. Even after recent rises the price earnings ratio for the Istanbul Stock Ex-change composite index is still far below its previous peaks in 1990 and 1993. Many **BENEMIRES** may be fair-weather friends: they started buying shares only because there was less money to be made playing the market in short-dated government bills. Yields on these have fallen from 300% during the debt crisis, to just below 100% now. Since April 26th the market had fallen 6% from its **SARNA**.

Since at least lower interest rates should **MOHALA** company investment. And Turkish companies have **TIKITAED** the crisis surprisingly well. Although the economy **ZANGARAD** last year, Turk Ekonomi Bankasi Research, an independent stock-market consultancy based in Istanbul, estimates that the earnings of almost half of Turkey's listed companies grew faster than inflation. Such **MAAMIYE** has largely treasury bills. Almost two-fifths of the profits of 152 companies studied by TEB Research were from financial speculation. Nevertheless, this year it thinks that total **SUMARA** should grow by 12% in dollar teems.

Investors have also taken heart from an agreement in March for Turkey to enter into a customs union with the EU at the start of next year, subject to the **KUNGUS** of the European Parliament. But it is hard to see why they should be quite enthusiastic.

Appendix 2

İSTANBUL BORSASI (Turkish Version)

Acaba bir yıl öncesinin Meksika'sında mıyız? 1994 yılı başlarında Türkiye büyük bir borç krizi ile sarsıldı. 1993 yılı sonlarında tüketici fiyatlarındaki enflasyon oranı %62 iken 1994 yılı sonu itibarıyla %126 seviyesine yükseldi. Kişi başına milli hasıla (GDP) %5 lik bir küçülme göstermiş ve Türk Lirası Amerikan Doları karşısında üçte iki oranında **GRUNJEMİŞTİR**. Bu nedenlerle uluslar arası yatırımcılar Türk ekonomisini yüksek yatırım riski sınıfına koydular. Bütün bu olumsuzluklara rağmen bu yılın başından itibaren ekonomide büyümenin yeniden başlaması, faiz oranlarının **ALBATANMASI** ve Türk borsasının yükselmesi gibi önemli gelişmeler de **NİCALONMUŞTUR**. Nitekim Nisan ayında borsa, yıl başına göre %100 lük bir artış gösterdi.

Evet, her şey baştan görüldüğü gibi karamsar değildi. Türk borsasına son zamanlardaki para **İRİBASİ** borsanın en düşük seviyeye düşüşünden sonra yeniden başladı. Ama en son kaydedilen artışlardan sonra bile İstanbul borsasındaki yükselme endeksi 1990 – 1993 yılları arasında ulaşılan noktaların bir hayli altındadır. Doğal olarak pek çok **BENEMİRE** kısa sürede daha çok kazandıran devlet tahvillerine yöneldi ve bunun doğal sonucu olarak da borsa kriz sırasında %300 lük bir düşüş göstermiş ve şu sıralarda bu oran %100 ün biraz altına kadar çıkmıştır. 26 Nisandan bu yana borsa daha önce ulaştığı **SARNANIN** %6 ları seviyesindedir.

Düşen faiz oranları şirket yatırımlarını **MOHALAMIŞ** ve Türk iş adamları bu krizin üstesinden başarıyla **TİKİTALAMIŞLARDIR**. Geçen yıl büyüme hızının **ZANGARAMASINA** rağmen bağımsız bir araştırma kurumu hizmetini veren Türk Ekonomi Bankası (TEB) İstanbul bazında yaptığı araştırmalarında Türkiye'nin kayıtlı yatırım şirketlerinin yarısından fazlasının enflasyon oranının üzerinde bir büyüme gösterdiğini tespit etmiştir ve böylece onların bu karalı ve cesur **MAAMİYELERİ** meyvelerini vermiştir. Yine TEB araştırmalarına göre 152 şirketten beşte ikisi finans spekülasyonuna gitmiştir. Buna rağmen aynı araştırmalar bu yıl bu şirketlerin dolar bazında %12 lik bir **SUMARA** sağlayacaklar tahminini yapmaktadır.

Ayrıca, yatırımcılar ümitlerini bu yıl Mart ayında yapılacak olan ve Türkiye'nin gelecek yılın başından itibaren Avrupa Gümrük Birliğine dahil edilip edilmeyeceğinin

ele alınacağı toplantıya bağlamışlardır. Bu elbette Avrupa Birliği Parlamentosunun **KUNGUSUNA** bağlıdır, fakat bu kuruluşların neden bu işe bu kadar gönül bağladıklarını anlamak da hayli güç.

M-learning: Towards: Renovating the Delivery of Education and Training

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Abstract

“The way to bring a language to life is to be able to converse in it every day”

Mary Hanafin. Therefore, in this digital time where technology governs every aspect of our daily life, it is crucial for teachers to be able to insert technological aids to motivate their learners and keep pace with the latest technologies. M-learning or Mobile Learning appears to be a newly adopted technique within the teaching and learning of languages. Thus, the present paper attempts to introduce mobiles in the world of language education.

Background

Within a global economy, education appears to be at the heart for individuals' success in general and for the entire nation progress in particular (The Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, p. 3). Thus, education needs to be placed at the top priorities, not only for governments, but for all the members of society. In view of this, teachers should be at the curve of new technological tools and incorporate any advanced method for successful teaching/learning experience.

Higher education, in particular, does need to pay great attention to the societal changes that are occurring. Mobile devices are one of these revolutionary challenging changes. For instance, in a language classroom, students may be tweeting about an event or response to questions or issues in the class. They may use their phones to text messages or to answer questions posed by the instructor.

M-Learning

Traxler (2005: 262) describes that mobile learning as *“any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop devices”*. He assumes that mobile learning may include mobile phones, smart phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs) and their peripherals. On the other hand, mobile learning can also be defined as *“any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that occurs when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies”* (O'Malley et. al., 2003: 6).

Mobiles can be used in teaching language skills at large extent, for instance, texting may raise learners’ writing and spelling competence, audio recordings may facilitate the listening process, voice recording may help the learners develop their speaking competence and also camera can be a useful source to audiovisual activities.

Mobile Revolution in Education

If we take a look on the growing definitions of mobile learning, we may be seeing technology-based frameworks at the heart of successful education. This incorporation, is currently seeking to locate mobile learning within broader educational frameworks, taking into account the social and philosophical dimensions (Traxler 2005; Laouris 2005). This rapidly revolution has turned the landscape of teaching and learning into more advanced area of research where affordance of new technologies, such as mobiles, is at the heart of its concern.

Mobile learning technologies clearly support at a large extent the transmission and delivery of rich multimedia content. Implementing wireless and mobile education within higher education need to be encouraged and diffused, due to the fact that mobiles support the teaching/learning process like for instance, discussion and discourse, real-time, synchronous and asynchronous, using voice, text and multimedia.

In a speaking course for example, mobiles can be used to check the electronic dictionaries applications, voice recording and playing back, using the camera to film the learners’ progress over time, and even note taking in its agenda. Pronunciation application may also be found in learners’ mobiles.

Pros and Cons of Mobiles

Oddly enough, nothing is perfect, and a number of demerits are worth mentioning in the following table:

| Advantages | Disadvantages |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>It increases student’ motivation through the use of familiar technology.</p> <p>Even unenthusiastic learners are attracted towards this technology.</p> <p>Increases student’ use of the four skills</p> | <p>-Activities such as browsing internet, sending messages, making calls will cost money.</p> <p>-Use of noisy phones in the classroom may harm the classroom atmosphere.</p> |

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Helps students become more competent in English. | -Keen observation of the teacher is mandatory otherwise the use of mobile |
| Promotes the use of English for communication purposes | phone may divert the attention of the students to unnecessary web sites. |
| Helps in assessing the language skill of the learners. | |

Table 5.3. The Advantages and Disadvantages of Mobiles in Classroom

Conclusion

I believe that technology has been such a channel towards success. Arthur C. Clarke once said with much foresight, “Any sufficiently advanced technology is indistinguishable from magic” (1984). Therefore, I believe that we really have achieved the point where we do have magic, and the question that it asks itself is we have the opportunity to ask what we should do with it.

References

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